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VOL. IX.

INDOCTI DISCANT, ET AMENT MEMINISSE PERITI.

EDINBURGH:

Printed for J. BALFOUR and Co. W. GORDON, J. BELL, J. DICKSON, C. ELLIOT, W. CREECH,
J. McCLIESH, A. BELL, J. HUTTON, and C. MACFARQUHAR.

MDCCLXXXII.

A NEW

Dictionary of Arts, Sciences, &c.

Poggius. POGGIUS BRACCIOLINUS, a man of great parts and learning, who contributed much to the revival of knowledge in Europe, was born at Terranuova, in the territories of Florence, in 1380. His first public employment was that of writer of the apostolic letters, which he held 10 years; and was then made apostolic secretary, in which capacity he officiated 40 years, under seven popes. In 1453, when he was 72 years of age, he accepted the employment of secretary to the republic of Florence, to which place he removed, and died in 1459. He visited several countries, and searched many monasteries, to recover ancient authors, numbers of which he brought to light: his own works consist of moral pieces, orations, letters, and *A history of Florence* from 1350 to 1455, which is the most considerable of them.

POICTIERS, an ancient, large, and considerable town of France, capital of Poictou; with a bishop's see, four abbeys, a mint, and an university famous for law. It contains 22 parishes, nine convents for men, and 12 nunneries. There are several Roman antiquities; and particularly an amphitheatre, but partly demolished, and hid by the houses. There is also a triumphal arch, which serves as a gate to the great street. It is not peopled in proportion to its extent.

Near this place Edward the Black Prince obtained a decisive victory over the French in 1536. The army commanded by the former did not exceed 12,000 men, and of these not a third part were English. The French army, commanded by king John, consisted of 60,000 men, who unexpectedly came up with the English army, surrounded them, and by intercepting their provisions might have reduced the whole army without striking a blow. But such was the ardour of the French nobility, and so much had their thoughts been bent on overtaking the English as their sole object, that this idea never struck any of the commanders; and they immediately took measures for the assault, as for a certain victory. While the French army was drawn up in order of battle, they were stopped by the appearance of the cardinal of Perigord; who, having learned the approach of the two armies to each other, had hastened, by interposing his good offices, to prevent any farther effusion of Christian blood. By John's permission, he carried proposals to the prince of Wales; and found him so sensible of the bad posture of his affairs, that an accommodation seemed not impracticable. Edward told him, that he would agree to any terms consistent with his own honour and that of England; and he offered to purchase a retreat by resigning all the conquests which he had made during this and the former campaign, and by stipulating not to serve against France during the course of seven years. But John, imagining that he had now got into his hands a sufficient pledge for the restitution of Calais, required that Edward should surrender himself prisoner with 100 of his attendants; and offered on these terms a safe retreat to the English army. The prince rejected the proposal with disdain; and declared, that whatever fortune should attend him, England should never be obliged to pay the price of his ransom. This resolute answer cut off all hopes of accommodation; but as the day was already spent in negotiating, the battle was delayed till the next morning. Poictiers.

The cardinal of Perigord, as all the prelates of the court of Rome, was extremely attached to the French cause; but the most determined enemy could not have contrived a greater prejudice to John's affairs, than he did them by this delay. The prince of Wales had leisure, during the night, to strengthen, by new intrenchments, the post which he had before so judiciously chosen; and he contrived an ambush of 300 men at arms, and as many archers, whom he put under the command of the Captal de Buche, and ordered to make a circuit, that they might fall on the flank or rear of the French army during the engagement. The van of his army was commanded by the earl of Warwic, the rear by the earls of Salisbury and Suffolk, the main body by the prince himself. The lords Chandos, Audeley, and many other brave and experienced commanders, were at the head of different corps of his army.

John also arranged his forces in three divisions, nearly equal: the first was commanded by the duke of Orleans, the king's brother; the second by the dauphin attended with his two younger brothers; the third by the king himself, who had by his side Philip, his fourth son and favourite, then about 14 years of age. There was no reaching the English army but through a narrow lane, covered on each side by hedges; and in order to open this passage, the mareschals Andrehen and Clermont were ordered to advance with a separate detachment of men at arms. While they marched along the lane, a body of English archers, who lined the hedges, plied them on each side with their arrows; and being very near them, yet placed in perfect safety, they coolly took their aim against the enemy, and massacred them with impunity. The French detachment, much discouraged with the une-

qual fight, and diminiſhed in their number, arrived at the end of the lane, where they met on the open grounds the prince of Wales himſelf, at the head of a choſen body, for their reception. They were diſcomfited and overthrown: one of the mareſchals was ſlain; the other was taken priſoner; and the remainder of the detachment, who were ſtill in the lane, expoſed to the ſhot of the enemy, without being able to make reſiſtance, recoiled upon their own army, and put every thing into diſorder. In that critical moment, the Captal de Buche unexpectedly appeared, and attacked in flank the dauphin's line, which fell into ſome confuſion. Landas, Bodenai, and St Venant, to whom the care of that young prince and his brothers had been committed, too anxious for their charge or for their own ſafety, carried them off the field of battle, and ſet the example of flight, which was followed by that whole diviſion. The duke of Orleans, ſeized with a like panic, and imagining all was loſt, thought no longer of fighting, but carried off his diviſion by a retreat, which ſoon turned into a flight. The lord Chandos called out to the prince, that the day was won; and encouraged him to attack the diviſion under king John, which, though more numerous than the whole Engliſh army, were ſomewhat diſmayed with the precipitate flight of their companions. John here made the utmoſt efforts to retrieve by his valour, what his imprudence had betrayed; and the only reſiſtance made that day was by his line of battle. The prince of Wales fell with impetuoſity on ſome German cavalry placed in the front, and commanded by the counts of Sallebruche, Nydo, and Noſto. A fierce battle enſued. The one ſide was encouraged by the near proſpect of ſo great a victory; the other was retained by the ſhame of quitting the field to an enemy ſo much inferior: but the three German generals, together with the duke of Athens, conſtable of France, falling in battle, that body of cavalry gave way, and left the king himſelf expoſed to the whole fury of the enemy. The ranks were every moment thinned around him: the nobles fell by his ſide, one after another: his ſon, ſcarce 14 years of age, received a wound, while he was fighting valiantly in defence of his father: the king himſelf, ſpent with fatigue, and overwhelmed by numbers, might eaſily have been diſpatched; but every Engliſh gentleman, ambitious of taking alive the royal priſoner, ſpared him in the action, called to him to ſurrender himſelf, and offered him quarter: ſeveral who attempted to ſeize him, ſuffered for their temerity. He ſtill cried out, *Where is my couſin the prince of Wales?* and ſeemed unwilling to become priſoner to any perſon of inferior rank. But being told, that the prince was at a great diſtance on the field, he threw down his gauntlet, and yielded himſelf to Dennis de Morbec, a knight of Arras, who had been obliged to fly his country for murder. His ſon was taken with him.

POICTOU, a province of France, bounded on the north by Bretagne, Anjou, and part of Touraine; on the eaſt by Touraine, Berry, and Manche; on the ſouth by Angoumois, Saintonge, and the territory of Aunis; and on the weſt by the ſea of Gaſcony. It is divided into the Upper and Lower; and is fertile in corn and wine, and feeds a great number of cattle, particularly mules. It was in the poſſeſſion of the kings of England for a conſiderable time, till it was loſt by the unfortunate Henry VI. Poictiers is the capital town.

POINCIANA, Barbadoes flower-fence; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the decandria of plants. There is only one ſpecies, viz. the pulcherrima, a native of both Indies. It riſes with a ſtraight ſtalk 10 or 12 feet high, which is covered with a grey bark, and is ſometimes as thick as the ſmall of a man's leg, dividing into ſeveral ſpreading branches at the top, which are armed at each joint with two ſhort, crooked, ſtrong ſpines, and garniſhed with decompound winged leaves, each leaf conſiſting of ſix or eight pair of ſimple winged leaves. They are of a light green colour, and, when bruiſed, emit a ſtrong odour. The branches are terminated by looſe ſpikes of flowers, which are ſometimes formed into a kind of pyramid, and at others diſpoſed more in the form of an umbel. The foot-ſtalk of each flower is near three inches long; the flower is compoſed of five petals which are roundiſh at the top, but are contracted to narrow tails at the baſe. They ſpread open, and are beautifully variegated with a deep red or orange colour, yellow, and ſome ſpots of green; and emit a very agreeable odour. After the flower is paſt, the germen becomes a broad flat pod three inches long, divided into three or four cells by tranverſe partitions, each including one flattiſh irregular ſeed. The plant is propagated by ſeeds; but, being tender, is to be conſtantly kept in the bark-ſtove. It is very impatient of moiſture in winter; and if the leaſt damp ſeizes its top, it either kills the plant, or deſtroys its head. With proper management it will grow taller here than in the places where it is native; but its ſtems will not be thicker than a man's finger. In Barbadoes it is planted in hedges to divide the lands, whence it has the name of *flower-fence*. In the Weſt Indies, its leaves are made uſe of as a purge inſtead of ſena; and in Jamaica, it is called *ſena*.

POINT, a term uſed in various arts.

Point, in grammar, a character uſed to mark the diviſions of diſcourſe. See Comma, Colon, &c. A point proper is what we otherwiſe call a *full ſtop* or *period*. See Punctuation.

The points, or *vowel points*, in the Hebrew grammar, are certain characters, which in the writings of that language, ſerve to mark the vowels. The antiquity of theſe points make the ſubject of a celebrated controverſy, ſome maintaining their origin to be the ſame with that of the Hebrew language; and others aſſerting them to have been firſt introduced by Eſdras, after the Babyloniſh captivity, when he compiled the canon, tranſcribed the books into the preſent Chaldee character, and reſtored the purity of the Hebrew text. Some will have them invented by the doctors of the ſchool of Tiberias, uſually called the *maſſoretes*, 500 or 600 years after Chriſt.

Point, in muſic, a mark or note anciently uſed to diſtinguiſh the tones or ſounds: hence we ſtill call it *ſimple counter-point*, when a note of the lower part anſwers exactly to that of an upper; and *figurative counter-point*, when any note is ſyncopated, and one of the parts makes ſeveral notes or inflexions of the voice, while the other holds on one.

We ſtill uſe a point, to raiſe the value of a note, and

Point || Poison.

and prolong its time by one half, *e. g.* a point added to a ſemibreve inſtead of two minims, make it equal to three; and ſo of the other notes. See the article TIME.

POINT, in aſtronomy, a term applied to certain points or places, marked in the heavens, and diſtinguiſhed by proper epithets.

The four grand points or diviſions of the horizon, *viz.* the eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth, are called the *cardinal points.*

The zenith and nadir are the vertical points; the points wherein the orbits of the planets cut the plane of the ecliptic, are called the *nodes:* the points wherein the equator and ecliptic interſect, are called the *equinoctial points;* particularly, that whence the ſun aſcends towards the north pole, is called the *vernal point;* and that by which he deſcends to the ſouth pole, the *autumnal point.* The points of the ecliptic, where the ſun's aſcent above the equator, and deſcent below it, terminate, are called the *ſolſtitial point;* particularly the former of them, the *eſtival* or *ſummer-point;* the latter, the *brumal* or *winter-point.*

POINT, is alſo uſed for a cape or headland, jetting out into the ſea: thus ſeamen ſay, two points of land are in one another, when they are ſo in a right line againſt each other, as that the innermoſt is hindered from being ſeen by the outermoſt.

POINT, in perſpective, is uſed for various poles or places, with regard to the perſpective plane. See PERSPECTIVE.

POINTS, in heraldry, are the ſeveral different parts of an eſcutcheon, denoting the local poſitions of any figure. See HERALDRY, p. 3583, col. 2.

POINT is alſo an iron or ſteel inſtrument, uſed with ſome variety in ſeveral arts. Engravers, etchers, cutters in wood, &c. uſe points to trace their deſigns on the copper, wood, ſtone, *&c.* See the articles ENGRAVING, &c.

POINT, in the manufactories, is a general term, uſed for all kinds of laces wrought with the needle; ſuch are the point le Venice, point de France, point de Genoa, &c. which are diſtinguiſhed by the particular œconomy and arrangement of their points. *Point* is ſometimes uſed for lace woven with bobbins; as Engliſh point, point de Malines, point d'Havre, &c.

POINT, in poetry, denotes a lively briſk turn, or conceit, uſually found or expected at the cloſe of an epigram. See POETRY, n° 47.

POINTING, in grammar, the art of dividing a diſcourſe, by points, into periods and members of periods, in order to ſhow the proper pauſes to be made in reading, and to facilitate the pronunciation and underſtanding thereof. See the article PUNCTUATION.

POISON, any ſubſtance which proves deſtructive to the life of animals in a ſmall quantity, either taken by the mouth, mixed with the blood, or applied to the nerves.

Of poiſons there are many different kinds, and theſe are as various in their operations. The mineral poiſons, as arſenic and corroſive mercury, ſeem to attack the ſolid parts of the ſtomach, and to produce death by eroding its ſubſtance: the antimonials ſeem rather to attack the nerves, and to kill by throwing the whole ſyſtem into convulſions; and in this manner alſo moſt of the vegetable poiſons ſeem to operate. All of theſe, however, ſeem to be inferior in ſtrength to the poiſons of ſome of the more deadly kinds of ſerpents, which operate ſo ſuddenly that the animal bit by them will be dead before another that had ſwallowed arſenic would be affected.

Much has been written concerning a poiſon made uſe of by the African negroes, by the Americans, and by the Eaſt Indians. To this very ſtrange effects have been aſcribed. It has been ſaid that by this poiſon a man might be killed at any certain time; as, for inſtance, after the interval of a day, a week, a month, a year, or even ſeveral years. Theſe wonderful effects, however, do not ſeem worthy of credit; as the Abbe Fontana has given a particular account of an American poiſon called *ticunas,* which in all probability is the ſame with that uſed in Africa and the Eaſt Indies; and from this account it is extremely improbable that any ſuch effects could be produced with certainty.

With this poiſon the Abbe was furniſhed by Dr Heberden. It was cloſed and ſealed up in an earthen pot incloſed in a tin caſe. Within the tin caſe was a note containing the following words: "Indian poiſon, brought from the banks of the river of the Amazons by Don Pedro Maldonado. It is one of the ſorts mentioned in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, vol. xlvii. number 12." In the volume of the Philoſophical Tranſactions here quoted, mention is made of two poiſons little different in their activity; the one called the *poiſon of Lamas,* and the other of *Ticunas.* The poiſon in the earthen veſſel uſed by the Abbe Fontana was that of the Ticunas; but he was alſo furniſhed with a number of American arrows dipped in poiſon, but whether that of the Lamas or Ticunas he could not tell.

Our author begins his account of the nature of this poiſon with detecting ſome of the miſtakes which had been propagated concerning it.—It had been aſſerted, that the Ticunas poiſon proves noxious by the mere effluvia, but much more by the ſteam which exhales from it in boiling or burning: that, among the Indians, it is prepared only by women condemned to die; and that the mark of its being ſufficiently prepared is when the attendant is killed by its ſteam. All theſe aſſertions are by the Abbe refuted in the cleareſt manner. He expoſed a young pigeon to the ſmell of the poiſon when the veſſel was opened, to the ſteam of it when boiling, and to the vapour of it when burning to the ſides of the veſſel, without the animal's being the leaſt injured; on which, concluding that the vapours of this poiſon were not to be dreaded, he expoſed himſelf to them without any fear.

This poiſon diſſolves very readily even in cold water, and likewiſe in the vegetable and mineral acids. With oil of vitriol it becomes as black as ink, but not with the reſt of the acids. In oil of vitriol it alſo diſſolves more ſlowly than in any of the reſt. It does not effervesce with acids or alkalies; neither does it alter milk, nor tinge it, except with the natural colour of the poiſon; nor does it tinge the vegetable juices either red or green. When examined by the microſcope, there is no appearance of regularity or cryſtallization; but it for the moſt part appears made up of very ſmall, irregular, roundiſh bodies, like vegetable juices. It dries without making any noiſe, and

and has an extremely bitter taste when put upon the tongue.

The ticunas poison is harmless when put into the eyes; nor is it fatal when taken by the mouth, unless the quantity is considerable. Six grains of the solid poison, dissolved in water, killed a young pigeon, which drank it, in less than 20 minutes. Five grains killed a small Guinea-pig in 25 minutes. Eight grains killed a rabbit in an hour and eight minutes, &c. In those experiments it was observed that much less poison was required to kill an animal whose stomach was empty than one that had a full stomach. Three rabbits and two pigeons were killed in less than 35 minutes by taking a dose of three grains each on an empty stomach; but when the experiment was repeated on five animals with full stomachs, only one of them died.

The most fatal operation of this poison is when mixed with the blood. The smallest quantity, injected into the jugular vein, killed the animal as if by a stroke of lightning. When applied to wounds in such a manner that the flowing of the blood could not wash it away, the animal fell into convulsions and a train of fatal nervous symptoms, which put an end to its life in a few minutes. Yet, notwithstanding these seeming affections of the nerves, the poison proved harmless when applied to the naked nerves themselves, or even to the medullary substance of them slit open.

The strength of this poison seems to be diminished and even destroyed by mineral acids, but not at all by alkalies or ardent spirits; but if the fresh poison was applied to a wound, the application of mineral acids immediately after could not remove the pernicious effects. So far, indeed, was this from being the case, that the application of nitrous acid to the wounded muscle of a pigeon killed the animal in a short time without any poison at all.—The effects of the arrows were equally fatal with those of the poison itself.

The poison of the viper is analogous in its effects to that of ticunas, but inferior in strength; the latter killing more instantaneously when injected into a vein, than even the poison of the most venomous rattlesnake.

The Abbe has, however, observed a difference in the action of the two poisons upon blood taken out of the body. He cut off the head of a pigeon, and received its blood into two warm conical glasses, to the amount of about 80 drops into each. Into the blood contained in one porringer, he put four drops of water; and into the other, four drops of the poison dissolved in water as usual. The event of this experiment was, that the blood, with which the water only was mixed, coagulated in a short time; but that in which the poison was mixed, did not coagulate at all. The poison of the viper also hinders the blood from coagulating, but gives it a much blacker tinge than the poison of the ticunas. The poison of the viper also proves certainly fatal when injected into the veins, even in very small quantity; but it produces a kind of grumous coagulation and blackness in the blood when drawn from a vein, though it prevents the proper coagulation of that fluid, and its separation into crassamentum and serum as usual.

In the Philosophical Transactions, n° 335. we have a number of experiments which show the effects of many different poisons upon animals; from whence it appears, that many substances which are not at all accounted poisonous, yet prove as certainly fatal when mixed with the blood as even the poison of rattlesnakes, or the ticunas itself.—An ounce of emetic wine, being injected into the jugular vein of a large dog, produced no effect for a quarter of an hour. At the expiration of that space he became sick, had a continual vomiting, and evacuation of some hard excrements by stool. By these evacuations he seemed to be somewhat relieved; but soon grew uneasy, moved from place to place, and vomited again. After this he laid himself down on the ground pretty quietly; but his rest was disturbed by a return of his vomiting, and his strength greatly decreased. An hour and an half after the operation he appeared half dead, but was greatly revived by having some warm broth poured down his throat with a funnel. This, however, proved only a temporary relief; for in a short time the vomiting returned, he made urine in great quantity, howled miserably, and died in convulsions.—A dram and a half of sal ammoniac dissolved in an ounce and an half of water, and injected into the jugular vein of a dog, killed him with convulsions almost instantly.—The same effect followed from injecting a dram of salt of Tartar dissolved in an ounce of warm water; but a dram and an half of common salt injected into the jugular produced little other bad consequence than a temporary thirst.—A dram of purified white vitriol, injected into the crural vein of a dog, killed him immediately.—Fifteen grains of salt of urine dissolved in an ounce of water, and injected into the crural vein of a dog, threw him into such violent convulsions that he seemed to be dying; nevertheless he recovered from a second dose, though not without a great deal of difficulty: but an ounce of urine made by a man fasting, produced no bad effect. Diluted aqua fortis injected into the jugular and crural vein of a dog killed him immediately by coagulating the blood. Oil of sulphur, (containing some quantity of the volatile vitriolic acid) did not kill a dog, after repeated trials. On the contrary, as soon as he was let go, he ran into all the corners of the room searching for meat; and having found some bones, he fell a gnawing them with strange avidity, as if the acid, by injection into his veins, had given him a better appetite.—Another dog who had oil of tartar injected into his veins, swelled and died, after suffering great torment. His blood was found florid, and not coagulated.—A dram and a half of spirit of salt diluted with water, and injected into the jugular vein of a dog, killed him immediately. In the right ventricle of the heart the blood was found partly grumous and concreted into harder clots than ordinary, and partly frothy. Warm vinegar was injected without doing any manifest harm.—Two drams of sugar dissolved into an ounce of water were injected into the jugular vein of a dog without any hurt.

These are the results of the experiments where saline substances were injected into the veins. Many acrids proved equally fatal. A decoction of two drams of white hellebore, injected into the jugular vein of a dog, killed him like a stroke of lightning. Another dog was killed in a moment by an injection of an ounce of rec-

Poison. rectified ſpirit of wine in which a dram of camphor was diſſolved,—Ten drams of highly rectified ſpirit of wine, injected into the crural vein of a dog, killed him in a very ſhort time: he died quietly, and licking his jaws with his tongue, as if with pleaſure. In the vena cava and right ventricle of the heart the blood was coagulated into a great many little clots.—Three drams of rectified ſpirit of wine injected into the crural vein of a ſmall dog made him apoplectic, and, as it were, half dead. In a little time he recovered from the apoplexy, and became giddy; and, when he endeavoured to go, reeled and fell down. Though his ſtrength increaſed by degrees, yet his drunkenneſs continued. His eyes were red and fiery; and his ſight ſo dull, that he ſcarce ſeemed to take notice of any thing; and when he was beat, he would ſcarce move. However, in four hours he began to recover, and would eat bread when offered him; the next day he was out of danger.—Five ounces of ſtrong white-wine injected into the crural vein of a dog made him very drunk for a few hours, but did not produce any other conſequences. An ounce of ſtrong decoction of tobacco injected into a vein, killed a dog in a very ſhort time in terrible convulſions. Ten drops of oil of ſage rubbed with half a dram of ſugar, and thus diſſolved in water, did no harm by being injected into the blood.

Mercury, though ſeemingly void of all acrimony, proves alſo fatal when injected into the blood. Soon after the injection of half an ounce of this mineral into the jugular vein of a dog, he was ſeized with a dry ſhort cough which came by intervals. About two days after, he was troubled with a great difficulty of breathing, and made a noiſe like that of a broken-winded horſe. There was no tumour about the root of the tongue or the parotid glands, nor any appearance of a ſalivation. In four days he died; having been for two days before ſo much troubled with an orthopnœa, that he could ſleep only when he leaned his head againſt ſomething. When opened, about a pint of bloody ſerum was found in the thorax, and the outſide of the lungs in moſt places was bliſtered. Some of the bliſters were larger and others ſmaller than a pea, but moſt of them contained mercurial globules. Several of them were broken; and upon being preſſed a little, the mercury ran out with a mixture of a little ſanies; but upon ſtronger preſſure, a conſiderable quantity of ſanies iſſued out. In the right ventricle of the heart ſome particles of quickſilver were found in the very middle of the coagulated blood lodged there, and the ſame thing alſo was obſerved in the pulmonary artery. Some blood alſo was found coagulated in a very ſtrange and unuſual manner between the columnæ of the right ventricle of the heart, and in this a greater quantity of quickſilver than any where elſe. In the left ventricle was found a very tenacious blood, coagulated, and ſticking to the great valve, including the tendons of it, and a little reſembling a polypus. No mercury could be found in this ventricle by the moſt diligent ſearch; whence it appears, that the mercury had paſſed no farther than the extremities of the pulmonary artery, where it had ſtuck, and occaſioned fatal obſtructions. In another dog, which had mercury injected into the jugular, it appears to have paſſed the pulmonary artery, as part of it was found in the cavity of the abdomen, and part alſo in ſome other cavities of the body. All the glandules were very turgid and full of liquor, eſpecially in the ventricles of the brain, and all round there was a great quantity of ſerum.

In like manner, oil of olives proves certainly fatal when injected into the blood. Half an ounce of this, injected into the crural vein of a dog, produced no effect in half a quarter of an hour: but after that, the animal barked, cried, looked dejected, and fell into a deep apoplexy; ſo that his limbs were deprived of all ſenſe and motion, and were flexible any way at pleaſure. His reſpiration continued very ſtrong, with a ſnorting and wheezing, and a thick humour ſometimes mixed with blood flowing out of his mouth. He loſt all external ſenſe: the eyes, though they continued open, were not ſenſible of any objects that were put to them; and even the cornea could be touched and rubbed, without his being in the leaſt ſenſible of it: his eye-lids, however, had a convulſive motion. The hearing was quite loſt; and in a ſhort time the feeling became ſo dull, that his claws and ears could be bored with red hot-pincers without his expreſſing the leaſt pain. Sometimes he was ſeized with a convulſive motion of the diaphragm and muſcles ſubſervient to reſpiration; upon which he would bark ſtrongly, as if he had been awake: but this waking was only in appearance; for all the time of this barking, he continued as inſenſible as ever. In three hours he died; and on opening his body, the bronchiæ were filled with a thick froth.—An ounce of oil of olives injected into the jugular of another dog, killed him in a moment; but a third lived an hour after it. He was ſeized with great ſleepineſs, ſnorting, and wheezing, but did not bark like the firſt. In all of them a great quantity of thick froth was found in the lungs.

We come now to ſpeak of thoſe poiſons which prove mortal when taken by the mouth. The principal of theſe are, arſenic, corroſive mercury, glaſs of antimony, and lead, which have been already treated of *. What the effects of theſe ſubſtances are when injected into the blood, cannot be related, as no experiments ſeem to have been made with them in that way, excepting antimony, whoſe effects have been already noticed. The effects of opium, when injected into the veins, ſeem to be ſimilar to its effects when taken by the mouth. Fifty grains of opium, diſſolved in an ounce of water, were injected into the crural vein of a cat. Immediately after the operation ſhe ſeemed much dejected, but did not cry; only made a low, interrupted, and complaining noiſe. This was ſucceeded by trembling of the limbs, convulſive motions of the eyes, ears, lips, and almoſt all parts of the body, with violent convulſions of the breaſt. Sometimes ſhe would raiſe up her head, and ſeem to look about her; but her eyes were very dull, and looked dead. Tho' ſhe was let looſe, and had nothing tied about her neck, yet her mouth was ſo filled with froth, that ſhe was almoſt ſtrangled. At laſt, her convulſive motions continuing, and being ſeized with ſtretching of her limbs, ſhe died in a quarter of an hour. Upon opening the body, the blood was found not to be much altered from its natural ſtate.—A dram and an half of opium was diſſolved in an ounce and an half of water, and then injected into the crural vein of a luſty ſtrong dog. He ſtruggled violently; made a loud noiſe, though his jaws were tied; had a great difficulty of breathing, and

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* See Chemiſtry, nº 464. 465. and Medicine, nº 373. 494.

and palpitation of the heart; with convulsive motions of almost all parts of his body. These symptoms were succeeded by a profound and apoplectic sleep. Having untied him, he lay upon the ground without moving or making any noise, though severely beaten. About half an hour after he began to recover some sense, and would move a little when beaten. The sleepiness still decreased; so that in an hour and a half he would make a noise and walk a little when beat. However, he died in four days, after having voided a quantity of fetid excrements, in colour resembling the diluted opium he had swallowed.

The oil of tobacco has generally been reckoned a very violent poison when introduced into the blood; but from the Abbe Fontana's experiments, it appears to be far inferior in strength to the poison of Ticunas, or to the bite of a viper. A drop of oil of tobacco was put into a small incision in the right thigh of a pigeon, and in two minutes the animal could not stand on its right foot. The same experiment was repeated on another pigeon with exactly the same success. In another case, the oil was applied to a slight wound in the breast; three minutes after which, the animal could not stand on the left foot. This experiment also was repeated a second time, with the same success. A tooth-pick, steeped in oil of tobacco, and introduced into the muscles of the breast, made the animal fall down in a few seconds as if dead. Applied to two others, they threw up several times all the food they had eaten. Two others treated in the same manner, but with empty stomachs, made many efforts to vomit.—In general, the vomiting was found to be a constant effect of this poison: but the loss of motion in the part to which the poison is applied, was found to be only accidental. None of the animals died by the application of the oil of tobacco.

The pernicious effects of laurel water are taken notice of under the article MEDICINE, n° 373. The account is confirmed by the late experiments of the Abbe Fontana; who tells us, that it not only kills in a short time when taken by the mouth, but that, when given in small doses, the animal writhes so that the head joins the tail, and the vertebræ arch out in such a manner as to strike with horror every one who sees it. In order to ascertain the effects of this water when taken into the blood, our author opened the skin of the lower belly of a pretty large rabbit, and made a wound in it about an inch long; and having slightly wounded the muscles under it in many parts, applied two or three tea-spoonfuls of laurel water. The animal fell down convulsed in less than three minutes, and died soon after. The experiment was repeated with similar success in other animals; but was always found to act most powerfully, and in the shortest time, when taken by the mouth, or injected by way of clyster. From these experiments, however, he concluded, that laurel-water would kill by being injected into the blood: but in this he was deceived; for two rabbits had each of them a large tea-spoonful injected into the jugular vein, without any inconvenience either at the time of injection or afterwards. It proved innocent also when applied to the bare nerves, and even when introduced into their medullary substance.

We ought now to give some account of the proper antidotes for each kind of poison; but from what has been related concerning the extreme activity of some of them, it is evident that in many cases there can be but very little hope. People are most apt to be bit by serpents in the legs or hands; and as the poison, from the Abbé Fontana's experiments, appears to act only in consequence of being absorbed into the blood, it is plain that to prevent this absorption is the chief indication of cure. Various methods have been recommended for this purpose under the article MEDICINE, n° 394.; but the Abbé Fontana proposes a method which is not mentioned there, namely, ligature. This, if properly applied between the wounded part and the heart, must certainly prevent the bad effects of the poison: but then it tends to produce a disease almost equally fatal; namely, a gangrene of the part; and our author gives instances of animals being thus destroyed, after the effects of the poison were prevented; for which reason he prefers amputation. But the good effects of either of these methods, it is evident, must depend greatly on the nature of the part wounded, and the time when the ligature is applied or the amputation performed. If the teeth of the serpent, or the poisoned arrow, happens to strike a large vein, the only possibility of escaping instant death is to compress the trunk of the vein above the wounded place, and to enlarge the wound, that the blood may flow freely and in large quantity, in order to wash away the poison, and discharge the infected parts of the blood itself. If this is neglected, and the person falls into the agonies of death, perhaps strongly stimulating medicines given in large doses, and continued for a length of time, may enable nature to counteract the virulence of the poison. For this purpose volatile alkalies seem most proper, as acting soonest; and perhaps a combination of them with ether might be advantageous, as by the volatility of that medicine the activity of the alkali would probably be increased. In the Philosophical Transactions, we have an account of the recovery of a dog seemingly by means of the volatile alkali when probably he was in a dying condition. This dog indeed seems to have had a remarkable strength of constitution. The poor creature had first got two ounces of the juice of nightshade, which he bore without any inconvenience. An equal quantity of the juice of hemlock was then given him without effect. He then got a large dose of the root of wolfsbane with the same success. Two drachms of white hellebore root were next given. These caused violent vomitings and purgings, but still he outlived the operation. He was then made to swallow five roots of the colchicum, or meadow-saffron, dug fresh out of the earth. The effect of these was similar to that of the white hellebore, but still he did not die. Lastly, he got two drachms of opium; and he even outlived this dose. He was first cast into a deep sleep by it; but soon awaked, and was seized with violent vomitings and purgings, which carried off the effect of the opium. Seeing then that the animal had resisted the most violent poisons, it was resolved to try the effects of the bite of a viper; and he was accordingly bit three or four times on the belly a little below the navel by an enraged viper. The immediate consequence of this was an incipient gangrene in the parts adjoining to the wound, as appeared by the rising of little black bladders filled with a sanious matter, and a livid colour which propagated itself all around

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around. The motion of the heart became very faint and irregular, and the animal lay without ſtrength or ſenſation, as if he had been ſeized with a lethargy or apoplexy. In this condition his wound was cupped and ſcarified, and Venice treacle (a famous antidote) applied to it. In two hours after this all the ſymptoms were increaſed, and he ſeemed to be near death; upon which half a drachm of volatile ſalt of hartſhorn mixed with a little broth was poured down his throat; and the conſequence was, that in a ſhort time he was able to ſtand on his feet and walk. Another doſe entirely diſpelled his lethargy, and the heart began to recover its ſtrength. However, he continued very weak; and though he eat no ſolid meat for three days, yet at the end of that time his ſtrength was evidently increaſed. The firſt day he drank water plentifully and greedily, and on the ſecond day he drank ſome broth. On the third day he began to eat ſolid meat, and ſeemed out of danger; only ſome large and foul ulcers remained on that part of the belly which was bit, and before theſe were healed he was killed by another dog.

From comparing this with ſome other obſervations, indeed, it would ſeem that volatile alkali is the beſt antidote againſt all poiſons which ſuddenly kill by a mixture with the blood, and even of ſome others. Thus, on the teſtimony of Dr Mead, it counteracts the deadly effects of the laurel water. Here we ſee that it cured the bite of a viper; and from Dr Wolfe's experiments on hydrophobous patients, it may even claim ſome merit there. Still, however, there is another method of attempting a cure in ſuch deplorable caſes; and that is, by injecting into the veins any thing which will not deſtroy life, but will deſtroy the effects of the poiſon. It is much to be regretted, that in thoſe cruel experiments which we have already related, the intention ſeems almoſt always to have been to kill the animal at all events; whereas, it ought to have been to preſerve him alive, and to aſcertain what medicines could be ſafely injected into the blood, and what could not, with the effects which followed the injection of different quantities, none of which were ſufficient to deſtroy life. But in the way they were managed, ſcarce any concluſion can be drawn from them. Thus, when it was found that half an ounce of olive oil, injected into the jugular vein, killed a dog in a ſhort time, to what purpoſe, except to gratify mere wanton cruelty, was it to inject a whole ounce into the jugular of another dog? Certainly, inſtead of this quantity, only a few drops ought to have been tried, which might have acted medicinally, or at worſt brought on a diſorder that would have been curable. A quantity of diluted aquafortis, we are told, coagulated all the blood in the veſſels; but this effect might eaſily have been gueſſed *à priori*, from its effect on the blood taken out of the body. Ought it not then to have been tried in ſuch ſmall quantity, and ſo much diluted, that its coagulating power would not have deſtroyed life? However, even as they ſtand, the experiments are uſeful; becauſe they ſhow that ſome medicinal liquors may be injected into the veins of animals without deſtroying life; that thus they produce powerful effects, and therefore may remove diſeaſes. They deſerve therefore to be well conſidered, and often repeated, but in a more merciful manner. As to the performance of ſuch operations on the human body, it is by no means to be encouraged, without greater certainty than what can ariſe from the teſtimonies mentioned under INJECTION in the APPENDIX. Theſe are equivocal, becauſe the names of the medicines are concealed. Some of the patients, it is owned, ſunk under either the diſeaſe or the remedy; and if the reſt had recovered, it is difficult to account for the ceaſing of ſuch a ſucceſsful mode of practice; as we are very certain that it is not at preſent followed.—What we have ſaid, therefore, concerning a poſſibility of curing poiſons by this method, is to be looked upon as merely ſpeculative, and thrown out as a hint for further experiments.

Beſides all this, there remains another method of cure in deſperate caſes, when there is a certainty that the whole maſs of blood is infected; and that is, by the bold attempt of changing the whole diſeaſed fluid for the blood of a ſound animal. Experiments of this kind have alſo been tried; and the method of making them, together with the conſequences of ſuch as are recorded in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, are related under the article TRANSFUSION.

POISON *of Copper*. This metal, though when in an undiſſolved ſtate it produces no ſenſible effects, becomes exceedingly active when diſſolved; and ſuch is the facility with which the ſolution is effected, that it becomes a matter of ſome conſequence to prevent the metal from being taken into the human body even in its proper form.—It doth not, however, appear that the poiſon of copper is equally pernicious with thoſe of arſenic or lead; much leſs with ſome others treated of in the laſt article. The reaſon of this is, that it excites vomiting ſo ſpeedily as to be expelled, even tho' taken in conſiderable quantity, before it has time to corrode the ſtomach. Roman vitriol, which is a ſolution of copper in the vitriolic acid, has been uſed as a medicine in ſome diſeaſes with great ſucceſs. Verdigreaſe alſo, which is another very active preparation of the metal, has been by ſome phyſicians preſcribed as an emetic, eſpecially in caſes where other poiſons had been ſwallowed, in order to procure the moſt ſpeedy evacuation of them by vomit. Where copper is not uſed with this view, it has has been employed as a tonic and antiſpaſmodic, with which it has been admitted into the laſt edition of the Edinburgh Diſpenſatory under the title of *Cuprum Ammoniacale*. The effects of the metal, however, when taken in a pretty large quantity, and in a diſſolved ſtate, or when the ſtomach abounds with acid juices ſufficient to diſſolve it, are very diſagreeable and even dangerous; as it occaſions violent vomitings, pains in the ſtomach, faintings, and ſometimes convulſions and death. The only cure for theſe ſymptoms is to expel the poiſon by vomiting as ſoon as poſſible, and to obtund its acrimony; for which purpoſe drinking warm milk will probably be found the moſt efficacious remedy. In order to prevent the entrance of the poiſon into the body, no copper veſſels ſhould be uſed in preparing food but ſuch as are either well tinned or kept exceedingly clean. The practice of giving a fine blue or green coloſir to pickles, by preparing them in copper veſſels, ought not to be tolerated; for Dr Falconer, in a treatiſe on this ſubject, aſſures us, that theſe are ſometimes ſo ſtrongly impregnated by this method of preparing them, that a ſmall quantity of them will produce a ſlight nauſea.——Mortars of braſs or bell-

Poison || Poland.

metal ought for the same reason to be avoided, as by this means a considerable quantity of the pernicious metal may be mixed with our food, or with medicines. In other cases, an equal caution ought to be used. The customs of keeping pins in the mouth, of giving copper halfpence to children to play with, &c. ought to be avoided; as thus a quantity of the metal may be insensibly taken into the body, after which its effects must be uncertain.——It is proper to observe, however, that copper is much more easily dissolved when cold than when hot; and therefore the greatest care should be taken never to let any thing designed for food, even common water, remain long in copper vessels when cold: for it is observed, that though the confectioners can safely prepare the most acid syrups in clean copper vessels without their receiving any detriment whilst hot, yet if the same syrups are allowed to remain in the vessels till quite cold, they become impregnated with the pernicious qualities of the metal. See CHEMISTRY, n° 373.

POISON *of Lead*. See MEDICINE, n° 408.

POISON-*Tree*. See RHUS.

POLACRE, a ship with three masts, usually navigated in the Levant and other parts of the Mediterranean. These vessels are generally furnished with square sails upon the main-mast, and *lateen* sails upon the fore-mast and mizen-mast. Some of them, however, carry square sails upon all the three masts, particularly those of Provence in France. Each of their masts is commonly formed of one piece, so that they have neither top-mast nor top-gallant-mast; neither have they any *horses* to their yards, because the men stand upon the top-sail-yard to loose or furl the top-gallant-sail, and on the lower-yard to *reef*, to loose, or furl, the top-sail, whose yard is lowered sufficiently down for that purpose.

POLAND, a kingdom of Europe, in its largest extent bounded by Pomerania, Brandenburg, Silesia, and Moravia, to the west; and, towards the east, by part of Russia and the Lesser Tartary; on the north, it has the Baltic, Russia, the grand province of Livonia, and Samogitia; and on the south, it is bounded by Bessarabia, Transylvania, Moldavia, and Hungary. Geographers generally divide it into the provinces of Poland Proper, Lithuania, Samogitia, Courland, Prussia, Massovia, Polachia, Polesia, Little Russia, called likewise *Russia Rubra* or *Red Russia*, Podolia, and the Ukrain. Now, however, it is very considerably reduced in extent, as will appear in the course of its history.

With regard to the history of Poland, we are not to gather the earlier part of it from any accounts transmitted to us by the natives. The early histories of all nations indeed are involved in fable; but the Poles never had even a fabulous history of their own nation. The reason of this is, that it was not the custom with that nation to entertain itinerant poets for the amusement of the great; for to the songs of these poets entertained among other nations we are obliged for the early part of their history; but this assistance being deficient in Poland, we must have recourse to what is recorded concerning it by the historians of other nations.

1 Polish sovereigns at first only titled dukes.

The sovereigns of Poland at first had the title of *duces*, dukes or generals, as if their office had been only to lead the armies into the field. The first of these is universally allowed to have been Lechus or Lecht; and to render him more illustrious, he is said to have been a lineal descendant from Japhet the son of Noah. According to some writers, he migrated at the head of a numerous body of the descendants of the ancient Sclavi from some of the neighbouring nations; and, to this day, Poland is called by the Tartars, the kingdom of *Lechus*. Busching, however, gives a different account of the origin of the Poles. Sarmatia, he observes, was an extensive country, inhabited by a variety of nations of different names. He supposes the Poles to be the descendants of the ancient Lazi, a people who lived in Colchis near the Pontus Euxinus; whence the Poles are sometimes called *Polazi*. Crossing several rivers they entered Posnania, and settled on the borders of the Warta, while their neighbours the Zechi settled on the Elbe, in the 550th year of Christ. As to the name of *Poland*, or *Polska*, as it is called by the natives, it comes from the Sclavonic word *Pole*, or *Poln*, which signifies a country adapted to hunting, because the whole country was formerly covered with vast forests, exceedingly proper for that employment.

Poland.

2 Lechus the first duke.

3 Derivation of the different names of Poland.

Of the transactions of Lychus during the time that he enjoyed the sovereignty, we have no certain account. His successor was named *Viscimer*, who is generally supposed to have been the nephew of Lechus. He was a warlike and successful prince, subduing many provinces of Denmark, and building the city of Wismar, so called from the name of the sovereign. But the Danish historians take no notice of his wars with their country; nor do they even mention a prince of this name. However, he is said to have reigned for a long time with great glory; but to have left the people in great distress, on account of the disputes which arose about a successor.

4 Viscimer the second duke.

After the death of Viscimer, the nobility were on the point of electing a sovereign, when the people, harassed by the grievous burdens occasioned by the wars of Viscimer, unanimously demanded another form of government, that they might no longer be made sacrifices to ambition and tyranny. At first the nobility pretended to yield to this humour of the people with great reluctance: however, they afterwards determined on such a form of government as threw all the power into their own hands. Twelve palatines, or vaivodes, were chosen; and the Polish dominions divided into as many provinces. These palatines exercised a despotic authority within their several jurisdictions, and aggravated the misery of the people by perpetual wars among themselves; upon which the Poles, worn out with oppression, resolved to return to their old form of government. Many assemblies were held for this purpose; but, by reason of the opposition of the vaivodes, they came to nothing. At last, however, they cast their eyes upon Cracus, or Gracus, whose wealth and popularity had raised him to the highest honours among his countrymen. The Poles say, that he was a native of Poland, and one of the 12 vaivodes; but the Bohemians affirm that he was a native of their country: however, both agree in maintaining, that he was descended from the ancient family of the Gracchi in Rome; who, they say, were banished to this country. He is said to have signalized

5 Form of government changed into aristocracy.

6 The dukedom restored.

Poland. lized himself against the Franks, whom he overthrew in some desperate engagements, and afterwards built the city of Cracow with their spoils. He did not enlarge his dominions, but made his subjects happy by many excellent regulations. At last, after a long and glorious reign, he expired, or, according to some, was assassinated by a nobleman who aspired to the crown.

Cracus left three children, Cracus, Lechus, and a daughter named *Vanda*. The first succeeded to the dukedom in virtue of his birthright; but was soon after murdered by his brother Lechus. However, it seems the thoughts of the crime which he had committed so disturbed his conscience, that the secret could not be kept: when it was known that he had been the murderer of his late sovereign, he was deposed with all possible marks of ignominy and contempt, and his sister Vanda declared duchess. She was a most beautiful and accomplished lady; and soon after she had been raised to the sovereignty, one Rithogar, a Teutonic prince, sent an ambassador demanding her in marriage, and threatening war if his proposals were refused. Vanda marched in person against him at the head of a numerous army, and the event proved fatal both to Rithogar and herself. The troops of Rithogar abandoned him without striking a blow, upon which he killed himself in despair; and Vanda, having become enamoured of him, was so much concerned for his death, that she drowned herself in the river Vistula or Wesel. From this unfortunate lady the country of Vandalia takes its name.

7 Again abolished.

The family of Cracus having become extinct by the death of Vanda, the Poles were again left at liberty to choose a new sovereign, or a new form of government. Through a natural levity, they changed the form of government, and restored the vaivodes notwithstanding all that they had formerly suffered from them. The consequences were the same as before: the vaivodes abused their power; the people were oppressed, and the state was distracted between foreign wars and civil contentions. At that time the Hungarians and Moravians had invaded Poland with a numerous army, and were opposed only by a handful of men almost ready to surrender at discretion. However, one Premislaus, a private soldier, contrived a stratagem by which the numerous forces of the enemy were overthrown; and, for his valour, was rewarded with the dukedom. We are ignorant of the other transactions of his reign; but all historians inform us, that he died deeply regretted, and without issue; so that the Poles had once more to choose a sovereign.

8 Restored a second time.

On the death of Premislaus, several candidates appeared for the throne, and the Poles determined to prefer him who could overcome all his competitors in a horse-race. A stone pillar was erected near the capital, on which were laid all the ensigns of the ducal authority, and an herald proclaimed, that he who first arrived at that pillar from a river at some distance named *Pouderic*, was to enjoy them. A Polish lord named *Lechus* was resolved to secure the victory to himself by a stratagem; for which purpose he caused iron spikes to be driven all over the course, reserving only a path for his own horse. The fraudulent design took effect in part, all the rest of the competitors being dismounted, and some severely hurt by their fall. Lechus, in consequence of this victory, was about to be proclaimed duke; when, unluckily for him, a peasant who had found out the artifice, opposed the ceremony; and upon an examination of the fact, Lechus was torn in pieces, and the ducal authority conferred upon the peasant. Poland.

The name of the new monarch was also *Lechus*. He attained the sovereignty in the year 774, and behaved with great wisdom and moderation. Though he possessed the qualities of a great warrior, and extended his dominions on the side of Moravia and Bohemia, yet his chief delight was to make his subjects happy by peace. In the decline of life he was obliged to engage in a war with Charlemagne, and is said by some to have fallen in battle with that powerful monarch; tho' others assert that he died a natural death, having lived so long that the springs of life were quite worn out.

Lechus III. was succeeded by his son Lechus IV. who inherited all his father's virtues. He suppressed an insurrection in the Polish provinces, by which he acquired great reputation; after which he led his army against the Greek and Italian legions who had overrun Pannonia. He gained a complete victory over his enemies. Nor was his valour more conspicuous in the battle than his clemency to the vanquished: for he dismissed all his prisoners without ransom; demanding no other conditions than that they should never again disturb the peace of Poland, or the allies of that kingdom. This duke is said to have been endowed with many virtues, and is charged only with the vice of incontinence. He left 20 natural children, and only one legitimate son, named *Popiel*, to whom he left he sovereignty. Popiel was also a virtuous and pacific prince, who never had recourse to arms but through necessity. He removed the seat of government from Cracow to Gnesna, and was succeeded by his nephew Popiel II. a minor.

The young king behaved with propriety as long as he was under the tuition of others; but as soon as he had got the reins of government into his own hands, the face of affairs was altered. Lechus III. who, as hath been already mentioned, had 20 illegitimate children, had promoted them to the government of different provinces; and they had discharged the duties of their offices in such a manner as shewed that they were worthy of the confidence reposed in them. However, as soon as Popiel came of age, being seduced by the advice of his wife, an artful and ambitious woman, he removed them from their posts, treated them with the utmost contempt, and at last found means to poison them all at once at an entertainment. A dreadful punishment, however, according to the historians of those times, attended his treachery and cruelty. The bodies of the unhappy governors were left unburied; and from them issued a swarm of rats, who pursued Popiel, his wife and children, wherever they went, and at last devoured them. The nation became a prey to civil discord, at the same time that it was harassed by a foreign enemy; and, in short, the state seemed to be on the verge of dissolution, when Piastus was proclaimed duke in 830.

The election of the new duke is said to have been directed by a miracle. He was a man of very low extraction, having been formerly a wheelwright: however, he shewed himself to be in every respect worthy of the high authority to which he was raised, being a

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man of the moſt benevolent and humane diſpoſition; nay, ſo much was he eſteemed by his ſubjects, that all the natives of Poland who have ſince been promoted to the ducal or royal authority, have from him been called *Piaſter*.

9 Why the ſovereigns of Poland are called *Piaſter*.

Piaſtus died in 861, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ziemovitus. He was of a more warlike diſpoſition than his father, and was the firſt who introduced a regular diſcipline among the Poliſh troops. He maintained a reſpectable army, and took great pains to acquire a perfect knowledge in the art of war. The conſequence of this was that he was victorious in all his battles; and retook from the Germans and Hungarians not only all that they had gained, but enlarged his dominions beyond what they had been. After his death, nothing remarkable happened in Poland till the time of Mieczſlaus I. who attained the ducal authority in 964. He was born blind, and continued ſo for ſeven years: after which he recovered his ſight without uſing any medicine; a circumſtance ſo extraordinary, that, in thoſe times of ignorance and ſuperſtition, it was accounted a miracle. In his reign the Chriſtian religion was introduced into Poland. The moſt probable account of the manner in which Chriſtianity was introduced is, that Mieczſlaus having by ambaſſadors made his addreſſes to Daborwka daughter to the duke of Bohemia, the lady rejected his offer, unleſs he would ſuffer himſelf to be baptized. To this the duke conſented, and was baptized, after having been inſtructed in the principles of Chriſtianity. He founded the archbiſhoprics of Gnefna and Cracow; and appointed St Adalbert, ſent by the pontiff to propagate Chriſtianity in Poland, primate of the whole kingdom. On the birth of his ſon Boleſlaus, he redoubled his zeal; founding ſeveral biſhoprics and monaſteries; ordering likewiſe, that, when any part of the Goſpel was read, the hearers ſhould half-draw their ſwords, in teſtimony of their readineſs to defend the faith. He was, however, too ſuperſtitious to attend to the duties of a ſovereign; and ſuffered his dominions to be ravaged by his barbarous neighbour the duke of Ruſſia. Yet, with all his devotion, he could not obtain the title of king from the pope, though he had warmly ſolicited it; but it was afterwards conferred on his ſon, who ſucceeded to all his dominions.

10 Chriſtianity introduced by Mieczſlaus I.

11 Boleſlaus the firſt king of Poland.

Boleſlaus I. the firſt king of Poland, ſurnamed *Chrobry*, ſucceeded to the ſovereignty in 999. He alſo profeſſed and cheriſhed Chriſtianity, but was a man of great valour and prudence. However, the firſt tranſaction of his reign ſavoured very much of the ridiculous piety of thoſe times. He removed from Prague to Gnefna the remains of a ſaint which he had purchaſed at conſiderable price. The emperor Otho III. made a pilgrimage, on account of a vow, to the tomb of this ſaint. He was hoſpitably received by Boleſlaus, whom, in return, he inveſted with the regal dignity; an act which was confirmed by the pope. This new dignity added nothing to the power of Boleſlaus; though it increaſed his conſequence with his own ſubjects. He now affected more ſtate than before: his body-guards were conſiderably augmented; and he was conſtantly attended by a numerous and ſplendid retinue whenever he ſtirred out of his palace. Thus he inſpired his people with an idea of his greatneſs, and conſequently of their own importance; which no doubt was neceſſary for the accompliſhment of a deſign he had formed, namely, an offenſive war with Ruſſia: but, when he was upon the point of ſetting out on this expedition, he was prevented by the breaking out of a war with the Bohemians. The elevation of Boleſlaus to the regal dignity had excited the envy of the duke of Bohemia, who had ſolicited the ſame honour for himſelf, and had been refuſed. His jealouſy was further excited by the connection between Boleſlaus and the emperor, the former having married Rixa the emperor's niece. Without any provocation, therefore, or without giving the leaſt intimation of his deſign, the duke of Bohemia entered Poland at the head of a numerous army, committing every where dreadful ravages. Boleſlaus immediately marched againſt him, and the Bohemians retired with precipitancy. Scarcity of proviſions, and the inclemency of the ſeaſon, prevented Boleſlaus at that time from purſuing; but as ſoon as theſe obſtacles were removed, he entered Bohemia at the head of a formidable army, with a full reſolution of taking an ample revenge. The Bohemians were altogether unable to reſiſt; neither indeed had they courage to venture a battle, though Boleſlaus did all in his power to force them to it. So great indeed was the cowardice of the duke or his army, that they ſuffered Prague, the capital of the duchy, to be taken after a ſiege of two years; having never, during all that time, ventured to relieve it by fighting the Poliſh army. The taking of this city was quickly followed by the reduction of all the places of inferior note: but though Boleſlaus was in poſſeſſion of almoſt all the fortified places in Bohemia, he could not believe his conquerts to be complete, until he became maſter of the duke's perſon. This unfortunate prince had ſhut himſelf up with his ſon in his only remaining fortreſs of Wiſſogrod, where he imagined that he ſhould be able to foil all the attempts of the Poliſh monarch. In this, however, he found himſelf diſappointed. Boleſlaus inveſted the place, and made his approaches with ſuch rapidity, that the garriſon, dreading a general aſſault, reſolved to capitulate, and perſiſted in their reſolution notwithſtanding all the intreaties and promiſes of the duke. The conſequence was, that the unhappy prince fell into the hands of his enemies, and had his eyes put out by Boleſlaus; after which, his ſon Jaremir was put into perpetual and cloſe confinement.

12 He conquers Bohemia.

13 And Moravia.

From Bohemia Boleſlaus marched towards Moravia; but no ſooner did he arrive on the frontier, than the whole province ſubmitted without a blow. He then reſumed his intention of invading Ruſſia; for which he had now a very fair opportunity, by reaſon of a civil war which raged with violence among the children of duke Volodomir. The chief competitors were Jariſlaus and Suantepolk. The latter, having been defeated by his brother, was obliged to take refuge in Poland, where he uſed all the arguments in his power with king Boleſlaus in order to induce him to revenge his cauſe. Boleſlaus having already an intention of invading that country, needed but little intreaty; and therefore moved towards Ruſſia at the head of a very numerous army; giving out, that he had no other deſign than to revenge the injuſtice done to Suantepolk. He was met, on the banks of the river

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14 Gains a great victory over the Ruſſians.

river Bog, by Jariſlaus, at the head of an army much ſuperior in number to his own; and for ſome days the Poliſh army was kept at bay by the Ruſſians. At laſt Boleſlaus, growing impatient, reſolved to paſs the river at all events; and therefore forming his cavalry in the beſt manner for breaking the torrent, he expoſed his own perſon to the utmoſt of its force. Encouraged by his example, the Poles advanced breaſt-high in the water to the oppoſite ſhore; from whence the enemy gave them all the annoyance in their power. In ſpite of all oppoſition, however, the Poles reached the bank, and ſoon gained a complete victory; Jariſlaus being obliged to fly to Kiovia. This city was immediately inveſted; but Jariſlaus retired farther into the country in order to recruit his army, leaving the city to its fate. The garriſon made a brave defence, but were at laſt compelled to ſurrender at diſcretion. A vaſt treaſure was found in the place; great part of which was diſtributed by Boleſlaus among the ſoldiers.

Though the king of Poland had now become maſter of the greateſt part of Ruſſia, he knew that the only poſſible means of keeping the country in ſubjection, was by placing a natural ſovereign over the inhabitants. For this reaſon he reinſtated Suantepolk, tho' his pretenſions were ſtill diſputed by Jariſlaus. The latter had formed a flying camp, and meditated a ſcheme of ſurpriſing and carrying off his rival brother; but having failed in this attempt, he retired to Novogrod, where the attachment of the inhabitants enabled him to make ſome reſiſtance, till at laſt he was attacked and defeated by Boleſlaus, which ſeemed to give the finiſhing ſtroke to his affairs. The king of Poland, however, now met with a more dangerous enemy in the perfidious and ungrateful Suantepolk, than he had experienced in Jariſlaus. The Ruſſian prince, imagining himſelf a dependent on Boleſlaus, formed a conſpiracy againſt him; by which he projected nothing leſs than the deſtruction of him and his whole army. The maſſacre was already begun, when Boleſlaus received intelligence. The urgency of the caſe admitted of no delay: the king therefore mounted his horſe; and having with the utmoſt haſte aſſembled part of his army, fell upon the traitors with ſuch fury, that they were obliged to betake themſelves to flight, and Boleſlaus got ſafe into Poland. But in the mean time Jariſlaus having aſſembled freſh forces, purſued the Poliſh army; and having come up with them juſt as one half had croſſed the river Boriſthenes, attacked them with the utmoſt fury. Boleſlaus defended himſelf with the greateſt reſolution; but by reaſon of his forces being divided, victory was dubious for a long time. At laſt, when the army had wholly croſſed, the Ruſſians were entirely put to the rout, and a terrible carnage enſued. The victory, however, though complete, was not deciſive: for which reaſon Boleſlaus thought proper to continue his retreat, without attempting to conquer a country too extenſive for him ever to keep in ſubjection. Still, however, his martial inclination continued, and he led his army into Saxony. The inhabitants of this country had hitherto reſiſted all attempts that had been made on their freedom, and ſtill made a violent ſtruggle for liberty; though, in ſpite of their utmoſt efforts, they were obliged at laſt to ſubmit to the yoke. On his withdrawing the troops from Saxony, however, the king thought proper to leave the people to their liberty, contenting himſelf with a rich booty. The boundaries of his empire he now fixed at the river Elbe; where he erected two iron columns, in order to tranſmit the memory of his conqueſt to poſterity.

15 Places Suantepolk on the throne of Ruſſia.

16 Who attempts to cut him off with his whole army but is defeated.

17 A dreadful battle between the Ruſſians and Poles.

18 Saxony conquered by Boleſlaus.

Boleſlaus, ſtill unſated with victory, now meditated the conqueſt of Pruſſia and Pomerania; the latter of which provinces had, in the former civil wars, been diſmembered from Poland. His arms were attended with equal ſucceſs againſt both: indeed the very terror of his name ſeemed to anſwer all the purpoſes of a formidable army. Theſe, however, he ſeems to have deſigned to be the laſt of his warlike enterpriſes; for he now applied himſelf wholly to the enacting of wholeſome laws for the benefit of his people. But in the midſt of this tranquillity, Jariſlaus aſſembled the moſt numerous army that had ever been heard of in Ruſſia, with which he appeared on the frontiers of Poland. Boleſlaus, though now advanced in years, marched out againſt his adverſaries, and met them on the banks of the Boriſthenes, rendered famous by the victory he had lately gained there. The Poles croſſed the river by ſwimming; and attacked the enemy before they had time to draw up in order of battle, with ſuch impetuoſity, that a total rout ſoon enſued. The Ruſſians were ſeized with a panic, and Jariſlaus was hurried away, and almoſt trampled to death by the fugitives. Many thouſand priſoners were taken, but Boleſlaus releaſed them upon very eaſy conditions; contenting himſelf with an inconſiderable tribute, and endeavouring to engage the affection of the people by his kindneſs. This well-timed clemency produced ſuch an happy effect, that the Ruſſians voluntarily ſubmitted to his juriſdiction, and again became his ſubjects. Soon after this he died in the year 1025, after having vaſtly extended his dominions, and rendered his ſubjects happy.

19 With Pruſſia and Pomerania.

20 Gains another great victory over the Ruſſians, on which the whole country ſubmits.

21 Boleſlaus dies.

Boleſlaus was ſucceeded by his ſon Mieczſlaus II. but he poſſeſſed none of the great qualities of his father; being indolent and debauched in his behaviour. In the very beginning of his reign, the Ruſſians, Bohemians, and Moravians, revolted. However, as the ſpirit and diſcipline introduced by Boleſlaus ſtill remained in the Poliſh army, Mieczſlaus found no great difficulty in reducing them again to obedience: after which, devoting himſelf entirely to voluptuouſneſs, he was ſeized with a frenzy, which put an end to his life in the year 1034. The bad qualities of this prince proved very detrimental to the intereſt of his ſon Caſimir; though the latter had received an excellent education, and was poſſeſſed of many virtues. Inſtead of electing him king, they choſe Rixa his mother queen-regent. She proved tyrannical, and ſo partial to her countrymen the Germans, that a rebellion enſued, and ſhe was forced to fly to Germany; where ſhe obtained the protection of the emperor by means of the immenſe treaſures of Boleſlaus, which ſhe had cauſed to be tranſported thither before her. Her bad behaviour and expulſion proved ſtill more fatal to the affairs of Caſimir than even that of his father. He was immediately driven out of the kingdom; and a civil war taking place, a great many of pretenders to the crown appeared at once. To the miſeries occaſioned by

22 Rixa, a tyrannical regent driven out with her ſon Caſimir.

23 Poland diſtreſſed by foreign and domeſtic wars.

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by this were added those of a foreign war; for the Bohemians and Russians invaded the kingdom in different places, committing the most dreadful ravages. The consequence of these accumulated distresses was, that the nobility came at last to the resolution of recalling Casimir, and electing him sovereign. However, before they took this measure, it was thought proper to send to Rome, to complain of the behaviour of the duke of Bohemia. The deputies were at first received favourably: but the influence of the duke's gold prevailing, no redress was obtained; so that at last it was resolved, without more ado, to send for Casimir.

24 Casimir recalled and elected king.

The only difficulty was where to find the fugitive prince; for he had been gone five years from the kingdom, and nobody knew the place of his retreat. At last, by sending an embassy to his mother, it was found out that he had retired into France, where he applied closely to study at the university of Paris. Afterwards he went to Italy; where, for the sake of subsistence, he took upon him the monastic habit. At that time he had returned to France, and obtained some preferment in the abbey of Clugni. Nothing now obstructed the prince's return but the sacred function with which he was invested. However, a dispensation was obtained from the Pope, by which he was released from his ecclesiastical engagements, on condition that he and all the kingdom should become subject to the capitation tax called *Peter-pence*. Some other conditions of less consequence were added; such as, that the Poles should shave their heads and beards, and wear a white linen robe at festivals, like other professors of the Catholic religion. Great preparations were made for the reception of the young prince: and he was met on the frontier by the nobility, clergy, and forces of the nation; by whom he was conducted to Gnesna, and crowned by the primate with more than usual solemnity. He proved a virtuous and pacific prince, as indeed the distracted situation of the kingdom would not admit of the carrying on of wars. However, Casimir proved his courage in subduing the banditti by which the country was over-run; and by marrying the princess Mary, sister to the Duke of Russia, all quarrels with that nation were for the present extinguished. Upon the whole, the kingdom flourished during his reign; and became more respectable from the wisdom and stability of the administration, than it could have been by many victories. After a happy reign of 16 years he died, beloved and regretted by all his subjects.

25 Poland subjected to the tax called *Peter-pence*.

26 Boleslaus II. a valiant and successful prince.

By the happy administration of Casimir, the kingdom recovered sufficient strength to carry on successful wars against its foreign enemies. Boleslaus II. the son of Casimir, an enterprising and valiant prince, succeeded to the throne; and soon made himself so famous, that three unfortunate princes all took refuge at his court at once, having been expelled from their own dominions by their rebellious subjects. These were, Jacomir, son of Bristeslaus duke of Bohemia; Bela, brother to the king of Hungary; and Zaslaus duke of Kiovia, eldest son to Jarislaus duke of Russia, and cousin to the king of Poland. Boleslaus determined to redress all their grievances; but while he deliberated upon the most proper means for so doing, the duke of Bohemia, dreading the consequence of Jacomir's escape, assembled an army, and, without any declaration of war, marched through the Hercynian forest, defolated Silesia, and laid waste the frontiers of Poland with fire and sword. Boleslaus marched against him with a force greatly inferior; and, by mere dint of superior capacity, cooped up his adversary in a wood, where he reduced him to the greatest distress. In this extremity the duke sent proposals for accommodation; but they were rejected with disdain by Boleslaus: upon which the former, ordering fires to be kindled in his camp, as if he designed to continue there, removed with the utmost silence in the night-time; and marching through narrow defiles, was advanced several leagues before Boleslaus received advice of his retreat. The king pursued him, but in vain; for which reason he returned, after having ravaged the frontiers of Moravia. The next year he entered Bohemia with a numerous army; but the duke, being unwilling to encounter such a formidable adversary, submitted to such terms as Boleslaus thought proper to impose. In these the king of Poland stipulated for certain conditions in favour of Jacomir, which he took care to see punctually executed; after which he determined to march towards Hungary, to assist the fugitive prince Bela.

27 Entertains three unfortunate princes.

28 Affords effectual succour to Jacomir prince of Bohemia.

29 And to Bela prince of Hungary.

This prince had been for some time solicited by a party of disaffected nobility to return, as his brother, the reigning king, had alienated the hearts of his subjects by his tyrannical behaviour: as soon therefore as Boleslaus had finished the war in Bohemia, he was solicited by Bela to embrace so favourable an opportunity, and put him in possession of the kingdom of Hungary. This the king readily complied with, as being agreeable to his own inclinations; and both princes entered Hungary by different routes, each at the head of a numerous body. The king of that country, however, was not disconcerted by such a formidable invasion; and being largely assisted by the emperor, advanced against his antagonists with a vast army; among whom was a numerous body of Bohemians, who had come to his assistance, though in direct violation of the treaty subsisting between the duke and the king of Poland. At last a decisive battle was fought, in which the Germans behaved with the greatest valour, but were entirely defeated through the treachery of the Hungarians, who in the heat of the battle deserted and went over to Bela. Almost all the foreign auxiliaries were killed on the spot; the king himself was seized, and treated with such insolence by his perfidious subjects, that he died in a short time of a broken heart; so that Bela was placed on the throne without further opposition, except from a revolt of the peasants, which was soon quelled by the Polish army.

30 He projects the conquest of Russia.

Boleslaus, having succeeded so happily in these two enterprizes, began to look upon himself as invincible; and, instead of designing only to assist Zaslaus, as he had first intended, now projected no less than the subjection of the whole country. He had indeed a claim to the sovereignty by virtue of his descent from Mary, queen of Poland, sister to Jarislaus; and this he endeavoured to strengthen by marrying a Russian princess himself. Having therefore assembled a very numerous and well-disciplined army, he entered the duchy of Kiovia, where he was opposed by Wissislaus, who had

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had usurped the sovereingty, with a vast multitude of forces. Boleslaus, however, continued to advance; and the Russian prince being intimidated by the number and good order of his enemies, deserted his own troops, and fled away privately with a slender retinue; upon which, his force dispersed themselves for want of a leader. The inhabitants of the city of Kiovia now called to their assistance Suantoslaus and Wszevold two brothers of Wisseslaus; but these princes acting the part of mediators, procured pardon for the inhabitants from Zaslaus their natural sovereign. With the same facility the two princes recovered all the other dominions belonging to Zaslaus; only one city venturing to stand a siege, and that was soon reduced. But in the mean time the king of Hungary dying, a revolt ensued, and the two sons of Bela were on the point of being deprived of their paternal dominions. This Boleslaus no sooner heard, than he marched directly into Hungary; where by the bare terror of his name, he re-established tranquillity, and confirmed the princes in the enjoyment of their kingdom. In the time that this was doing, Zaslaus was again driven from his territories, all the conquests that had been formerly made were lost, and Suantoslaus and Wszevold more powerful than ever. The king's vigour, however, soon disconcerted all their measures. He ravaged all those territiories which composed the palatinates of Lusac and Chelm, reduced the strong city of Wolyn, and transported the booty to Poland. The campaign was finished by a battle with Wszevold; which proved so bloody, that though Boleslaus was victorious, his army was weakened in such a manner that he could not pursue his conquests. In the winter he made numerous levies; and returning in the spring to Kiovia, reduced it, after several desperate attacks, by famine. On this occasion, instead of treating the inhabitants with cruelty, he commended their valour, and strictly prohibited his troops from pillaging or insulting them; distributing provisions among them with the utmost liberality.

31 Meets with surprising success.

32 Reduces Kiovia, but enervates himself there.

This clemency procured the highest honour to the king of Poland, but his stay here produced a most terrible disaster. Kiovia was the most dissolute, as well as the richest city, in the north; the king, and all his soldiers gave themselves up to the pleasures of the place. Boleslaus himself affected all the imperious state of an eastern monarch, and contracted an inclination for the grossest debaucheries. The consequence had almost proved fatal to Poland. The Hungarian and Russian wars had continued for seven years, during all which time the king had never been at home excepting once for the short space of three months. In the mean time the Polish women, exasperated at hearing that their husbands had neglected them and connected themselves with the women of Kiovia, raised their slaves to the beds of their masters; and in short the whole sex conspired in one general scheme of prostitution, in order to be revenged of the infidelity of their husbands, excepting one single woman, namely, *Margaret*, the wife of count Nicholas of Demboisin, who preserved her fidelity in spite of all solicitation. Advice of this strange revolution was soon received at Kiovia, where it excited terrible commotions. The soldiers blamed the king for their dishonour; forgetting how much they had to accuse their own conduct in giving their wives such extreme provocation. The effect of these discontents was a general desertion, and Boleslaus saw himself suddenly left almost alone in the heart of Russia; the soldiers having unanimously resolved to return home to take vengeance of their wives and their gallants.

33 Universal defection of the Polish women.

A dreadful kind of war now ensued. The women knew that they were to expect no mercy from their enraged husbands, and therefore persuaded their lovers to take arms in their defence. They themselves fought by the side of their gallants with the utmost fury, and sought out their husbands in the heat of battle, in order to secure themselves from all danger of punishment by their death. They were, however, on the point of being subdued, when Boleslaus arrived with the few remaining Poles, but assisted by a vast army of Russians, with whom he intended to take equal vengeance on the women, their gallants, and his own soldiers who had deserted him. This produced a carnage more dreadful than ever. The soldiers united with their former wives and their gallants against the common enemy, and fought against Boleslaus and his Russians with the fury of lions. At last, however, the fortune of the king prevailed; the rebels were totally subdued, and the few who escaped the sword were tortured to death, or died in prison.

34 A terrible civil war ensues.

To add to the calamities of this unhappy kingdom, the schisms which for some time had prevailed in the church of Rome found their way into Poland also; and the animosity of parties became aggravated in proportion to the frivolousness of their differences. By perverse accident the matter came at last to be a contention for wealth and power between the king and clergy. This soon gave occasion to bloodshed; and the bishop of Cracow was massacred in the cathedral, while he was performing the duties of his office. This and some other enormous crimes in a short time brought on the most signal vengeance of the clergy. Gregory VII. the pope at that time, thundered out the most dreadful anathemas against the king, released his subjects from their allegiance, deprived him of the titles of sovereinty, and laid the kingdom under a general interdict, which the archbishop of Gnesna saw punctually enforced. To this terrible sentence Boleslaus in vain opposed his authority, and recalled the spirit which had formerly rendered him so formidable to the neighbouring states. The minds of the people were blinded by superstition, so that they deemed it a less heinous crime to rise in rebellion against their sovereign than to oppose the tyranny of the holy see. Conspiracies were daily formed against the person and government of Boleslaus. The whole kingdom became a scene of confusion, so that the king could no longer continue with safety in his own dominions. He fled therefore with his son Mieczslaus, and took refuge in Hungary; but here also the holy vengeance of the clergy pursued him, nor did they cease persecuting him till he was brought to a miserable end. Authors differ widely with respect to the manner of his death. Some say that he was murdered by the clergy as he was hunting; others, that he killed himself in a fit of despair; and one author tells us, that he wandered about in the woods of Hungary, lived like a savage upon wild beasts, and was at last killed and devoured by dogs. The greatest number, how-

35 Religious contentions.

36 Boleslaus deposed by the pope, and the whole kingdom put under an interdict.

37 The king's extreme distress and death.

Poland.

however, tell us, that being driven from place to place by the persecutions of the clergy, he was at last obliged to become a cook in a monastery at Carinthia, in which mean occupation he ended his days.

38 The interdict removed at the expence of grievous impositions.

The destruction of Boleslaus was not sufficient to allay the papal resentment. It extended to the whole kingdom of Poland. Mieczslaus, the son of Boleslaus, was not suffered to ascend the throne; and the kingdom continued under the most severe interdict, which could be removed only by the force of gold, and the most abject concessions. Besides the tax called *Peter-pence*, new impositions were added of the most oppressive nature; till at length the pontiff, having fatiated his avarice, and impoverished the country, consented that the brother of the deceased monarch should be raised to the sovereignty, but only with the title of duke. This prince, named *Uladislaus*, being of a meek disposition, with little ambition, thought it his duty to acquiesce implicitly in the will of the pope; and therefore accepted the terms offered, sending at the same time an embassy to Rome, earnestly intreating the removal of the interdict. The request was granted; but all his endeavours to recover the regal dignity proved fruitless, the pope having, in conjunction with the emperor of Germany, conferred that honour on the duke of Bohemia. This was extremely mortifying to Uladislaus, but it was absorbed in considerations of the utmost consequence to himself and his dominions. Russia took the opportunity of the late civil disturbances to throw off the yoke; and this revolt drew after it the revolt of Prussia, Pomerania, and other provinces. The smaller provinces, however, were soon reduced; but the duke had no sooner returned to Poland, than they again rebelled, and hid their families in impenetrable forests. Uladislaus marched against them with a considerable army; but was entirely defeated, and obliged to return back with disgrace. Next year, however, he had better fortune; and, having led against them a more numerous army than before, they were content to submit and deliver up the ringleaders of the revolt to be punished as the duke thought proper.

39 Uladislaus becomes sovereign, but is allowed only the title of duke

No sooner were the Pomeranians reduced, than civil dissentions took place. Sbigneus, the son of Uladislaus by a concubine, was placed at the head of an army by the discontented nobility, in order to subvert his father's government, and dispute the title of Boleslaus, the legitimate son of Uladislaus, to the succession. The war was terminated by the defeat and captivity of Sbigneus; who was at first confined, but afterwards released on condition that he should join his father in punishing the palatine of Cracow. But before this could be done, the palatine found means to effect a reconciliation with the duke; with which the young princes being displeased, a war took place between them and their father. The end of all was, that the palatine of Cracow was banished, and the princes submitted; after which, Uladislaus, having chastised the Prussians and Pomeranians who had again revolted, died in the year 1103, the 59th of his age.

40 Boleslaus III divided his dominions betwixt Sbigneus his illegitimate brother and himself.

Uladislaus was succeeded by his son Boleslaus III. who divided the dominions equally betwixt his brother Sbigneus and himself. The former being dissatisfied with his share, raised cabals against his brother; but a civil war was for some time prevented by the good offices of the primate: but at last Sbigneus, having privately stirred up the Bohemians, Saxons, and Moravians, against his brother, made such formidable preparations as threatened the conquest of all Poland. Boleslaus, being unprovided with forces to oppose such a formidable power, had recourse to the Russians and Hungarians; who readily embraced his cause, in expectation of turning it to their own advantage. The event was, that Sbigneus was entirely defeated; and might easily have been obliged to surrender himself at discretion, had Boleslaus generously left him in quiet possession of the duchy of Mazovia, in order to maintain himself suitably to the dignity of his birth. This kindness the ungrateful Sbigneus repaid by entering into another conspiracy; but the plot being discovered, he was seized, banished, and declared a traitor if ever he set foot again in Poland. Even this severity did not produce the desired effect: Sbigneus persuaded the Pomeranians to arm in his behalf; but he was defeated, taken prisoner, and again banished. Almost all the nobility solicited the king to put such an ungrateful traitor to death; however, that generous prince could not think of polluting his hands with the death of his brother, notwithstanding all he had yet done. Nay, he even took him back to Poland, and appointed him a maintenance suitable to his rank: but he soon had reason to repent his kindness; for his unnatural brother in a short time began to raise fresh disturbances, in consequence of which he soon met with the death which he deserved.

41 A civil war.

42 Generosity of Boleslaus and ingratitude of Sbigneus.

43 Who is at last put to death.

Boleslaus was scarce freed from the intrigues of his brother, when he found himself in greater danger than ever from the ambition of the emperor Henry IV. The emperor had attacked the king of Hungary, with whom Boleslaus was in close alliance, and from whom he had received assistance when in great distress himself. The king of Poland determined to assist his friend; and therefore made a powerful diversion in Bohemia, where he repeatedly defeated the Imperialists: upon which, the emperor collecting all his forces, ravaged Silesia, and even entered Poland, where he laid siege to the strong town of Lubusz; but was at last obliged to abandon the enterprise, after having sustained much loss. However, Henry was not discouraged, but penetrated still farther into Poland, and was laying waste all before him, when the superior skill of Boleslaus compelled him to retire, after having almost destroyed his army with fatigue and famine, without once coming to action. Enraged at this disappointment, Henry laid siege to Glogaw, in hopes of drawing the Poles to an engagement before he should be obliged to evacuate the country. The fortifications of the place were weak; but the spirit of the inhabitants supplied their deficiencies, and they gave the Imperialists a most unexpected and vigorous reception. At last, however, they were on the point of surrendering to superior force; and actually agreed to give up the place, provided they did not receive any succours during that time. Boleslaus determined, however, not to let such a brave garrison fall a sacrifice to their loyalty; and therefore prevailed on the besieged to break the capitulation rather than surrender when they were on the point of being delivered. All this was transacted with the utmost secrecy; so that the emperor advanced, without thoughts of meeting with any resistance, to take possession

44 War with the emperor Henry IV.

Poland.

ſeſſion of the city; but, being received by a furious diſcharge of arrows and javelins, he was ſo incenſed, that he reſolved to ſtorm the place, and give no quarter. On the approach of the army, the Imperialiſts were aſtoniſhed to ſee not only the breaches filled up, but new walls, ſecured by a wet ditch, reared behind the old, and erected during the ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities by the induſtry of the beſieged. The attack, however, went on; but the inhabitants, animated by deſpair, defended themſelves with incredible valour, and at laſt obliged the Imperialiſts to break up the ſiege with precipitation. Next day Boleſlaus arrived, and purſued the emperor with ſuch vigour, that he obliged him to fly with diſgrace into his own country. This ſoon brought on a peace, which was confirmed by a marriage between Boleſlaus and the emperor's ſiſter.

45 Who is worſted.

46 Boleſlaus brought into difficulties by his own credulity and generoſity.

Hitherto the glory of Boleſlaus had equalled, or even eclipſed, that of his nameſake and predeceſſor Boleſlaus the Great; but about the year 1135 he was brought into difficulties and diſgraces by his own credulity. He was impoſed upon by an artful ſtory patched up by a certain Hungarian; who inſinuated himſelf ſo far into his affections, that he gave him the government of Wiſſica, a ſtrong town on the river Nida. But the traitor gave up the place to the Ruſſians, who pillaged and burnt it; carrying the inhabitants at the ſame time into ſlavery. Boleſlaus was incenſed, and entered immediately upon a war with Ruſſia, by which means he only heaped one calamity upon another. He received a deputation from the inhabitants of Halitz, to implore his aſſiſtance in favour of a young prince, who had been baniſhed into Poland. Boleſlaus marched to their relief with a choice body of troops; but as he was preparing to enter the town, he was attacked by the whole Ruſſian army, and, after a moſt violent conflict, entirely defeated. By this diſgrace the duke was ſo much afflicted, that he died in a ſhort time, after having reigned 36 years.

47 Poland divided among the children of Boleſlaus.

Boleſlaus, by his will, left his dominions equally divided among his four ſons. Uladiſlaus, the eldeſt, had the provinces of Cracow, Sirad, Lencici, Sileſia, and Pomerania. Boleſlaus, the ſecond ſon, had for his ſhare the palatinates of Culm and Cujava, with the duchy of Mazovia. The palatinates of Kaleſzh and Poſnania, fell to Mieczſlaus, the third ſon; and to Henry, the fourth ſon, were aſſigned thoſe of Lublin and Sandomir. Caſimir the youngeſt child, then an infant in the cradle, was entirely forgot, and no proviſion made for him. There have been but very few inſtances where dominions were thus divided, that the princes remained ſatiſied with their reſpective ſhares; neither did the ſons of Boleſlaus long continue at peace with one another. By the will of the late duke, all the brothers were obliged to own the ſupremacy of Uladiſlaus, who was declared duke of all Poland: they were reſtrained from forming alliances, declaring war, or concluding peace, without his approbation: they were obliged to take the field with certain number of troops, whenever the duke required it; and they were forbid to meddle with the guardianſhip of the infant prince Caſimir, his education being left entirely to the ſovereign. The harmony of the princes was firſt diſturbed by the ambition of Chriſtina, the wife of Uladiſlaus, who formed a ſcheme to get poſſeſſion of all Poland, and deprive the younger children of the benefit of their father's will. Having obtained her huſband's concurrence, ſhe aſſembled the ſtates of Poland, and made a long ſpeech, ſhowing the dangers which might ariſe from a partition of the ducal dominions among ſo many; and concluded with attempting to ſhow the neceſſity of revoking the ratification of the late duke's will in order to enſure the obedience of the princes and the tranquillity of the republic. Many of the nobility expreſſed their reſentment againſt this ſpeech, and fully refuted every article in it; but they were all afterwards gained over, or intimidated by Uladiſlaus; ſo that none appeared to take the part of the young princes except a noble Dane, who loſt his life for ſo doing.

48 A civil war.

49 Uladiſlaus drives out all the reſt.

Uladiſlaus now having got the nobility on his ſide, firſt drove Boleſlaus out of his territories; next, he marched againſt Henry, and diſpoſſeſſed him alſo, forcing both to take refuge with Mieczſlaus in Poſnania, where all the three brothers were beſieged. Several of the nobility interpoſed, and uſed all their influence to effect a reconciliation, but in vain; for Uladiſlaus was as inexorable as if he had received an injury, and therefore inſiſted that the beſieged princes ſhould ſurrender at diſcretion, and ſubmit to the will of the conqueror. Thus, driven to deſpair, the brothers ſallied out, and attacked the duke's army with ſuch impetuoſity, that they obtained a complete victory, and took all his baggage and valuable effects. The brothers improved their victory, and laid ſiege to Cracow. The Ruſſians, who had aſſiſted Uladiſlaus at firſt, now entirely abandoned him, and evacuated Poland, which obliged him to ſhut himſelf up in Cracow; but, finding the inhabitants little diſpoſed to ſtand a ſiege, he retired into Germany in order to ſolicit aſſiſtance from his wife's friends. But here he found himſelf miſtaken, and that theſe friends were attached to him only in his proſperity; while in the mean time the city of Cracow ſurrendered, the unfortunate Uladiſlaus was formally depoſed, and his brother Boleſlaus raiſed to the ſupreme authority.

50 And is depoſed.

The new duke began his adminiſtration with an act of generoſity to his brother, Uladiſlaus, to whom he gave the duchy of Sileſia, which thus was ſeparated from Poland, and has never ſince been re-annexed to it. This had no other effect upon Uladiſlaus than the putting him in a condition to raiſe freſh diſturbances; for he now found means to perſuade the emperor Conrade to invade Poland: but Boleſlaus ſo haraſſed and fatigued his army by perpetual marches, ambuſcades, and ſkirmiſhes, that he was obliged in a ſhort time to return to his own country; and for ſome years Poland enjoyed a profound tranquillity.

51 Poland invaded by the emperor Barbaroſſa.

During this interval Henry entered on a cruſade; and, though he loſt almoſt all his army in that enthuſiaſtic undertaking, is celebrated by the ſuperſtitious writers of that age, as the bulwark of the church, and one of the greateſt Chriſtian heroes: however, in all probability, the reaſon of this extraordinary fame is, that he made large donations to the knights of St John of Jeruſalem. Soon after the return of Henry, Poland was invaded by the emperor Frederic Barbaroſſa, who was perſuaded to this by the ſolicitations of Uladiſlaus and his wife Chriſtina. The number of the Imperialiſts was ſo great, that Boleſlaus and his brothers did not think proper to oppoſe him in the field; they contented themſelves with cutting off the convoys, placing ambuſcades, haraſſing them on their march, and

Poland. keeping them in perpetual alarms by false attacks and skirmishes. With this view the three brothers divided their forces, desolated the country before the enemy, and burnt all the towns and cities which were in no condition to stand a siege. Thus the emperor, advancing into the heart of a desolated country where he could not subsist, was at last reduced to such a situation that he could neither go forward nor retreat, and was obliged to solicit a conference with Boleslaus. The latter was too prudent to irritate him by an unseasonable haughtiness, and therefore went to the German camp attended only by his brothers and a slight guard. This instance of confidence was so agreeable to the emperor, that a treaty was soon agreed upon, which was confirmed by a marriage between Adelaide, niece to the emperor, and Mieczslaus duke of Posnania.

52 Who is obliged to sue for peace.

Boleslaus having thus happily escaped from so great a danger, took it into his head to attempt the conquest of Prussia, for no other reason but because the inhabitants were heathens. Having unexpectedly invaded the country with a very numerous army, he succeeded in his enterprise; great numbers of infidels were converted, and many churches set up: but no sooner was Boleslaus gone; than the inhabitants returned to their old religion. Upon this Boleslaus again came against them with a formidable power; but, being betrayed by some Prussians whom he had taken into his service and raised to posts of honour, his army was led into defiles and almost entirely cut off, duke Henry was killed, and Boleslaus and Mieczslaus escaped with great difficulty.

This misfortune was quickly followed by another; for now the children of Uladislaus laid claim to all the Polish dominions which had been possessed by their father, most of which had been bestowed upon young Casimir. They were supported in their pretensions by a great number of discontented Poles, and a considerable body of German auxiliaries. Boleslaus, finding himself unable to withstand his enemies by force, had recourse to negociation, by which means he gained time to recruit his army and repair his losses. An assembly of the states was held, before which the duke so fully refuted the claims of the children of Uladislaus, that it was almost unanimously voted that they had kindled an unjust war; and to take away every pretence for renewing the civil discords of Poland, they were a second time invested with the duchy of Silesia, which for the present put an end to all disputes. After this, Boleslaus applied himself to promote, by all means, the happiness of his subjects, till his death, which happened in the year 1174.

53 A civil war.

On the death of Boleslaus, the states raised his brother Mieczslaus to the ducal throne, on account of the great opinion they had of him. But the moment that Mieczslaus ceased to be a subject, he became a tyrant, and a slave to almost every kind of vice; the consequence of which was, that in a very short time he was deposed, and his brother Casimir elected in his stead.

54 Casimir, an excellent prince.

Casimir was a prince of the greatest justice and benevolence, insomuch that he scrupled to accept of the honour which the states had conferred upon him, lest it should be a trespass against the laws of equity. However, this scruple being soon got over, he set himself about the securing peace and tranquillity in all parts of his dominions. He redressed all grievances, suppressed exorbitant imposts, and assembled a general diet, in which it was proposed to rescue the peasants from the tyranny of the nobility; an affair of such consequence, that the duke could not enter upon it by his own authority, even though supported by the clergy. Yet it proved less difficult than had been imagined, to persuade the nobility to relinquish certain privileges extremely detrimental to natural right. They were influenced by the example of their virtuous sovereign, and immediately granted all that he required; and, to secure this declaration in favour of the peasants, the archbishop of Gnesna thundered out anathemas against those who should endeavour to regain the unjust privileges which they had now renounced; and to give a still greater weight to this decision, the acts of the diet were transmitted to Rome, where they were confirmed by the pope. Poland.

But, though the nobility in general consented to have their power somewhat retrenched, it proved matter of discontent to some, who, for this reason, immediately became the partisans of the deposed Mieczslaus. This unfortunate prince was now reduced to such indigence, that he wrote an account of his situation to his brother Casimir; which so much affected him, that in an assembly of the diet he proposed to resign the sovereignty in favour of his brother. To this the states replied in the most peremptory manner: they desired him never more to mention the subject to them, lest they should be under the necessity of deposing him and excluding his brother, who, they were determined, should never more have the dominion of Poland. Casimir, however, was so much concerned at the account of his brother's misfortunes, that he tried every method to relieve him, and even connived at the arts practised by some discontented noblemen to restore him. By a very singular generosity, he facilitated the reduction of Gnesna and Lower Poland, where Mieczslaus might have lived in peace and splendor, had not his heart been so corrupted that it could not be subdued by kindness. The consequence was, that he used all his art to wrest from his brother the whole of his dominions, and actually conquered the provinces of Mazovia and Cujava; but of these he was soon dispossessed, and only some places in Lower Poland were left him. After this he made another attempt, on occasion of a report that Casimir had been poisoned in an expedition into Russia. He surprised the city of Cracow: but the citadel refused to surrender, and his hopes were entirely blasted by the return of Casimir himself; who, with an unparallelled generosity and magnanimity, asked peace of his brother whom he had vanquished and had in a manner at his mercy.—The last action of this amiable prince was the conquest of Russia, which he effected rather by the reputation of his wisdom and generosity than by the force of his arms. Those barbarians voluntarily submitted to a prince so famed for his benevolence, justice, and humanity. Soon after his return he died at Cracow, lamented as the best prince in every respect who had ever filled the throne of Poland. 55 Conquers Russia.

Casimir left one son, named *Lechus*, an infant; and the states, dreading the consequences of a long minority, hesitated at appointing him sovereign, considering how many competitors he must necessarily have, and

Poland. and how dubious it must be whether he might be fit for the sovereignty after he had obtained it. At last, however, Lechus was nominated, chiefly through the interest he had obtained on account of the reputation of his father's virtues. The consequence of his nomination was precisely what might have been expected. Mieczslaus formed an alliance against him with the dukes of Oppelen, Pomerania, and Breslau; and having raised all the men in Lower Poland fit to bear arms, took the road to Cracow with a very numerous army. A bloody battle was fought on the banks of the river Mozgarva; in which both sides were so much weakened, that they were unable to keep the field, and consequently were forced to retire for some time in order to repair their forces. Mieczslaus was first ready for action, and therefore had the advantage: however, he thought proper to employ artifice rather than open force; and therefore having attempted in vain to corrupt the guardians of Lechus, he entered into a treaty with the duchess dowager his mother. To her he represented in the strongest manner the miseries which would ensue from her refusal of the conditions he proposed. He stipulated to adopt Lechus and Conrade, her sons, for his own; to surrender the province of Cujavia for their present support; and to declare them heirs to all his dominions. The principal nobility opposed this accommodation, but it was accepted by the duchess in spite of all their remonstrances; and Mieczslaus was once more put in possession of the capital, after having taken a solemn oath to execute punctually every article of the treaty.

56 Civil war between Lechus and the deposed Mieczslaus.

57 Mieczslaus restored.

It is not to be supposed, that a prince of such a perfidious disposition as Mieczslaus would pay much regard to the obligations of a simple contract. It was a maxim with him, that a sovereign is no longer obliged to keep his oath than while it is neither safe nor beneficial to break it. Having therefore got all the power into his hands, he behaved in the very same manner as if no treaty with the duchess had subsisted. The duchess, perceiving herself duped, formed a strong party, and excited a general insurrection. The rebellion could not be withstood: Mieczslaus was driven out of Cracow, and on the point of being reduced to his former circumstances, when he found means to produce a variance between the duchess and palatine of Cracow; and thus once more turned the scale in his favour. The forces of Mieczslaus now became superior, and he, in consequence, regained possession of Cracow, but did not long enjoy his prosperity, falling a victim to his intemperance; so that Lechus was restored to the sovereignty in the year 1206.

58 Poland ravaged by the Tartars.

The government of Lechus was the most unfortunate of any of the sovereigns of Poland. In his time the Tartars made an irruption, and committed every where the most cruel ravages. At last they came to an engagement with the Poles, assisted by the Russians; and, after an obstinate and dreadful conflict, obtained a complete victory. This incursion, however, terminated as precipitately as it commenced; for, without any apparent reason, they retired, just as the whole kingdom was ready to submit; but the devastations they had committed, produced a famine, which was soon followed by a plague that depopulated one of the most populous countries of the north. In this unhappy situation of affairs, death ended the misfortunes of Lechus, who was murdered by his own subjects as he was bathing. A civil war took place after his death; and the history for some time is so confused, that it is difficult to say with certainty who was his successor. During this unfortunate state of the country, the Tartars made a second irruption, laid all desolate before them, and were advancing to the capital, when they were attacked and defeated with great slaughter by the palatine of Cracow with only a handful of men. The power of the enemy, however, was not broken by this victory; for, next year, the Tartars returned, and committed such barbarities as can scarce be imagined. Whole provinces were defeated, and every one of the inhabitants massacred. They were returning, laden with spoil, when the palatine fell upon them a second time, but not with the same success as before: for, after an obstinate engagement, he was defeated, and thus all Poland was laid open to the ravages of the barbarians; the nobility fled into Hungary, and the peasants fought an asylum among rocks and impenetrable forests. Cracow, being left entirely defenceless, was soon taken, pillaged, and burnt; after which the barbarians, penetrating into Silesia and Moravia, desolated these countries, destroying Breslau and other cities. Nor did Hungary escape the fury of their barbarity: the king gave battle to the Tartars, but was defeated with vast slaughter, and had the mortification to see his capital laid in ashes, and above 100,000 of his subjects perish by fire and sword. The arms of the Tartars were invincible; nothing could withstand the prodigious number of forces which they brought into the field, and the fury with which they fought. They fixed their head-quarters on the frontiers of Hungary; and spread their devastations on every side with a celerity and success that threatened the destruction of the whole empire, as well as of the neighbouring kingdoms.

In this dreadful situation was Poland, when Boleslaus, surnamed the *Chaste*, was raised to the sovereignty; but this, so far from putting an end to the troubles, only superadded a civil war to the rest of the calamities. Boleslaus was opposed by his uncle Conrade the brother of Lechus, who was provoked at becoming the subject of his own nephew. Having assembled a powerful army, he gained possession of Cracow; assumed the title of *duke of Poland*; and might possibly have kept possession of the sovereignty, had not his avarice and pride equally offended the nobility and peasants. In consequence of their discontents, they unanimously invited Boleslaus, who had fled into Hungary, to come and head the insurrection which now took place in every quarter. On his arrival, he was joyfully received into the capital: but Conrade still headed a powerful party; and it is reported, that on this occasion the knights of the Teutonic order were first called into Poland, to dispute the pretensions of Boleslaus. All the endeavours of Conrade, however, proved unsuccessful: he was defeated in two pitched battles, and forced to live in a private situation; tho' he never ceased to harass his nephew, and make fresh attempts to recover the crown. However, of the reign of Boleslaus we have little account, except that he made a vow of perpetual continency, and imposed the same on his wife; that he founded near 40 monasteries; and that he died, after a long reign, in 1279,

59 Knights of the Teutonic order first called into Poland.

Poland. 1279, after having adopted Lechus duke of Cujavia, and procured a confirmation of his choice by the free election of the people.

60 Poland over-run by the Russians, Tartars, and Lithuanians.

The reign of this laſt prince was one continued ſcene of foreign and domeſtic trouble. On his firſt acceſſion he was attacked by the united forces of Ruſſia and Lithuania aſſiſted by the Tartars; whom, however, he had the good fortune to defeat in a pitched battle. By this victory the enemy were obliged to quit the kingdom; but Lechus was ſo much weakened, that civil diſſenſions took place immediately after. Theſe increaſed to ſuch a degree, that Lechus was obliged to fly to Hungary, the common reſource of diſtreſſed Poliſh princes. The inhabitants of Cracow alone remained firm in their duty; and theſe brave citizens ſtood all the fatigue and danger of a tedious ſiege, till they were at laſt relieved by Lechus at the head of an Hungarian army, who defeated the rebels, and reſtored the legitimate ſovereign. He had ſcarce reaſcended the throne, when the united forces of the Ruſſians, Tartars, and Lithuanians, made a ſecod irruption into Poland, and deſolated the country with the moſt ſavage barbarity. Their forces were now rendered more terrible than ever by their having along with them a vaſt number of large dogs trained to the art of war. Lechus, however, with an army much inferior, obtained a complete victory; the Poles being animated by deſpair, as perceiving, that, if they were conquered, they muſt alſo be devoured. Soon after this, Lechus died with the reputation of a warlike, wiſe, but unfortunate prince. As he died without iſſue, his crown was conteſted, a civil war again enſued; and the affairs of the ſtate continued in a very declining way till the year 1296, when Premiſlaus, the duke at that time, reſumed the title of *king*. However, they did not revive in any conſiderable degree till the year 1305, when Uladiſlaus Locticus, who had ſeized the throne in 1300, and afterwards been driven out, was again reſtored to it. The firſt tranſaction of his reign was a war with the Teutonic knights, who had uſurped the greater part of Pomerania during the late diſturbances. They had been ſettled in the territory of Culm by Conrade, duke of Mazovia; but ſoon extended their dominion over the neighbouring provinces, and had even got poſſeſſion of the city of Dantzic, where they maſſacred a number of Pomeranian gentlemen in cold blood; which ſo much terrified the neighbouring towns, that they ſubmitted without a ſtroke. The knights were commanded by the Pope himſelf to renounce their conqueſts; but they ſet at nought all his thunders, and even ſuffered themſelves to be excommunicated rather than part with them. As ſoon as this happened, the king marched into the territories of the marquis of Brandenburg, becauſe he had pretended to ſell a right to the Teutonic knights to thoſe countries, when he had none to them to himſelf. Uladiſlaus next entered the territory of Culm, where he laid every thing waſte with fire and ſword; and, being oppoſed by the joint forces of the marquis, the knights, and the duke of Mazovia, he obtained a complete victory after a deſperate and bloody engagement. Without purſuing the blow, he returned to Poland, recruited his army, and being reinforced by a body of auxiliaries from Hungary and Lithuania, he diſperſed the enemy's forces, and ravaged a ſecond time all the dominions of the Teutonic order. Had he improved this advantage, he might eaſily have exterminated the whole order, or at leaſt reduced them ſo low, that they could never have occaſioned any more diſturbances in the ſtate; but he ſuffered himſelf to be ſoothed and cajoled by the promiſes which they made without any deſign of keeping them, and concluded a treaty under the mediation of the kings of Hungary and Bohemia. In a few months he was convinced of the perfidy of the knights; for they not only refuſed to evacuate Pomerania as had been ſtipulated in the treaty, but endeavoured to extend their uſurpations, for which purpoſe they had aſſembled a very conſiderable army. Uladiſlaus enraged at their treachery, took the field a third time, and gave them battle with ſuch ſucceſs, that 4000 knights were left dead on the ſpot, and 30,000 auxiliaries killed or taken priſoners. Yet, though the king had it once more in his power to deſtroy the whole Teutonic order, he ſatiſfied himſelf with obtaining the territories which had occaſioned the war; after which he ſpent the remainder of his life in peace and tranquillity.

61 War with the Teutonic knights.

62 Ruſſia Nigra conquered by Caſimir the Great.

Uladiſlaus was ſucceeded by his ſon Caſimir III. ſurnamed the *Great*. He ſubdued the province called *Ruſſia Nigra* in a ſingle compaign. Next he turned his arms againſt Mazovia; and with the utmoſt rapidity over-ran the duchy, and annexed it as a province to the crown: after which, he applied himſelf to domeſtic affairs, and was the firſt who introduced a written code of laws into Poland. He was the moſt impartial judge, the moſt rigid obſerver of juſtice, and the moſt ſubmiſſive to the laws, of any potentate mentioned in the hiſtory of Europe. The only vice with which he is charged is that of incontinency; but even this the clergy declared to be a venial ſin, and amply compenſated by his other virtues, particularly the great liberality which he ſhewed to the clerical order.

63 Unhappy reign of Lewis.

Caſimir was ſucceeded in 1370 by his nephew Lewis, king of Hungary; but, as the Poles looked upon him to be a foreign prince, they were not happy under his adminiſtration. Indeed a coldneſs between this monarch and his people took place even before he aſcended the throne; for in the *pacta conventa*, to which the Poliſh monarchs were obliged to ſwear, a great number of unuſual articles were inſerted. This probably was the reaſon why he left Poland almoſt as ſoon as his coronation was over, carrying with him the crown, ſceptre, globe, and ſword of ſtate, to prevent the Poles from electing another prince during his abſence. He left the government in the hands of his mother Elizabeth; and ſhe would have been agreeable to the people, had her capacity for government been equal to the taſk. At that time, however, the ſtate of Poland was too much diſtracted to be governed by a woman. The country was over-run with bold robbers and gangs of villains, who committed the moſt horrid diſorders; the kingdom was likewiſe invaded by the Lithuanians; the whole province of Ruſſia Nigra revolted; and the kingdom was univerſally filled with diſſenſion. The Poles could not bear to ſee their towns filled with Hungarian garriſons; and therefore ſent a meſſage to the king, telling him that they thought he had been ſufficiently honoured in being elected king of Poland himſelf, without ſuffering the kingdom to be governed by a woman and his Hungarian

Poland. garian subjects. On this Lewis immediately raised a numerous army, with a design fully to conquer the spirit of his subjects. His first operations were directed against the Russians; whom he defeated, and again reduced to subjection. Then he turned his arms against the Lithuanians, drove them out of the kingdom, and re-established public tranquillity. However, instead of being satisfied with this, and removing the Hungarian garrisons, he introduced many more, and raised Hungarians to all the chief posts of government. His credit and authority even went so far as to get a successor nominated who was disagreeable to the whole nation, namely *Sigismund* marquis of Brandenburg. After the death of Lewis, however, this election was set aside; and Hedwiga, daughter of Casimir the Great, was proclaimed queen.

64 Hedwiga marries the duke of Lithuania, thereby uniting that duchy, together with Samogitia and Russia Nigra, to Poland.

This princess married Jagello duke of Lithuania, who was now converted to Christianity, and baptized by the name of *Uladislaus*. In consequence of this marriage, the duchy of Lithuania, as well as the vast provinces of Samogitia and Russia Nigra, became annexed to the crown of Poland. Such a formidable accession of power excited the jealousy of the Teutonic knights, who were sensible that Uladislaus was now bound to undertake the reduction of Pomerania, and revenge all the injuries which Poland had sustained from them for a great number of years. From his first accession therefore they considered this monarch as their greatest enemy, and endeavoured to prevent his designs against them by effecting a revolution in Lithuania in favour of his brother Andrew. The prospect of success was the greater here, as most of the nobility were discontented with the late alliance, and Uladislaus had proposed to effect a revolution in religion, which was highly disagreeable. On a sudden, therefore, two armies marched towards the frontiers of the duchy, which they as suddenly penetrated, laying waste the whole country, and seizing upon some important fortresses before the king of Poland had any notice of the matter. As soon as he received advice of these ravages, Uladislaus raised some forces with the utmost celerity, which he committed to the care of his brother Skirgello, who defeated the Teutonic knights, and soon obliged them to abandon all their conquests. In the mean time Uladislaus marched in person into the Higher Poland, which was subjected to a variety of petty tyrants, who oppressed the people, and governed with intolerable despotism. The palatine of Posnia in particular had distinguished himself by his rebellious practices; but he was completely defeated by Uladislaus, and the whole country reduced to obedience.

65 Troubles in Lithuania.

Having secured the tranquillity of Poland, Uladislaus visited Lithuania, attended by a great number of the clergy, in order to convert his subjects. This he effected without great difficulty; but left the care of the duchy to his brother Skirgello, a man of a cruel, haughty, and debauched turn, and who immediately began to abuse his power. With him the king sent his cousin Vitowda, a prince of a generous, brave, and amiable disposition, to be a check upon his conduct; but the barbarity of Skirgello soon obliged this prince to take refuge among the Teutonic knights, who were now become the asylum of the oppressed and discontented. For some time, however, he did not assist the knights in their designs against his country; but having applied for protection to the king, and finding him remiss in affording the necessary assistance, he at last joined in the schemes formed by the knights for the destruction of Poland. Entering Lithuania at the head of a numerous army, he took the capital, burnt part of it, and destroyed 14,000 persons in the flames, besides a great number who were massacred in attempting to make their escape. The upper part of the city, however, was vigorously defended, so that the besiegers were at last obliged to abandon all thoughts of making themselves masters of it, and to content themselves with desolating the adjacent country. The next year Vitowda renewed his attempts upon this city, but with the same ill success: though he got possession of some places of less note. As soon, however, as an opportunity offered, he came to an accommodation with the king, who bestowed on him the government of Lithuania. During the first years of his government, he bestowed the most diligent attention upon domestic affairs, endeavouring to repair the calamities which the late wars had occasioned; but his impetuous valour prompted him at last to engage in a war with Tamerlane the Great, after his victory over Bajazet the Turkish emperor. For some time before, Vitowda had been at war with the neighbouring Tartars, and had been constantly victorious, transporting whole hords of that barbarous people into Poland and Lithuania, where to this day they form a colony distinct in manners and dress from the other inhabitants. Uladislaus, however, dissuaded him from attacking the whole strength of the nation under such a celebrated commander as Tamerlane; but Vitowda was obstinate: he encountered an army of 400,000 Tartars under Ediga, Tamerlane's lieutenant, with only a tenth part of their number. The battle continued for a whole day; but at last Vitowda was surrounded by the numbers of his enemy, and in the utmost danger of being cut in pieces. However, he broke his way through, with prodigious slaughter on both sides; and came off at last without a total defeat, having killed a number of the enemy equal to the whole of his own army.

66 Terrible battle with the Tartars.

67 Wars with the Teutonic knights.

During the absence of Vitowda, the Teutonic knights had penetrated into Lithuania, committing every where the most dreadful ravages. On his return he attacked and defeated them, making an irruption into Livonia, to punish the inhabitants of that country for the assistance they had given to the Teutonic order. This was succeeded by a long series of wars between Poland and Prussia, in which it became necessary for Uladislaus himself to take the field. The knights had now, one way or other, got possession of Samogitia, Mazovia, Culm, Silesia, and Pomerania; so that Uladislaus resolved to punish them before they became too powerful. With this view he assembled an army composed of several different nations, with which he penetrated into Prussia, took several towns, and was advancing to Marienburg the capital of Pomerania, when he was met by the army of the Prussian knights, who determined to hazard a battle. When the engagement began, the Poles were deserted by all their auxiliaries, and obliged to stand the brunt of the battle by themselves. The courage and conduct of their king, however, so animated them, that after a most desperate battle they obtained a complete victory; near

Poland. near 40,000 of the enemy being killed in the field, and 30,000 taken prisoners. This terrible overthrow, however, was less fatal to the affairs of the Prussian knights than might have been expected; as Uladislaus did not improve his victory, and a peace was concluded upon easier terms than his adversaries had any reason to expect.—Some infraction of the treaty occasioned a renewal of hostilities; and Uladislaus was so much elated with victory that he would hearken to no terms, by which means the enemy were driven to the desperate resolution of burying themselves in the ruins of their capital. The siege was accordingly commenced, and both sides behaved with the greatest vigour; but at last, through the good conduct and valour of the grand master of the knights name *Plawen*, the Polish monarch found himself obliged to grant them an advantegeous peace, at a time when it was universally expected that the whole order would have been exterminated.

Uladislaus V. died in 1435, and was succeeded by his son Uladislaus VI. at that time only nine years of age. He had scarce ascended the throne when the kingdom was invaded by the Tartars, who defeated Buccarius the general of the Polish forces; and committing every where dreadful ravages, returned to their own country loaden with booty. A few years after, the nation was involved in a war with Amurath the emperor of the Turks, who threatened to break into Hungary; and it was thought by the diet to be good policy to assist the Hungarians at this juncture, because it was impossible to know where the storm might fall after Hungary was conquered. But before all things were prepared for the young king to take the field, a strong body of auxiliaries were dispatched under the celebrated John Hunniades vaivode of Transylvania, to oppose the Turks, and likewise to support the election of Uladislaus to the crown of Hungary. This detachment surprised the Turkish army near the river Morava, and defeated Amurath with the loss of 40,00 men; after which Hunniades retook all the places which had been conquered by Amurath, the proud Sultan was forced to sue for peace, and Uladislaus was raised without opposition to the crown of Hungary. A treaty was concluded, by which the Turks promised to relinquish their designs upon Hungary, to acknowledge the king's right to that crown, and to give up all their conquests in Rascia and Servia. This treaty was sealed by mutual oaths: but Uladislaus broke it at the persuasion of the Pope's legate; who insisted, that now was the time for humbling the power of the infidels; and produced a special commission from the pope, absolving him from the oath he had taken at the late treaty. The consequence of this perfidy was, that Uladislaus was entirely defeated and killed at Varna, and the greatest part of his army cut in pieces.

68 Uladislaus defeated and killed by the Turks.

Uladislaus VI. was succeeded by Casimir III. in whose reign the Teutonic knights were subdued, and obliged to yield up the territories of Culm, Michlow, and the whole duchy of Pomerania, together with the towns of Elbing, Mariemburg, Talkmith, Schut, and Christburgh, to the crown of Poland. On the other hand, the king restored to them all the other conquests he had made in Prussia, granted a seat in the Polish senate to the grand-master, and endowed him with other privileges, on condition that, six months after his accession, he should do homage for Prussia, and take an oath of fidelity to the king and republic.

69 Teutonic knights subdued.

This success raised the spirits of the Polish nation, which had drooped ever since the battle of Varna. The diet did not, however, think proper to renew the war against the Turks, but took under their protection the hospodar of Moldavia; as thinking that this province would make a convenient barrier to the Polish dominions on one side. The request of the prince who asked this protection was therefore readily granted, an oath of fidelity exacted from him and the inhabitants, and a tribute required; regular payment of which was made for a great number of years afterwards.

70 Crowns of Bohemia and Hungary united to Poland.

About this time also the crown of Bohemia becoming vacant, the people were extremely desirous of being governed by one of the princes of Poland; upon which, the barons were induced to bestow the crown upon Uladislaus, eldest son to Casimir, in opposition to the intrigues of the king of Hungary. Not satisfied with this acquisition, Uladislaus took advantage of the dissensions in Hungary, in order to unite that crown to his own: and this he also effected; by which means his power was greatly augmented, though not the felicity of his people. So many foreign expeditions had exhausted the treasury, and oppressed the peasants with taxes; the gentry were greatly diminished by a number of bloody engagements; agriculture was neglected, and the country almost depopulated. Before a proper remedy could be applied for these evils, Casimir died in 1492; much more admired, than beloved or regretted, by his subjects. It is related by the historians of this period, that in the reign of Casimir III. the deputies of the provinces first appeared at the diet, and assumed to themselves the legislative power; all laws before this time having been framed by the king in conjunction with the senate. It is observed also, that before Casimir's time, the Latin language was understood only by the clergy of Poland; in proof of which, it is alleged, that at an interview between this prince and the king of Sweden at Dantzick, his Polish majesty was forced to make use of the assistance of a monk to interpret between him and the Swedish monarch. Casimir, ashamed of the ignorance shown by himself and court, published an edict, enjoining the diligent study of the Latin, which in our days is spoken as vernacular by every Polish gentleman, though very unclassically.

During the succeeding reigns of John, Albert, and Alexander, the Polish affairs fell into decline; the kingdom being harrassed by continual wars with the Turks and Tartars. However, they were retrieved by Sigismund I. who ascended the throne in 1507. This monarch, having reformed some internal abuses, next set about rendering the kingdom as formidable as it had formerly been. He first quelled a rebellion which broke out in Lithuania; after which, he drove the Walachians and Moldavians out of Russia Nigra, and defeated the Russians in a pitched battle, with the loss of 30,000 men. In this engagement he was obliged to cause his cavalry swim across the Boristhenes to begin the attack, while a bridge was preparing for the infantry. These orders were executed with astonishing celerity, notwithstanding the rapidity of the stream, the steepness of the banks, and the enemy's opposition. The onset was led by the Lithuanians, who were directed

71 Exploits of Sigismund I.

Poland. rected to retreat gradually, with a view of drawing the enemy within reach of the cannon. This the Ruſſians miſtook for a real flight; and as they were purſuing with eagerneſs, Sigiſmund opened his line to the right and left, pouring in grape-ſhot from the artillery with dreadful ſucceſs. The Ruſſian general, and ſeveral noblemen of the firſt diſtinction, were taken priſoners, while the whole loſs of the royal army did not amount to 300 men.

After this complete victory, the king turned his arms againſt the Teutonic knights, who had elected the marquis of Brandenburgh their grand-maſter; and this prince not only refuſed to acknowledge the ſovereignty of the crown of Poland, but even invaded the Poliſh territories. Sigiſmund marched againſt him, and gained poſſeſſion of ſeveral important places in Brandenburgh; but as he was purſuing his conqueſts, the marquis was reinforced by 14,000 Germans, led by the duke of Schonenburg, who ventured to lay ſiege to Dantzic, after having ravaged all the neighbouring country. The Dantzickers, however, defended themſelves with ſo much ſpirit, that the beſiegers were ſoon obliged to relinquiſh their enterpriſe. In their retreat they were attacked by a ſtrong detachment of Poliſh cavalry, who made prodigions havock, and compelled the wretched remains to take ſhelter in Pomerania, where they were inhumanely butchered by the peaſants. Soon after this the marquis was obliged to ſubmit to the clemency of the conqueror; from whom, however, he obtained better conditions than could have been expected, or indeed than he would have got, had he not abandoned the intereſt of the Teutonic order, and reſigned the dignity of grand-maſter. In order to ſecure him in his intereſt, therefore, Sigiſmund granted him half the province of Pruſſia as a ſecular duke, and dependent on the crown of Poland; by which means he entirely deprived that order of the beſt part of their dominions, and put it quite out of their power to diſturb the tranquillity of Poland any more.

The power of Sigiſmund had now excited the jealouſy of the Houſe of Auſtria; for which reaſon they took every method in their power to ſtir up enemies againſt him. By their means, the Ruſſians, Moldavians, and Tartars, were all excited to fall upon the Poliſh territories at once. The vaivode of Walachia, with 50,000 men, made an irruption into the ſmall province of Pokatior, but was entirely defeated by count Taro at the head of no more than 6000. This victory is wholly aſcribed to the good conduct of the commander, who poſſeſſed himſelf of ſome eminences on the flanks of the enemy. On theſe he erected batteries; which played with ſuch fury, as ſoon put their ranks in diſorder: upon which the Poles attacked them ſword in hand, and entirely diſperſed them with theloſs of 10,000 killed or taken. The count having then augmented his army with a ſtrong body of Lithuanians, attacked the Muſcovites and Tartars, drove them entirely out of the duchy, purſued them into Ruſſia, reduced ſeveral towns, and at laſt laid ſiege to the ſtrong fortreſs of Straradub; in which the regent, together with ſome of the beſt troops of Ruſſia, were inclofed. The garriſon made a gallant defence; and the fortifications were compoſed of beams joined together, and ſupported by a bulwark of earth, upon which the cannon-ſhot made no impreſſion: but the count contrived a method of ſetting the wood on fire; by which means the regent and nobility were obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion, and Taro carried off upwards of 60,000 priſoners, with an immenſe booty.

In the reign of Sigiſmund, we may look upon the kingdom of Poland to have been at its greateſt pitch of glory. This monarch poſſeſſed, in his own perſon, the republic of Poland, the great duchies of Lithuania, Smolenſko, and Saveria, beſides vaſt territories lying beyond the Euxine and Baltic; while his nephew Lewis poſſeſſed the kingdoms of Bohemia, Hungary, and Sileſia. But this glory received a ſudden check in 1548, by the defeat and death of Lewis, who periſhed in a battle fought with Solyman the Great, emperor of the Turks. The daughter of this prince married Ferdinand of Auſtria; whereby the dominions of Hungary, Bohemia, and Sileſia, became inſeparably connected with the hereditary dominions of the Auſtrian family. This misfortune is thought to have haſtened the death of Sigiſmund; tho' being then in his 84th year, he could not have lived long by the ordinary courſe of nature. He did not, however, ſurvive the news many months, but died of a lingering diſorder, leaving behind him the character of the completeſt general, the ableſt politician, the beſt prince, and the ſtrongeſt man, in the north; of which laſt, indeed, ſome inſtances are related by hiſtorians, that are almoſt incredible.

72 Sigiſmund Auguſtus, a wiſe and valiant prince.

Sigiſmund Auguſtus, who ſucceeded his father Sigiſmund I. proved alſo a very great and happy prince. At that time the moſt violent and bloody wars were carrying on in Germany, and indeed through other parts of Europe, on account of religion; but Sigiſmund wiſely avoided interfering in theſe diſputes. He would not admit into his dominions any of thoſe divines who were taxed with holding heterodox opinions, nor even allow his people the liberty of correſponding with them; yet he never perſecuted, or employed any other means for the preſervation of the ſtate than thoſe of a well-conducted and regular policy. Inſtead of diſputing with his ſubjects about ſpeculative opinions, Sigiſmund applied himſelf diligently to the reforming of abuſes, enforcing the laws, enriching the treaſury, promoting induſtry, and redeeming the crown-lands where the titles of the poſſeſſors appeared illegal. Out of the revenue recovered in this manner he maintained a formidable ſtanding army, without laying any additional tax upon the ſubjects; and though he preferred peace to war, he was always able to puniſh thoſe that offered indignities to his crown or perſon. His knowledge in the art of war was ſoon tried in a conteſt with the Ruſſians, who had made an irruption into Livonia, encouraged by the diſputes which had ſubſiſted between the Teutonic knights and the archbiſhop of Riga, confin to Sigiſmund. The province was at that time divided between the knights and the prelate; and the Ruſſians, under pretence of aſſiſting the former, had ſeized great part of the dominions of latter. The archbiſhop had recourſe to his kinſman the king of Poland; who, after fruitleſs efforts to accommodate matters, marched towards the frontiers of Livonia with an army of 100,000 men. The knights were by no means able to reſiſt ſuch a formidable power; and therefore, deſerting their late allies, put themſelves under the protection

73 War with Ruſſia.

Poland.

tion of the king of Poland. The czar, John Basilides, though deserted by the knights, did not lose his courage; nay, he even insolently refused to return any answer to the proposals of peace made by Sigismund. His army consisted of 300,000 men, with whom he imagined himself able to reduce all Livonia, in spite of the utmost efforts of the king of Poland; however, having met with some checks on that quarter, he directly invaded Poland with his whole army. At first he carried every thing before him; but the Poles soon made a vigorous opposition. Yet the Russians, though every where defeated, still continued their incursions, which Sigismund at last revenged by invading Russia in his turn. These mutual desolations and ravages at last made both parties desirous of peace, and a truce for three years was agreed on; during the continuance of which the king of Poland died, and with him was extinguished the house of Jagello, which had governed Poland for near 200 years.

74 Extinction of the house of Jagello.

On the death of Sigismund, Poland became a prey to intestine divisions; and a vast number of intrigues were set on foot at the courts of Vienna, France, Saxony, Sweden, and Brandenburgh; each endeavouring to establish a prince of their own nation on the throne of Poland. The consequence of all this was, that the kingdom became one universal scene of corruption, faction, and confusion; the members of the diet consulted only their own interest, and were ready on every occasion to sell themselves to the best bidder. The Protestants had by this time got a considerable footing in the kingdom, and thus religious disputes were intermingled with political ones. One good effect, however, flowed from this confusion: for a law was passed, by which it was enacted, that no difference in religious opinions should make any contention among the subjects of the kingdom; and that all the Poles, without discrimination, should be capable of holding public offices and trusts under the government; and it was also resolved, that the future king should swear expressly to cultivate the internal tranquillity of the realm, and cherish, without distinction, their subjects of all persuasions.

75 Distracted state of Poland.

While the candidates for the throne were severally attempting to support their own interest in the best manner they could, John Crasofski, a Polish gentleman of great merit, but diminutive stature, had just returned from France, whither he had travelled for improvement. His humour, wit, and diverting size, had rendered him universally agreeable at the court of France, and in a particular manner engaged the esteem of Catherine de Medicis, which the little Pole had the address to make use of for his own advantage. He owed many obligations to the duke of Anjou; whom, out of gratitude, he represented in such favourable terms, that the Poles began to entertain thoughts of making him their king. These sentiments were confirmed and encouraged by Crasofski, who returned into France by order of several leading men in Poland, and acquainted the king and queen Catharine, that nothing was wanting besides the formality of an embassy to procure the crown for the duke of Anjou, almost without opposition. Charles IX. king of France at that time, also promoted the scheme, being jealous of the duke of Anjou's popularity, and willing to have him removed to as great a distance as possible. Accordingly the parties came to an agreement; and it was stipulated that the duke of Anjou should maintain the laws, liberties, and customs of the kingdom of Poland, and of the grand duchy of Lithuania; that he should transport all his effects and annual revenues in France into Poland; that the French monarch should pay the late king Sigismund's debts; that he should maintain 100 young Polish gentlemen at his court, and 50 in other places; that he should send a fleet to the Baltic, to assist Poland against the Russians; and lastly, that Henry should marry the princess Anne, sister to the late king Sigismund; but this article Henry would not ratify till his return to Poland.

76 Duke of Anjou chosen king of Poland.

Every thing being thus settled, the young king quitted France, attended by a splendid retinue, and was accompanied by the queen-mother as far as Lorrain. He was received by his subjects on the frontiers of Poland, and conducted to Cracow, where he was soon after crowned. The affections of the Poles were soon engaged by the youth and accomplishments of Henry; but scarce was he seated on the throne, when, by the death of Charles IX. he became heir to the crown of France. Of this he was informed by repeated messages from queen Catharine; he repented his having accepted the crown of Poland, and resolved to leave it for that of France. But being sensible that the Poles would oppose his departure, he kept his intentions secret, and watched an opportunity of stealing out of the palace in disguise in the night-time. The Poles, as might well have been expected, were irritated at being thus abandoned, from the mere motive of interest, by a prince whom they had loved and honoured so much. Parties were dispatched after him by different roads; and Zamoski, a nobleman who headed one of these parties, overtook him some leagues distant from Cracow. All the prayers and tears of that nobleman, however, could not prevail on Henry to return; he rode post to Vienna, and then passed into France by the way of Italy.

77 Runs away from his kingdom.

In the mean time the Poles were so much exasperated against Henry and his whole nation, that all the French in Cracow would have been massacred if the magistrates had not placed guards in the streets. Henry, however, had foreseen the consequences of his flight, and therefore endeavoured to apologise for his behaviour. One Danzai undertook his cause in full senate; and with great eloquence explained the king's motives for his abrupt departure. Henry also wrote to the chief nobility and clergy with his own hand. But nothing could satisfy the Poles; who now acquainted their king, that if he did not immediately return, they would be obliged to divest him of the royal dignity, and to choose another sovereign. Henry began to excuse himself on account of the wars in which he was engaged, and promised to send men of unexceptionable integrity to govern Poland till he should return: but no excuses could be accepted; and, on the 15th of July 1575, he was solemnly divested of the regal dignity in full diet, and the throne declared vacant.

78 And is deposed.

After the deposition of Henry, the commotions and factions again took place. However, the contending parties were now reduced to two; one who supported the interest of Maximilian emperor of Germany; the other, who were for electing the princess Anne, and marrying her to Stephen Batori prince of Transylvania,

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nia. The latter prevailed through the courage of one gentleman, who, in imitation of the power assumed by the Roman tribunes, stood up in the full senate, and opposed the proclamation of Maximilian, declaring that his election was violent and illegal. In this situation of affairs, it was obvious that strength and celerity must determine which election was legitimate: both parties wrote to the princes whose cause they had espoused, intreating them to come with all possible expedition to take possession of the throne. Batori proved the more alert; for while Maximilian was disputing about certain conditions which the Poles required for the security of their privileges, he entered Poland, married the princess, and was crowned on the 1st of May 1576.

79 Stephen Batori chosen king.

80 Dantzic revolts.

No opposition was made to the authority of Batori except by the inhabitants of Dantzick. These adhered to the interest of Maximilian even after he was dead, and had the presumption to demand from the king an oath acknowledging their absolute freedom and independence. Batori referred them to the senate, declaring that he had no right to give up the privileges of the republic; but admonished the citizens to avoid all occasion of a civil war, which must necessarily terminate in their disadvantage. But the obstinate citizens, construing the king's lenity into fear, shut the gates against the ambassador, seized upon the fortress of Grebin, and published a manifesto resembling a libel upon the king and the republic. The king, incensed at these proceedings, marched against Grebin, retook the castle, and ravaged certain territories belonging to the Dantzickers; who retaliated by burning to the ground a monastery named *Oliva*, to prevent the Poles from taking possession of so important a situation.

Notwithstanding these outrages, Batori renewed his overtures for an accommodation: but the Dantzickers were deaf to these salutary proposals; so that he was obliged to declare them rebels, and send against them a body of troops under one Zborowski. As the number of the Polish army, however, was not considerable, the Dantzickers marched out to give him battle. They were assisted by a corps of Germans, and a resolution was formed of attacking the Poles in their camp by surprize; but the project was disconcerted by a sudden storm accompanied with dreadful thunder and lightning, which spread a panic through the army, as if it had been a judgment from heaven, and obliged the commander, John de Collen, to retire into the city.—In a short time, however, they recovered their spirits, and came to an action with the Poles; but were defeated with the loss of 8000 men killed on the spot, a great many taken prisoners, and the loss of several pieces cannon. But this check, instead abating the courage of the Dantzickers, only animated them the more, and they resolved to hold out to the last extremity. In the mean time the Czar of Muscovy, thinking the present opportunity favourable for extending his dominions, laid siege to Revel; but, not being able to make himself master of that place, he was obliged to content himself with ravaging Livonia, which he did in a dreadful manner. This did not, however, hinder Batori from laying siege to Dantzick in person, and pursuing the operations with the utmost vigour. Collen made many vigorous sallies in several of which he defeated the Poles: but happening at last to be killed, nobody was found capable of supplying his place, and the citizens were at last obliged to surrender at discretion; though not till they had obtained a promise from the elector of Saxony and landgrave of Hesse of interposing as mediators in their behalf. The only terms which the king demanded of them were, that they should ask his pardon, dismiss their troops, and rebuild the monastery of Oliva which they had destroyed; while his majesty, on the other hand, confirmed all their privileges, and granted them full liberty of adhering to the confession of Augsburg, for which they had for some time been strenuous advocates.

81 Poland invaded by the Russians.

82 Dantzic submits.

83 Cruelty of the Russians.

The war with Dantzick was no sooner ended, than the king directed his whole strength against the czar of Muscovy, who had made himself master of several important cities in Livonia. The czar behaved every where with the greatest cruelty, slaughtering all without distinction who were able to bear arms, and abandoning the women and children to the shocking brutality of the Tartars who served in his army. Such was the horror inspired by the perfidy and cruelty of the czar's conduct, that the inhabitants of Wender chose rather to bury themselves in the ruins of their town, than to submit to such an inhuman enemy. For a considerable time the Russians were allowed to proceed in this manner, till the whole province of Livonia, excepting Riga and Revel, had suffered the barbarities of this insulting conqueror; but at last, in 1578, a body of forces was dispatched into the province, the towns of Wender and Dunnenburg were surprised, and an army sent by the czar to surprise the former was defeated.

84 Siege of Peolocz.

At this time the Muscovites were not the only enemies who opposed the king of Poland, and oppressed Livonia. That unhappy province was also invaded by the Swedes, who professed themselves to be enemies equally to both parties, and who were scarce inferior in cruelty to the Russians themselves. The king, however, was not daunted by the number of his adversaries; but having made great preparations, and called to his assistance Christopher prince of Transylvania, with all the standing forces of that country, he took the field in person against the Muscovites, and laid siege to Polocz, a town of great importance situated on the river Dwina. The Russians no sooner heard of the approach of the Polish army, than they resolved to put all the citizens to death, thinking by this means to strike terror into the enemy. When Batori came near the town, the most shocking spectacle presented itself; the river appeared dyed with blood, and a vast number of human bodies fastened to planks, and terribly mangled, were carried down its stream. This barbarity, instead of intimidating the Poles, irritated them to such a degree, that nothing could resist them. Finding that their cannon made little impression upon the walls of the city, which were constructed of wood, they advanced to the assault with burning torches in their hands; and would soon have reduced the fortifications to ashes, had not a violent storm of rain prevented them. The design, however, was put in execution as soon as the rain slackened; and the barbarous Russians were obliged to surrender at discretion. It reflects the highest honour on Batori, that, notwithstanding the dreadful instances of

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cruelty which he had before his eyes, he would not suffer his soldiers to retaliate. Indeed the cruelties committed by the Russians on this occasion, seem almost to have authorised any revenge that could possibly have been taken. A number of Germans were found in the city, some expiring under the most dreadful tortures, and others dead of pains which nature could no longer support. Several of the officers had been dipped in cauldrons of boiling oil, with a cord drawn under the skin of the umbilical region, which fastened their hands behind; in which situation their eyes had been torn out from their sockets, or burnt with red-hot irons, and their faces otherwise terribly mangled. The disfigured carcases, indeed, plainly showed the barbarous treatment they had met with; and the dreadful tale was confirmed by the testimony of the few who survived. The Polish soldiers were exasperated almost to madness; so that scarce all the authority of Batori could restrain them from cutting in pieces the wretches who had been the authors of such a dreadful tragedy.

85 Monstrous barbarities committed by the Russians in that city.

86 Russia ravaged by Batori.

After the reduction of Polocz, Batori continued the war with great success. Two detachments from the army penetrated the enemy's country by different roads, wasted all before them to the gates of Smolensko, and returned with the spoils of 2000 villages which they had pillaged and destroyed. In the mean time the Swedes and Poles thought proper to come to an accommodation: and though John king of Sweden was at that time prevented from bearing his share of the war, yet Batori reduced such a number of cities, and committed such devastations in the Russian territories, that the Czar was obliged to sue for peace; which he obtained, on condition of relinquishing Livonia, after having thrown away the lives of more than 400,000 of his subjects in attempting to conquer it.

87 The Czar sues for peace.

Batori, being thus freed from a most destructive and cruel war, applied himself to the internal government of his kingdom. He regulated the Polish cavalry in such a manner, as made them become formidable to the Turks and other neighbouring nations: and this is the military establishment to which the Poles have given the name of *quartienne*; because a fourth part of the revenue is employed in supporting them. Batori sent this body of cavalry towards the frontiers of Tartary, to check the incursions of those barbarians; by which means the Ukraine, a vast tract of desart country, was filled with flourishing towns and villages, and became a strong barrier against the Turks, Tartars, and Russians. The last memorable action of Batori was his attaching the Cossacks * to Poland, civilizing and instructing them in the arts of war and peace. His first endeavour was to gain their affections by his liberality; for which purpose, he presented them with the city of Techtemeravia, situated on the Boristhenes, which they formed into a magazine and made the residence of their chieftains. He gave them officers of all degrees, established discipline among them, altered their arms, and formed them into a regular militia, which afterwards performed eminent services to the state. All kinds of manufactures, at that time known in Poland, were likewise established among the Cossacks; the women were employed in spinning and weaving woolen cloths, while the men were taught agriculture, and other arts proper for their sex.

88 Batori civilizes the Cossacks.

While Batori was employed in this manner, the Swedes broke the convention into which they had entered with Poland, and were on the point of getting possession of Riga. To this, indeed, Batori himself had given occasion, by attempting to impose the Romish religion upon the inhabitants, after having promised them entire liberty of conscience. This so irritated them, that they revolted, and were on the point of admitting a Swedish garrison into the city, when the king was informed of what was going forward. Upon this he resolved to take a most exemplary vengeance on the inhabitants of Riga; but before he could execute his intention, he died in the year 1586, the 54th of his age, and 10th of his reign.

89 His death.

The death of Batori involved Poland in fresh troubles. Four candidates appeared for the crown, viz. the princes Ernest and Maximilian of the house of Austria; Sigismund, prince of Sweden; and Theodore czar of Muscovy. Each of these had a separate party; but Sigismund and Maximilian managed matters so well, that in 1587 both of them were elected. The consequence of this was a civil war; in which Maximilian was defeated and taken prisoner: and thus Sigismund III. surnamed *De Vasa*, became master of the throne of Poland without opposition. He waged a successful war with the Tartars, and was otherwise prosperous; but though he succeeded to the crown of Sweden, he found it impossible for him to retain both kingdoms, and he was formally deposed from the Swedish throne. In 1610 he conquered Russia, and placed his son on the throne; but the Polish conquests of that country have always been but for a short time. Accordingly the young prince was soon after deposed; and the Russians not only regained their liberty, but began to make encroachments on Poland itself. A very unfortunate war also took place with Sweden, which was now governed by the Great Gustavus Adolphus; the particulars of which, with the other exploits of that renowned warrior, are related under the article SWEDEN. At last Sigismund, worn out with cares and misfortunes, died in 1629.

90 War with Gustavus Adolphus.

After Sigismund's death, the affairs of Poland seemed to revive a little under Uladislaus VII.; for he obliged the Russians to sue for peace, and Sweden to restore some of her conquests: but having attempted to abridge the liberty of the Cossacks, they revolted, and gave the Poles several terrible defeats. Nor was the war terminated in the lifetime of Uladislaus, who died in 1648. His successor, John Cassimir, concluded a peace with these dangerous enemies: but the war was soon after renewed; and while the kingdom was distracted between these enemies and the discontents of its own inhabitants, the Russians took the opportunity of invading and pillaging Lithuania. In a little after, the whole kingdom was subdued by Charles Gustavus, successor to Christina queen of Sweden.

91 Poland subdued by Charles Gustavus.

Happily for Poland, however, a rupture took place between the courts of Sweden and Copenhagen; by which means the Poles were enabled to drive out the Swedes in 1657. This was succeeded by civil wars and contests with Russia; which so much vexed the king, that he resigned the crown in 1668.

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For two years after the resignation of Casimir, the kingdom was filled with confusion; but on the 17th of September 1670, one Michael Coribut Wiesnowiski, collaterally descended from the house of Jagello, but in a very mean situation at that time, was chosen king. His reign continued but for three years; during which time, John Sobieski, a celebrated Polish general, gave the Turks a dreadful overthrow, tho' their army consisted of more than 300,000 men; and had this blow been pursued, the Cossacks would have been entirely subdued, and very advantageous terms might have been obtained from the Sultan. Of that vast multitude of Turks, no more than 15,000 made their escape, the rest being all either killed or taken: however, the Polish soldiers being bound by the laws of their country only to stay a certain time in the field, they refused to pursue this signal victory, and suffered the king to make peace on any terms he could procure.

92 John Sobieski retrieves the Polish affairs.

Wiesnowiski died before the news of this transaction reached Cracow; and after his death, a new scene of confusion ensued, till at last the fortune of John Sobieski prevailed, and he was elected king of Poland in 1674. He was a most magnanimous and heroic prince; who, by his valour and good conduct, retrieved the affairs of Poland, and entirely checked the progress of the Turks westward. These Barbarians were every where defeated, as is particularly related under the article TURKY; but notwithstanding his great qualities, Poland was now so thoroughly corrupted, and pervaded by a spirit of disaffection, that the latter part of this monarch's reign was involved in troubles, through the ambition and contention of some powerful noblemen.

Sobieski died in 1696; and with him fell the glory of Poland. Most violent contests took place about the succession; the recital of which would far exceed our limits. At last Frederic Augustus, elector of Saxony, prevailed; but yet, as some of the most essential ceremonies were wanting in his coronation, because the primate, who was in an opposite interest, would not perform them, he found it extremely difficult to keep his subjects in proper obedience. To add to his misfortunes, having engaged in a league with Denmark and Russia against Sweden, he was attacked with irresistible fury by Charles XII. Though Augustus had not been betrayed, as indeed he almost always was, he was by no means a match for the ferocious Swede. The particulars of this war, however, as they make great part of the exploits of that northern hero, more properly fall to be related under the article SWEDEN. Here, therefore, we shall only observe, that Augustus was reduced to the humiliating necessity of renouncing the crown of Poland on oath, and even of congratulating his rival Stanislaus upon his accession to the throne: but when the power of Charles was broken by his defeat at Pultowa, the fortune of Augustus again prevailed; Stanislaus was driven out; and the former being absolved from his oath by the Pope, resumed the throne of Poland.

93 Poland conquered by Charles XII.

94 History since that time.

Since that time the Polish nation hath never made any figure. Surrounded by great and ambitious powers, it hath sunk under the degeneracy of its inhabitants; so that it now scarce exists as a nation. This catastrophe took place in the following manner:

On the 5th of October 1763, died Augustus III. elector of Saxony, and king of Poland. He was succeeded by count Poniatowski, a Polish grandee, who was proclaimed September 7th 1764, by the name of *Stanislaus Augustus*, and crowned on the 25th of November the same year.—During the interregnum which took place between the death of Augustus III. and the election of Stanislaus, a decree had been made by the convocation-diet of Poland, with regard to the *dissidents*, as they were called, or dissenters from the Popish religion. By this decree they were prohibited from the free exercise of their religion, much more than they had formerly been, and totally excluded from all posts and places under the government. On this several of the European powers interposed, at the application of the diffidents, for their good offices. The courts of Russia, Prussia, Great Britain, and Denmark, made remonstrances to the diet; but, notwithstanding these remonstrances, the decree was confirmed by the coronation-diet held after the king's election.

October 6. 1766, an ordinary diet was assembled. Here declarations from the courts above mentioned were presented to his Polish majesty, requiring the reestablishment of the diffidents in their civil rights and privileges, and the peaceable enjoyment of their modes of worship secured to them by the laws of the kingdom which had been observed for two centuries. These privileges, it was alleged, had been confirmed by the treaty of Oliva, concluded by all the Northern powers, which could not be altered but by the consent of all the contracting parties. The Popish party contended strongly for a confirmation of some decrees made against the diffidents in 1717, 1723, and 1736. The deputies from the foreign powers replied, that those decrees had passed in the midst of intestine troubles, and were contradicted by the formal protestations and express declarations of foreign powers. At last, after violent contests, the matter was referred to the bishops and senators for their opinion. Upon a report from them, the diet came to a resolution, That they would fully maintain the diffidents in all the rights and prerogatives to which they were intitled by the laws of their country, particularly by the constitutions of the year 1717, &c. and by treaties; and that as to their complaints with regard to the exercise of their religion, the college of archbishops and bishops, under the direction of the prince primate, would endeavour to remove those difficulties in a manner conformable to justice and neighbourly love.—By this time, however, the court of Russia seemed determined to make her remonstrances more effectual, and a small body of Russian troops marched to within two miles of the capital of Poland.

These resolutions of the diet were by no means agreeable to the diffidents. They dated the beginning of their sufferings from the year 1717. The referring their grievances to the archbishops and bishops was looked upon as a measure the most unreasonable that could be imagined, as that body of men had always been their oppofers, and in fact the authors of all the evils which had befallen them.—Shortly after matters were considered in this view, an additional body of Russians, to the number of about 15,000, entered Poland.

The diffidents, being now pretty sure of the protection of foreign powers, entered, on the 20th of March 1767,

Poland. 1767, into two confederacies, at Thorn and Sluck. One of them was signed by the diſſidents of Great and Little Poland, and the other by thoſe of the Great Duchy of Lithuania. The purport of theſe confederacies was, an engagement to exert themſelves in the defence of their ancient privileges, and the free exerciſe of their religion; profeſſing, at the ſame time, however, the utmoſt loyalty to the king, and reſolving to ſend a deputation to him to implore his protection. They even invited thoſe of the Catholic communion, and all true patriots, to unite with them in maintaining the fundamental laws of the kingdom, the peace of religion, and the right of each one jointly with themſelves. They claimed, by virtue of public treaties, the protection of the powers who were guarantees of their rights and liberties; namely, the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the kings of Sweden, Great Britain, Denmark, and Pruſſia. Laſtly, they proteſted, that they had no intention of acting to the detriment of the Roman Catholic religion, which they duly reſpected; and only aſked the liberty of their own, and the re-eſtabliſhment of their ancient rights. The three cities of Thorn, Elbing, and Dantzick, acceded to the confederacy of Thorn on the 10th of April; as did the duke and nobles of Courland to that of Sluck on the 15th of May.

The empreſs of Ruſſia, and king of Pruſſia, in the mean time, continued to iſſue forth new declarations in favour of the diſſidents, and the Ruſſian troops in Poland were gradually augmented to 30,000 men. Great numbers of other confederacies were alſo formed in different parts of the kingdom. Theſe at firſt took little part in the affairs of the diſſidents: they complained only of the adminiſtration of public affairs, into which they alleged that innovations had been introduced, and were therefore for ſome time called *confederations of malcontents*. All theſe confederacies publiſhed manifeſtoes, in which they recommended to the inhabitants to quarter and treat the Ruſſian troops as the defenders of the Poliſh liberties.

The different confederacies of malcontents formed in the twenty-four diſtricts of Lithuania, united at Wilna on the 22d of June; and that general confederacy reeſtabliſhed prince Radzivil, who had married the king's ſiſter, in his liberty, eſtates, and honour, of which he had been deprived in 1764 by the ſtates of that duchy. On the 23d of June, prince Radzivil was choſen grand marſhal of the general confederacy of all Poland, which then began to be called the *national confederacy*, and was ſaid to be compoſed of 72,000 noblemen and gentlemen.

The general confederacy took ſuch meaſures as appeared moſt proper for ſtrengthening their party. They ſent to the ſeveral waywodies of the kingdom, requiring their compliance with the following articles: 1. That all the gentlemen who had not ſigned the confederacy ſhould do it immediately; 2. That all the courts of juſtice ſhould ſubſiſt as formerly, but not judge any of the confederates; 3. That the marſhals of the crown ſhould not paſs any ſentence without the participation of at leaſt four of the confederates; and, 4. That the marſhals of the crown and the treaſurers ſhould be immediately reſtored to the poſſeſſion of their reſpective rights. The Catholic party in the mean time were not idle. The biſhop of Cracow ſent a very pathetic and zealous letter to the dietines aſſembled at Warſaw on the 15th of Auguſt, in which he exhorted them to arm their nuncios with courage, by giving them orthodox and patriotic inſtructions, that they might not grant the diſſidents new advantages beyond thoſe which were ſecured to them by the conſtitutions of the country, and treaties with foreign powers, &c. The pope alſo ſent briefs to the king, the great chancellor, the nobleſſe, biſhops of the kingdom, and to the prince primate, with ſuch arguments and exhortations as were thought moſt proper to ward off the impending danger. Councils in the mean time were frequently held at the biſhop of Cracow's palace, where all the prelates at Warſaw aſſembled.

On the 26th of September 1767 the confederacy of diſſidents was united with the general confederacy of malcontents in the palace of prince Radzivil, who, on that occaſion, expreſſed great friendſhip for the diſſidents. In a few days after, the Ruſſian troops in the capital were reinforced, and a conſiderable body of them was poſted at about five miles diſtance.

On the 5th of October an extraordinary diet was held: but the affair of the diſſidents met with ſuch oppoſition, that it was thought neceſſary to adjourn the meeting till the 12th; during which interval, every expedient was uſed to gain over thoſe who oppoſed prince Radzivil's plan. This was, to appoint a commiſſion, furniſhed with full power to enter into conference with prince Repnin, the Ruſſian ambaſſador, concerning the affairs of the diſſidents. Notwithſtanding all the pains taken, however, the meeting of the 12th proved exceedingly tumultuous. The biſhops of Cracow and Kiow, with ſome other prelates, and ſeveral magnats, declared, that they would never conſent to the eſtabliſhment of ſuch a commiſſion; and at the ſame time ſpoke with more vehemence than ever againſt the pretenſions of the diſſidents. Some of the deputies anſwered with great warmth; which occaſioned ſuch animoſities, that the meeting was again adjourned till the 16th.

On the 13th the biſhops of Cracow and Kiow, the palatine of Cracow, and the ſtaroſte of Dolmſki, were carried off by Ruſſian detachments. The crime alleged againſt them, in a declaration publiſhed next day by prince Repnin, was, that they had been wanting in reſpect to the dignity of the empreſs of Ruſſia, by attacking the purity of her intentions towards the republic; though ſhe was reſolved to continue her protection and aſſiſtance to the general confederacy united for preſerving the liberties of Poland, and correcting all the abuſes which had been introduced into government, &c.

It was probably owing to this violent proceeding of the Ruſſians, that prince Radzivil's plan was at laſt adopted, and ſeveral new regulations were made in favour of the diſſidents. Theſe innovations, however, ſoon produced a civil war, which at laſt ended in the ruin of the kingdom. In the beginning of the year 1768, a new confederacy was formed in Podolia, a province bordering on Turky, which was afterwards called the *confederacy of Bar*. The intention of it was, to aboliſh, by force of arms, the new conſtitutions, particularly thoſe in favour of the diſſidents. The members of the new confederacy likewiſe expreſſed great reſentment againſt the carrying away of the biſhop of Cracow, &c. and ſtill detaining them in cuſtody.

Podolia

Poland. Podolia was reckoned the fittest place for the purpose of the confederates, as they imagined the Russians could not attack them there without giving umbrage to the Ottoman court. Similar confederacies, however, were quickly entered into throughout the kingdom: the clergy excited all ranks of men to exert themselves in defence of their religion; and so much were their exhortations regarded, that even the king's troops could not be trusted to act against these confederates. The empress of Russia threatened the new confederates as disturbers of the public tranquillity, and declared that her troops would act against them if they persisted. It was, however, some time before the Russian troops were considerably reinforced; nor did they at first seem inclined to act with the vigour which they might have exerted. A good many skirmishes soon happened between these two contending parties, in which the confederates were generally defeated. In one of these the latter being worsted, and hardly pressed, a number of them passed the Niester, and took refuge in Moldavia. This province had formerly belonged to Poland, but was now subject to the Grand Signior: the Russians, however, pursued their enemies into Moldavia; but in order to prevent any offence being taken by the Porte, prince Repnin wrote to the Russian resident at Constantinople, to intimate there, that the conduct of the Russian colonel who commanded the party was quite contrary to the orders of his court, and that therefore he would be turned out of his post.

Great cruelty in the mean time was exercised against the diffidents where there were no Russian troops to protect them. Towards the end of October 1769, prince Martin Lubomirski, one of the southern confederates, who had been driven out of Poland, and had taken shelter with some of his adherents among the mountains of Hungary, got a manifesto posted up on several of the churches of Cracow, in which he invited the nation to a general revolt, and assuring them of the assistance of the Ottoman Porte, with whom he pretended to have concluded a treaty. This was the beginning of hostilities between the Turks and Russians, which were not terminated but by a vast effusion of blood on both sides.

The unhappy kingdom of Poland was the first scene of this war, and in a short time was reduced to the most deplorable situation. In the end of the year 1768, the peasants of the Greek religion in the Polish Ukraine, and province of Kiow, took up arms, and committed the greatest ravages, having, as they pretended, been threatened with death by the confederates unless they would turn Roman Catholics. Against these insurgents the Russians employed their arms, and made great numbers of them prisoners. The rest took refuge among the Haidamacks; by whom they were soon joined, and in the beginning of 1769 entered the Ukraine in conjunction with them, committing every where the most horrid massacres. Here, however, they were at last defeated by the Polish troops, at the same time that several of the confederacies in Poland were severely chastised. Soon after, the Chan of the Crim Tartars, having been repulsed with loss in an attempt on New Servia, entered the Polish territories, where he left frightful marks of his inhumanity upon some innocent and defenceless persons. This latter piece of conduct, with the cruelties exercised by the confederates, induced the Polish cossacks of Braclau and Kiovia, amounting to near 30,000 effective men, to join the Russians, in order to defend their country against these destroyers. Matters continued much in the same way during the rest of the year 1769; and in 1770, skirmishes frequently happened between the Russians and confederates, in which the latter were almost always worsted; but they took care to revenge themselves by the most barbarous cruelties on the Dissidents, wherever they could find them. In 1770, a considerable number of the confederates of Bar, who had joined the Turks, and been excessively ill used by them, came to an accommodation with the Russians, who took them under their protection on very moderate terms.—Agriculture in the mean time had been so much neglected, that the crop of 1770 was very deficient. This encouraged a number of desperadoes to associate under the denomination of *confederates*, who were guilty of still greater excesses than those who had been under some kind of regulation. Thus a great part of the country was at last reduced to a mere desart, the inhabitants being either exterminated, or carried off to stock the remote Russian plantations, from whence they never could return.

In the year 1771, the confederacies, which seemed to have been extinguished, sprung up afresh, and increased to a prodigious degree. This was occasioned by their having been secretly encouraged and supplied with money by France. A great number of French officers engaged as volunteers in their service; who, having introduced discipline among their troops, they acted with much greater vigour than formerly, and sometimes proved too hard for their enemies. These gleams of success proved at last their total ruin. The Russians were reinforced, and properly supported. The Austrian and Prussian troops entered the country, and advanced on different other sides; and the confederates found themselves in a short time entirely surrounded by their enemies, who seemed to have nothing less in view than an absolute conquest of the country, and sharing it among themselves.

95 Attempt to assassinate the king in 1771.

Before matters came to this crisis, however, the confederates formed a design of assassinating the king, on account of his supposed attachment to the Dissidents. As he was returning to his palace at Warsaw, November 3. 1771, about nine in the evening, it being then very dark, and he not attended by his usual guards, the coach was suddenly attacked, at the corner of the street, by six men on horseback, the principal of whom was Koczinski, an officer among the confederates. They fired their carbines and pistols into the carriage; after which they dragged out the king, and carried him off. Soon after they were joined by 25 of their associates; and not only got clear of the city, but reached a place called *Willanow*, six or seven English miles distant from the capital. Mean time, however, the country was alarmed; cannon were repeatedly fired as signals; and parties of Russians, sent out in quest of the king, continually alarmed the conspirators with their shouts. At last Koczinski advised them to a separation, as the only probable means of escaping the Russians; and, his advice being complied with, he by this means got the king into his own power, and that of four others only. These companions he found means to get rid of, by sending them away

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away one by one to obſerve the motions of the purſuers. He then quitted the road, and diſmounted; and, throwing himſelf at the king's feet, implored his pardon, and offered to ſave his life. After this they marched an hour and a half on foot through diſmal woods and moraſſes, till they arrived at a hut; whence the king ſent to the Ruſſian general, and was conveyed to Warſaw early in the morning. He had received two wounds in his head, one from a ball, and the other from a ſabre; and his eſcaping with life may be conſidered as a very extraordinary event.

The affairs of this unhappy country continued for ſome time in the ſame miſerable way. Almoſt the whole of it was reduced to a mere deſart; at the ſame time that a treaty was talked of between the three powers, for dividing the whole kingdom among them. By this treaty, it was ſaid, that the Auſtrians were to have a great part of South Poland; the Ruſſians, the Poliſh Ukraine, and a part of the duchy of Lithuania; and the Pruſſians, that part called *Poliſh Pruſſia*.

96 The kingdom divided between the Ruſſians, Auſtrians, and Pruſſians.

A partition of this kind actually did take place. The king of Pruſſia, partly by treaty, and partly by encroachments, founded on antiquated claims and vague pretences, poſſeſſed himſelf of ſo much of the kingdom, that the court of Peterſburg thought proper to check his progreſs; the Auſtrians proceeded in the ſame manner; and at laſt the conſtitution of the kingdom was totally altered, by the appointing of a new aſſembly called *a permanent council*. This revolution took place on the 8th of Auguſt 1774. The council was compoſed of 40 members; and included three eſtates, the king, the ſenate, and the equeſtrian order. The members were to be choſen at the diets, by ballot, and their power to continue only from one diet to another. The king is always to be chief of the council; the ſenate to comprehend the great officers or miniſtry, and the members choſen from that body; and the equeſtrian order to be as nearly equal as the odd number 39 would permit. This council compoſes four particular departments: the firſt is to take cognizance of all thoſe concerns which uſually came before the marſhals of the crown, or of Lithuania; the ſecond is charged with whatever relates to the police, and all the inferior departments are to bring in their reports to it; the third comprehends the military, the whole immediate power of which is veſted in the grand general, under the obligation of bringing in all his reports and accounts at ſtated times to be examined; the fourth have the care of correſpondence with foreign powers. At this time alſo the revenues of the king, which before did not exceed L. 100,000, were now increaſed to three times that ſum. The republic likewiſe agreed to pay his debts, amounting to upwards of L. 400,000. It beſtowed on him alſo, in hereditary poſſeſſion, four ſtaroſties, or governments of caſtles, with the diſtricts belonging to them; and reimburſed him of the money he had laid out for the ſtate. It was alſo agreed, that the revenues of the republic ſhould be enhanced to 33 millions of florins (near two millions Sterling), and the army ſhould conſiſt of 30,000 men. Soon after the concluſion of the peace with Turky, the empreſs of Ruſſia alſo made the king a preſent of 250,000 rubles, as a compenſation for that part of his dominions which fell into her hands.

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97 Air, climate, &c. of Poland.

The air of this kingdom is cold in the north, but temperate in the other parts both in ſummer and winter, and the weather in both more ſettled than in many other countries. The face of the country is for the moſt part level, and the hills are but few. The Crapack or Carpathian mountains, ſeparate it from Hungary on the ſouth. The ſoil is very fruitful both in corn and paſturage, hemp and flax. Such is the luxuriance of the paſtures in Podolia, that it is ſaid one can hardly ſee the cattle that are grazing in the meadows. Vaſt quantitities of corn are yearly ſent down the Viſtula to Dantzic, from all parts of Poland, and bought up chiefly by the Dutch. The eaſtern part of the country is full of woods, foreſts, lakes, marſhes, and rivers; of the laſt of which, the moſt conſiderable in Poland are, the Viſtula, Nieper, Nieſter, Duna, Bog, Warta, and Memel. The metals found in this country are iron and lead, with ſome tin, gold, and ſilver; but there are no mines of the two laſt wrought at preſent. The other products of Poland are moſt ſorts of precious ſtones, oker of all kinds, fine rock-cryſtal; Muſcovy glaſs, talc, alum, ſaltpetre, amber, pitcoal, quickſilver, ſpar, ſal-gem, lapis calaminaris, and vitriol. In Leſſer Poland are ſalt-mines, which are the chief riches of the country, and bring moſt money into the exchequer. In the woods, which conſiſt moſtly of oak, beech, pine, and fir trees, beſides the more common wild beaſts, are elks, wild aſſes, wild oxen or uri, lynxes, wild horſes, wild ſheep with one horn, biſons, hyænas, wild goats, and buffaloes. In the meadows and fenny ground is gathered a kind of manna; and the kermes-berries produced in this country are uſed both in dying and medicine.

98 Different claſſes of inhabitants.

The inhabitants conſiſt of nobles, citizens, and peaſants. The firſt poſſeſs great privileges, which they enjoy partly by the indulgence of their kings, and partly by ancient cuſtom and preſcription. Some of them have the title of *prince*, *count*, or *baron*; but no ſuperiority or pre-eminence on that account over the reſt, which is only to be obtained by ſome public poſt or dignity. They have the power of life and death over their vaſſals; pay no taxes; are ſubject to none but the king; have a right to all mines and ſalt-works on their eſtates; to all offices and employments, civil, military, and eccleſiaſtic; cannot be cited or tried out of the kingdom; may chooſe whom they will for their king, and lay him under what reſtraints they pleaſe by the Pacta Conventa; and none but they and the burghers of ſome particular towns can purchaſe lands. In ſhort, they are almoſt entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges and prerogatives beſides thoſe we have ſpecified; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility.

99 Language.

The Poliſh tongue is a dialect of the Sclavonic: it is neither copious nor harmonious. Many of the words have not a ſingle vowel in them; but the High Dutch and Latin are underſtood and ſpoken pretty commonly, though incorrectly. The language in Lithuania differs much from that of the other provinces. True learning and the ſtudy of the arts and ſciences have been little attended to in Poland, till of late they began to be regarded with a more favourable eye, and to be not only patronized, but cultivated by ſeve-

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ral of the nobles and others, both laymen and ecclesiastics.

100 Archbishoprics, &c.

There are two archbishops in the kingdom, viz. those of Gnesna and Laopol, and about a dozen bishops. The archbishop of Gnesna is always a cardinal, and primate of the kingdom; of which, during an interregnum, and in the king's absence, he is also regent. The prevailing religion is Popery; but there are great numbers of Lutherans, Calvinists, Greeks, who are called *Dissidents*, and by the laws of the kingdom were intitled to toleration; but were much oppressed till very lately. The Jews are indulged with great privileges, and are very numerous in Poland; and in Lithuania, it is said, there are a multitude of Mahometan Tartars. We may judge of the numbers of Jews in this country by the produce of their annual poll-tax, which amounts to near 57,000 rixdollars.

101 Manufactures.

There are few or no manufactures in the kingdom, if we except some linen and woollen clothes and hardwares; and the whole trade is confined to the city of Dantzic, and other towns on the Vistula or Baltic.

102 Constitution.

The kings of Poland were anciently hereditary and absolute; but afterwards became elective and limited, as we find them at this day. In the reign of Lewis, towards the end of the 14th century, several limitations were laid on the royal prerogative. In that of Casimir IV. who ascended the throne in 1446, representatives from the several palatinates were first called to the diet; the legislate power, till then, having been lodged in the states, and the executive in the king and senate. On the decease of Sigismund Augustus, it was enacted by law, "That the choice of a king for the future should perpetually remain free and open to all the nobles of the kingdom;" which law has accordingly been hitherto observed. The king, in consequence, is elected by the clergy and gentry in the plains of Warsaw; and after his election is obliged to sign an instrument, by which his power is circumscribed within very narrow bounds; so that he is only a sort of president of the senate, which, in his absence, can meet and consult without him. The diets are either ordinary or extraordinary. The former meet every second year; the latter upon extraordinary occasions, when summoned by the king. They sit but six weeks; and one dissenting voice prevents their passing any laws, or coming to any resolution on what is proposed to them from the throne. The senate is composed of the primate, the archbishop of Lemberg, 15 bishops, 15 palatines and castellans, and 130 laymen, consisting of the great officers of state, the palatines, and castellans. Besides these officers, who are members of the senate, there are the starostas, who are a sort of governors and judges of their respective starosties or districts; but some of them have no jurisdiction. The palatines and castellans, besides being senators, are also a sort of lord-lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants in their respective palatinates. There are not only general diets, but also provincial diets, or dietines, held previous to the general diets. When the nobility enter into an association, either during an interregnum, or while the king is living, it is called a *confederacy*. Every third diet is held at Grodno, in Lithuania. Among the king's royal prerogatives the chief is, that he has the disposal of most of the dignities, offices, and the royal demesnes; but none of the officers are accountable to him, nor can they be displaced by him.

Poland, Polar.

103 Revenue.

The king's revenue is all clear to himself, for he pays no troops, not even his own guards: but all the forces are paid by the republic, as well as the officers of state. The public revenues arise chiefly from the crown-lands, the salt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow, ancient tolls and customs, particularly those of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirshau, and Rogenhus, and of the government of Cracow and district of Niepoliomicz.

104 Order of knighthood.

The order of the White Eagle was instituted by Augustus II. in the year 1705. Its ensign is a cross of gold enamelled with red, and appendant to a blue ribbon. The motto, *Pro fide, rege, et lege.*

105 Forces.

The standing forces of Poland are divided into the crown-army, and that of Lithuania, consisting of horse and foot, and amounting to between 20,000 and 30,000 men. These troops are mostly cantoned on the crown-lands, and in Poland are paid by a capitation or poll-tax; but in Lithuania other taxes are levied for this purpose. Most of the foot are Germans. On any sudden and imminent danger, the whole body of the nobility, with their vassals, are obliged to appear in the field on horseback; and the cities and towns furnish a certain number of foot-soldiers, with carriages, and military stores: but for want of proper arms, provisions, subordination, and discipline, and by being at liberty after a few weeks to return home, this body has proved but of little advantage to the republic. Dantzic is the only place in the Polish dominions that deserves the name of a fortress. Foreign auxiliaries are not to be brought into the kingdom, nor the national troops to march out of it, without the consent of the states.

With regard to many of these particulars, however, it is to be observed, that we can speak only as they were before the partition-treaty between the powers abovementioned. Since that time a very considerable alteration must have taken place in many parts of the constitution; but the particulars have not yet been properly authenticated.

106 Character of the people.

The Poles are personable men, and have good complexions. They are esteemest a brave, honest people, without dissimulation, and exceeding hospitable. They clothe themselves in furs in winter, and over all they throw a short cloak. No people keep grander equipages than the gentry. They look upon themselves as so many sovereign princes; and have their guards, bands of music, and keep open houses: but the lower sort of people are poor abject wretches, in the lowest state of slavery. The exercises of the gentry are hunting, riding, dancing, vaulting, &c. They reside mostly upon their estates in the country; and maintain themselves and families by agriculture, breeding of bees, and grazing.

POLAR, in general, something relating to the poles of the world, or poles of the artificial globes.

Polar *Regions*, those parts of the world which lie near the north and south poles. See the article Pole.

PO-

Polarity, Pole.

POLARITY, the quality of a thing confidered as having poles, or a tendency to turn itfelf into one certain poſture; but chiefly ufed in ſpeaking of the magnet.

POLE (Reginald), cardinal, and archbiſhop of Canterbury, a younger ſon of Sir Rich. Pole, Lord Montague, was born at Stoverton caſtle, in Staffordſhire, in the year 1500. At ſeven years of age, he was ſent to a Carthuſian monaſtery at Shene, near Richmond in Surry; and thence, when he was about 12 years old, removed to Magdalen college in Oxford, where, by the inſtructions of the celebrated Lineacre and Latimer, he made conſiderable progreſs in learning. In 1515 he took the degree of bachelor of arts, and entered into deacon's orders ſome time after: in 1517, he was made prebendary of Saliſbury, and in 1519 dean of Wimborne and dean of Exeter. We are not ſurpriſed at this young nobleman's early preferments, when we conſider him as the kinſman of Henry VIII. and that he was bred to the church by the king's ſpecial command.

Being now about the age of 19, he was ſent, according to the faſhion of the times, to finiſh his ſtudies at Padua in Italy, where he reſided ſome time in great ſplendor, having a handſome penſion from the king. He returned to England in 1525, where he was moſt graciouſly received at court, and univerſally admired for his talents and addreſs; but preferring ſtudy and ſequeſtration to the pleaſures of a court, he retired to the Carthuſian convent at Shene, where he had continued about two years, when the pious king began to divulge his ſcruples of conſcience concerning his marriage with Catherine of Spain. Pole foreſaw that this affair would neceſſarily involve him in difficulties; he therefore determined to quit the kingdom, and accordingly obtained leave to viſit Paris. Having thus avoided the ſtorm for the preſent, he returned once more to his convent at Shene; but his tranquillity was again interrupted by the king's reſolution to ſhake off the pope's ſupremacy, of which Pole's approbation was thought indiſpenſably neceſſary. How he managed in this affair, is not very clear. However, he obtained leave to reviſit Italy, and his penſion was continued for ſome time.

The king, having now divorced queen Catharine, married Anne Boleyn, and being reſolved to throw off the papal yoke, ordered Dr Richard Sampſon to write a book in juſtification of his proceedings, which he ſent to Pole for his opinion. To this Pole, ſecure in the pope's protection, wrote a ſcurrilous anſwer, entitled *Pro Unitate Eccleſiaſtica*, and ſent it to the king; who was ſo offended with the contents, that he withdrew his penſion, ſtripped him of all his preferments, and procured an act of attainder to be paſſed againſt him. In the mean time, Pole was created a cardinal, and ſent nuncio to different parts of Europe. King Henry made ſeveral attempts to have him ſecured and brought to England, but without effect. At length the pope fixed him as legate at Viterbo, where he continued till the year 1543, when he was appointed legate at the council of Trent, and was afterwards employed by the pope as his chief counſellor.

Pope Paul III. dying in 1549, Pole was twice elected his ſucceſſor, and, we are told, twice refuſed the papal dignity: firſt, becauſe the election was made in too great haſte; and the ſecond time, becauſe it was done in the night. This delicacy in a cardinal is truly wonderful: but the intrigues of the French party ſeem to have been the real cauſe of his miſcarriage; they ſtarted many objections to Pole, and by that means gained time to procure a majority againſt him. Cardinal Maria de Monte obtained the triple crown; and Pole, having kiſſed his ſlipper, retired to the convent of Magazune near Verona, where he continued till the death of Edward VI. in the year 1553. On the acceſſion of queen Mary, Pole was ſent legate to England, where he was received by her majeſty with great veneration, and conducted to the archbiſhop's palace at Lambeth, poor Cranmer being at that time priſoner in the Tower. He immediately appeared in the houſe of lords, where he made a long ſpeech; which being reported to the commons by their ſpeaker, both theſe obſequious houſes concurred in an humble ſupplication to be reconciled to the ſee of Rome. They preſented it on their knees to her majeſty, who interceded with the cardinal, and he graciouſly condeſcended to give them abſolution. This buſineſs being over, the legate made his public entry into London, and immediately ſet about the extirpation of hereſy. The day after the execution of Cranmer, which he is ſaid to have adviſed, he was conſecrated archbiſhop of Canterbury. In the ſame year, 1556, he was elected chancellor of the univerſity of Oxford, and ſoon after of Cambridge; both which he viſited, by his commiſſioners, with great inhumanity. He died of a double quartan ague in the year 1558, about 16 hours after the death of the queen; and was buried in the cathedral of Canterbury.

As to his character, the Romiſh writers aſcribe to him every virtue under heaven: even biſhop Burnet is extremely laviſh in his praiſe, and attributes the cruelties of Mary's reign to the advice of Gardiner. But, notwithſtanding the apparent mildneſs in Pole's diſpoſition, when we conſider him as an abject ſlave to the ſee of Rome, and the chief counſellor and confident of queen Mary, it is irrational to acquit him of the diabolical cruelties which ſo eminently ſtigmatiſe the reign of that princeſs.—He wrote, *Pro unitate eccleſiaſtica*, *De ejuſdem poteſtate*, A treatiſe on juſtification, and various other tracts.

Pole.

POLE, in aſtronomy, that point in the heavens round which the whole ſphere ſeems to turn. It is alſo uſed for a point directly perpendicular to the centre of any circle's plane, and diſtant from it by the length of a radius.

POLE, in geography, one of the points on which the terraqueous globe turns; each of them being 90 degrees diſtant from the equator, and, in conſequence of their ſituation, the inclination of the earth's axis, and its parallelliſm during the annual motion of our globe round the ſun, having only one day and one night throughout the year.

By reaſon of the obliquity with which the rays of the ſun fall upon the polar regions, and the great length of the night in the winter time, the cold is ſo intenſe, that thoſe parts of the globe which lie near the poles have never been fully explored, though the attempt has been repeatedly made by the moſt celebrated navigators. Indeed their attempts have chiefly been confined to the northern regions; for with regard to the ſouth pole, there is not the ſame incitement to attempt it. The great object for which navigators have

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have ventured themſelves in theſe frozen ſeas, was to find out a more quick and ready paſſage to the Eaſt Indies; and this hath been attempted three ſeveral ways: one by coaſting along the northern parts of Europe and Aſia, called the *north-eaſt paſſage*; another, by ſailing round the northern part of the American continent, called the *north-weſt paſſage*; and the third, by ſailing directly over the pole itſelf.

1. Attempts to find out the north-eaſt paſſage.

1. The poſſibility of ſucceeding in the north-eaſt paſſage was for a long time believed; and in the laſt century many navigators, Dutchmen particularly, attempted it with great fortitude and perſeverance. It was always found impoſſible, however, to ſurmount the obſtacles which nature had thrown in the way, and ſubſequent attempts have in a manner demonſtrated the impoſſibility of ever ſailing eaſtward along the northern coaſt of Aſia. The reaſon of this impoſſibility has been aſſigned under the article AMERICA; where, ſpeaking of the difference between the climates of continents and iſlands, it has been ſhown, that in proportion to the extent of land, the cold is always greater in winter, and *vice verſa*. This is the caſe even in temperate climates; but much more ſo in thoſe frozen regions where the influence of the ſun, even in ſummer, is but ſmall. Hence, as the continent of Aſia extends a vaſt way from weſt to eaſt, and has beſides the continent of Europe joined to it on the weſt, it follows, that about the middle part of that tract of land the cold ſhould be greater than any where elſe. Experience has determined this to be fact; and it now appears, that about the middle part of the northern coaſt of Aſia, the ice never thaws; neither have even the hardy Ruſſians and Siberians themſelves been able to overcome the difficulties they met with in that part of their voyage. In order to make this the more plain, and the following accounts more intelligible, we ſhall obſerve, that from the north-weſtern extremity of Europe, called the *North Cape*, to the north-eaſtern extremity of Aſia, called the *promontory of the Tſchutſki*, is a ſpace including about 160 degrees of longitude, *viz.* from 40 to 200 eaſt from Ferro; the port of Archangel lies in about 57 degrees eaſt longitude, Nova Zembla between 70 and 95; which laſt is alſo the ſituation of the mouth of the great river Oby. Still farther eaſtward are the mouths of the rivers Jeniſey in 100°; Piaſida in 105°; Chatanga in 124°; Lena, which has many mouths, between 134° and 142°; Indigirka in 162°; and the Kovyma in 175. The coldeſt place in all this tract, therefore, ought to be that between the mouths of the Jeniſey and the Chatanga; and indeed here the unſurmountable difficulty has always been, as will appear from the following accounts of the voyages made by the Ruſſians with a view to diſcover the north-eaſt paſſage.

2. Why it is impoſſible to ſail eaſtward along the northern coaſt of Aſia.

3. Voyage of Morzovieff, &c.

In 1734, lieutenant Morzovieff ſailed from Archangel towards the river Oby, but could ſcarce advance 20 degrees of longitude during that ſeaſon. The next ſummer he paſſed through the ſtraits of Weygatz into the ſea of Kara; but did not double the promontory which ſeparates the ſea of Kara from the bay or mouth of Oby. In 1738, the lieutenants Malgyin and Shurakoff doubled that promontory with great difficulty, and entered the bay of Oby. Several unſucceſsful attempts were made to paſs from the bay of Oby to the Jeniſey; which was at laſt effected, in 1738, by two veſſels commanded by lieutenants Oſſzin and Koſkeleff. The ſame year the pilot Feodor Menin ſailed eaſtwards from the Jeniſey to the mouth of the Piaſida; but here he was ſtopped by the ice; and finding it impoſſible to force a paſſage, he returned to the Jeniſey.

4. Of Prontſhiſtcheff.

In July 1735, lieutenant Prontſhiſtcheff ſailed down the river Lena, in order to paſs by ſea to the mouth of the Jeniſey. The weſtern mouths of the Lena were ſo choaked up with ice, that he was obliged to paſs through the moſt eaſterly one; and was prevented by contrary winds from getting out till the 13th of Auguſt. Having ſteered north-weſt along the iſlands which lie ſcattered before the mouths of the Lena, he found himſelf in Lat. 70. 4.; yet even here he ſaw pieces of ice from 24 to 60 feet in height, and in no place was there a free channel left of greater breadth than 100 or 200 yards. His veſſel being much damaged, he entered the mouth of the Olenek, a ſmall river near the weſtern mouth of the Lena; and here he continued till the enſuing ſeaſon, when he got out in the beginning of Auguſt. But before he could reach the mouth of the Chatanga, he was ſo entirely ſurrounded and hemmed in with ice, that it was with the utmoſt difficulty he could get looſe. Obſerving then a large field of ice ſtretching into the ſea, he was obliged to ſail up the Chatanga. Getting free once more, he proceeded northward, doubled the cape called *Taimura*, and reached the bay of that name lying in about 115° eaſt from Ferro; from thence he attempted to proceed weſtward along the coaſt. Near the ſhore were ſeveral ſmall iſlands, between which and the ſhore the ice was immoveably fixed. He then directed his courſe towards the ſea, in order to paſs round the chain of iſlands. At firſt he found the ſea more free to the north of theſe iſlands, but obſerved much ice lying between them. At laſt he arrived at what he took to be the laſt of the iſlands, lying in lat. 77. 25. Between this iſland and the ſhore, as well as on the other ſide of the iſland which lay moſt to the north, the ice was firm and immoveable. He attempted, however, to ſteer ſtill more to the north; and having advanced about ſix miles, he was prevented by a thick fog from proceeding: this fog being diſperſed, he ſaw nothing every where but ice, which at laſt drove him eaſtward, and with much danger and difficulty he got to the mouth of the Olenek on the 29th of Auguſt.

5. Of Chariton Laptieff.

Another attempt to paſs by ſea from the Lena to the Jeniſey was made in 1739 by Chariton Laptieff, but with no better ſucceſs than that juſt mentioned. This voyager relates, that between the rivers Piaſida and Taimura, a promontory ſtretches into the ſea, which he could not double, the ſea being entirely frozen up before he could paſs round.

6. Mr Coxe's obſervations.

Beſides the Ruſſians, it is certain that ſome Engliſh and Dutch veſſels have paſſed the iſland of Nova Zembla into the ſea of Kara: "But (ſays Mr Coxe in his Account of the Ruſſian voyages) no veſſel of any nation has ever paſſed round that cape which extends to the north of the Piaſida, and is laid down in the Ruſſian charts in about 78° lat. We have already ſeen that no Ruſſian veſſel has ever got from the Piaſida to the Chatanga, or from the Chatanga to the Piaſida; and yet ſome authors have poſitively aſſerted that this promontory has been ſailed round. In order therefore to elude the Ruſſian accounts, which clearly aſſert the contrary,

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contrary, it is pretended that Gmelin and Muller have purposely concealed some parts of the Russian journals, and have imposed on the world by a misrepresentation of facts. But without entering into any dispute upon this head, I can venture to affirm, that no sufficient proof has been as yet advanced in support of this assertion; and therefore, until some positive information shall be produced, we cannot deny plain facts, or give the preference to hearsay evidence over circumstantial and well attested accounts."

7 Of the navigation from the Lena to Kamtschatka.

The other part of this north-east passage, *viz.* from the Lena to Kamtschatka, though sufficiently difficult and dangerous, is yet practicable; as having been once performed, if we may believe the accounts of the Russians. According to some authors indeed, says Mr Coxe, this navigation has been open a century and an half; and several vessels at different times have passed round the north-eastern extremity of Asia. But if we consult the Russian accounts, we shall find that frequent expeditions have been unquestionably made from the Lena to the Kovyma, but that the voyage from the Kovyma round Tschutskoi Nos into the Eastern Ocean has been performed but once. According to Mr Muller, this formidable cape was doubled in the year 1648. The material incidents of this remarkable voyage are as follow.

8 Voyage of Deshneff, Ankudinoff &c.

"In 1648 seven kotches, or vessels, sailed from the mouth of the river Kovyma, in order to penetrate into the Eastern Ocean. Of these, four were never more heard of: the remaining three were commanded by Simon Deshneff, Gerasim Ankudinoff, and Fedot Alexeeff. Deshneff and Ankudinoff quarrelled before their departure concerning the division of profits and honours to be acquired by their voyage; which, however, was not so easily accomplished as they had imagined. Yet Deshneff in his memorials makes no mention of obstructions from the ice, nor probably did he meet with any; for he takes notice that the sea is not every year so free from ice as it was at that time. The vessels failed from the Kovyma on the 20th of June, and in September they reached the promontory of the Tschutski, where Ankudinoff's vessel was wrecked, and the crew distributed among the other two. Soon after this the two vessels lost sight of each other, and never joined again. Deshneff was driven about by tempestuous winds till October, when he was shipwrecked considerably to the south of the Anadyr. Having at last reached that river, he formed a scheme of returning by the same way that he had come, but never made the attempt. As for Alexeeff, after being also shipwrecked, he had died of the scurvy, together with Ankudinoff; part of the crew were killed by the savages; and a few escaped to Kamtschatka, where they settled.

From the voyage lately undertaken by Captain Cook towards the north-eastern parts of Asia, it appears, that it is possible to double the Promontory of Tschutschki without any great difficulty: and it now appears, that the continents of Asia and America are separated from one another but by a narrow strait, which is free from ice; but, to the northwards, that experienced navigator was every where stopped by ice in the month of August, so that he could neither trace the American continent farther than to the latitude of 70°, nor reach the mouth of the river Kovyma on the Asiatic continent; though it is probable that this might have been done at another time when the situation of the ice was altered either by winds or currents.

9 Insurmountable obstacles in the north-east passage.

On the whole, therefore, it appears, that the unsurmountable obstacle in the north-east passage lies between the rivers Piasida and Chatanga; and unless there be in that space a connection between the Asiatic and American continents, there is not in any other part. Ice, however, is as effectual an obstruction as land; and though the voyage were to be made by accident for once, it never could be esteemed a passage calculated for the purposes of trade, or any other beneficial purpose whatever.

10 Of the north-west passage.

2. With regard to the north-west passage, the same difficulties occur as in the other. Captain Cook's voyage has now assured us, that if there is any strait which divides the continent of America into two, it must lie in a higher latitude than 70°, and consequently be perpetually frozen up. If a north-west passage can be found then, it must be by failing round the whole American continent, instead of seaking a passage through it, which some have supposed to exist in the bottom of Baffin's Bay. But the extent of the American continent to the northward is yet unknown; and there is a possibility of its being joined to that part of Asia between the Piasida and Chatanga, which has never yet been circumnavigated. It remains therefore to consider whether there is any possibility of attaining the wished for passage by sailing directly north, between the eastern and western continents.

11 Barrington's arguments in favour of a possibility of reaching the pole.

3. The practicability of this method, which would lead directly to the pole itself, has been very ingeniously supported by the Hon. Daines Barrington, in some tracts published in the years 1775 and 1776, in consequence of the unsuccessful attempts made by captain Phipps, now lord Mulgrave, to reach a higher northern latitude than 81, as was the case in 1773, in the voyage undertaken by his majesty's command.—He instances a great number of navigators who have reached very high northern latitudes; nay, some who have been at the pole itself, or gone beyond it.—These instances are, 1. One captain Thomas Roberson assured our author that he had been in latitude $82\frac{1}{2}$, that the sea was open, and he was certain that he could have reached the latitude of 83°.—2. From the testimony of captain Cheyne, who gave answers to certain queries drawn up by Mr Dalrymple concerning the polar seas, it appears that he had been in the latitude of 82°.—3. One Mr Watt informed our author, that when he was 17 years of age, at that time making his first voyage with captain M'Callam, a bold and skilful navigator, who commanded a Scots whale-fishing ship, as during the time that the whales are supposed to copulate no fishing can be carried on, the captain resolved to employ that interval in attempting to reach the north pole. He accordingly proceeded without the least obstruction to $83\frac{1}{2}$, when the sea was not only open to the northward, but they had seen no ice for the last three degrees; but while he still advanced, the mate complained that the compass was not steady, and the captain was obliged with reluctance to give over his attempt. 4. Dr Campbell, the continuator of Harris's voyages, informed Mr Barrington, that Dr Dallie, a native of Holland, being in his youth aboard a Dutch ship of war which at that time was usually sent to superintend the Greenland fishery, the captain

Pole. captain determined, like the Scotſman above-mentioned, to make an attempt to reach the pole during the interval between the firſt and ſecond fiſheries. He penetrated, according to the beſt of Dr Campbell's recollection, as far as 88°; when the weather was warm, the ſea free from ice, and rolling like the bay of Biſcay. Dallie now preſſed the captain to proceed: but he anſwered, that he had already gone too far, and ſhould be blamed in Holland for neglecting his ſtation; upon which account he would ſuffer no journal to be kept, but returned as ſoon as poſſible to Spitzbergen. 5. In the year 1662-3, Mr Oldenburg, then ſecretary of the royal ſociety, was ordered to regiſter a paper intitled "Several inquiries concerning Greenland, anſwered by Mr Gray, who had viſited theſe parts." The 19th of theſe queries is the following: How near hath any one been known to approach the pole?—The anſwer is, "I once met, upon the coaſt of Greenland, a Hollander that ſwore he had been half a degree from the pole, ſhewing me his journal which was alſo atteſted by his mate; where they had ſeen no ice or land, but all water." 6. In captain Wood's account of a voyage in queſt of the north-eaſt paſſage, we have the following account of a Dutch ſhip which reached the latitude of 89. "Captain Goulden, who had made above 30 voyages to Greenland, did relate to his majeſty, that being at Greenland ſome 20 years before, he was in company with two Hollanders to the eaſtward of Edge's iſland; and that the whales not appearing on the ſhore, the Hollanders were determined to go further northward; and in a fortnight's time returned, and gave it out that they had ſailed into the latitude 89, and that they did not meet with any ice, but a free and open ſea, and that there run a very hollow *growin* ſea like that of the Bay of Biſcay. Mr Goulden being not ſatiſfied with the bare relation, they produced him four journals out of the two ſhips, which teſtified the fame, and that they all agreed within four minutes." 7. In the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1675 we have the following paſſage: "For it is well known to all that ſail northward, that moſt of the northern coaſts are frozen up for many leagues, though in the open ſea it is not ſo, *no nor under the pole itſelf*, unleſs by accident." In which paſſage the having reached the pole is alluded to as a known fact, and as ſuch ſtated to the royal ſociety. 8. Mr Miller, in his Gardener's Dictionary, mentions the voyage of one captain Johnſon who reached 88 degrees of latitude. Mr Barrington was at pains to find a full account of this voyage; but met only with the following paſſage in Buffon's Natural Hiſtory, which he takes to be a confirmation of it. "I have been aſſured by perſons of credit, that an Engliſh captain, whoſe name was *Monſon*, inſtead of ſeeking a paſſage to China between the northern countries, had directed his courſe to the pole, and had approached it within two degrees, where there was an open ſea, without any ice." Here he thinks that Mr Buffon has miſtaken Johnſon for Monſon. 9. A map of the northern hemiſphere, publiſhed at Berlin (under the direction of the Academy of Sciences and Belles Letters) places a ſhip at the pole, as having arrived there according to the Duch accounts. 10. Moxon, hydrographer to Charles II. gives an account of a Duch ſhip having been two degrees beyond the pole, which was much relied on by Wood.

Beſides theſe, there are a great number of other teſtimonies of ſhips which have reached the latitude of 82, 83, 84, &c.; from all which our author concludes, that if the voyage is attempted at a proper time of the year, there would not be any great difficulty of reaching the pole. Thoſe vaſt pieces of ice which commonly obſtruct the navigators, he thinks, proceed from the mouths of the great Aſiatic rivers which run northward into the frozen ocean, and are driven eaſtward and weſtward by the currents. But, though we ſhould ſuppoſe them to come directly from the pole, ſtill our author thinks that this affords an undeniable proof that the pole itſelf is free from ice; becauſe, when the pieces leaves it, and come to the ſouthward, it is impoſſible that they can at the ſame accumulate at the pole.

12 Why we cannot ſuppoſe the ſea all round the pole to be frozen.

The extreme cold of the winter air on the continents of Aſia and America has afforded room for ſuſpicion, that at the pole itſelf, and for ſeveral degrees to the ſouthward of it, the ſea muſt be frozen to a vaſt depth in one ſolid cake of ice; but this Mr Barrington refutes, from ſeveral conſiderations. In the firſt place, he ſays, that on ſuch a ſuppoſition, by the continual intenſity of the cold, and the accumulation of ſnow and frozen vapour, this cake of ice muſt have been increaſing in thickneſs ſince the creation, or at leaſt ſince the deluge; ſo that now it muſt be equal in height to the higheſt mountains in the world, and be viſible at a great diſtance. Beſides, the pieces broken off from the ſides of ſuch an immenſe mountain muſt be much thicker than any ice that is met with in the northern ocean; none of which is above two yards in height above the ſurface of the water, thoſe immenſe pieces called *ice-mountains* being always formed on land.

Again, the ſyſtem of nature is ſo formed, that all parts of the earth are expoſed for the ſame length of time, or nearly ſo, throughout the year to the rays of the ſun. But, by reaſon of the ſpheroidal figure of the terraqueous globe, the poles and polar regions enjoy the ſun ſomewhat longer than others; and hence the Dutch who wintered in Nova Zembla in 1672 ſaw the ſun a fortnight ſooner than they ought to have done by aſtronomical calculations. By reaſon of this flatneſs about the poles too, the ſun not only ſhines for a greater ſpace of time on theſe inhoſpitable regions, but with leſs obliquity in the ſummer-time, and hence the effect of his rays muſt be the greater. Now Mr Barrington conſiders it as an abſurd ſuppoſition, that this glorious luminary ſhould ſhine for ſix months on a cake of barren ice where there is neither animal nor vegetable. He ſays that the polar ſeas are aſſigned by nature as the habitation of the whales, the largeſt animals in the creation; but if the greateſt part of the polar ſeas are forever covered with an impenetrable cake of ice, theſe huge animals will be confined within very narrow bounds; for they cannot ſubſiſt without frequently coming to the top of the water to breathe.

13 Quantity of ice formed is not always in proportion to the degree of cold.

Laſtly, the quantity of water frozen by different degrees of cold, is by no means directly in proportion to the intenſity of the cold, but likewiſe to the duration of it. Thus, large bodies of water are never frozen in any temperature of ſhort duration, though ſhallow bodies often are. Our author obſerves, that as much

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much of a given mafs of water was frozen in five hours of a temperature 12° below the freezing point, as was frozen in one hour of the temperature 50° below it; and that long duration of the temperature between 20 and 32 is, with regard to the congelation of water, equivalent to intenfity of cold fuch as is marked 0 and below 0 in Fahreinheit, but of fhort duration.

14 Mr Forfter's arguments againft the poffibility of reaching the pole.

On the other hand, Mr Forfter, in his Obfervations, takes the contrary fide of the queftion with no little vehemence. "I know (fays he) that Mr de Buffon, Lomonofof, and Crantz, were of opinion that the ice found in the ocean, is formed near the lands, only from the frefh water and ice carried down into the fea by the many rivers in Siberia, Hudfon's Bay, &c.; and therefore, when we fell in with fuch quantities of ice in December 1772, I expected we fhould foon meet with the land from whence thefe ice maffes had been detached. But being difappointed in the difcovery of this land, though we penetrated beyond the 67° twice, and once beyond 71, fouth latitude, and having befides fome other doubts concerning the exiftence of the pretended fouthern continent, I thought it neceffary to inquire, what reafons chiefly induced the above authors to form the opinion that the ice floating in the ocean muft be formed near land, or that an Auftral land is abfolutely requifite for that purpofe; and having looked for their arguments, I find they amount chiefly to this: 'That the ice floating in the ocean is all frefh: that falt water does not freeze at all; or if it does, it contains briny particles. They infer from thence, that the ice in the ocean cannot be formed in the fea, far from any land; there muft therefore exift Auftral lands; becaufe, in order to form an idea of the original of the great ice-maffes agreeably to what is obferved in the northern hemifphere, they find that the firft point for fixing the high ice-iflands is the land, and fecondly that the great quantity of flat ice is brought down the rivers.' I have impartially and carefully confidered and examined thefe arguments, and compared every circumftance with what we faw in the high fouthern latitude, and with other known facts, and will here infert the refult of all my inquiries on this fubject.

"Firft, they obferve the ice floating in the ocean to yield, by melting, frefh water: which I believe to be true. However, hitherto it has by no means been generally allowed to be frefh; for Crantz fays expreffly, that 'the flat pieces (forming what they call the *ice-fields*) are falt, becaufe they were congealed from fea-water.' The ice taken up by us for watering the fhip was of all kinds, and nevertheleefs we found it conftantly frefh: Which proves, either that the principle of analogy cannot be applied indifcriminately in both hemifpheres; and that one thing may be true in the northern hemifphere, which is quite otherwife in the fouthern, from reafons not yet known or difcovered by us: or we muft think that Crantz and others are miftaken, who fuppofe the ice floating in the ocean to be falt.

"The next remark is, That falt water does not freeze at all; or if it does, it contains briny particles. Mr de Buffon tells us, 'that the fea between Nova Zembla and Spitzbergen under the 79° north latitude does not freeze, as it is there confiderably broad: and that it is not to be apprehended to find the fea frozen not even under the pole itfelf; for indeed there is no example of having ever found a fea wholly frozen over, and at a confiderable diftance from the fhores: that the only inftance of a fea entirely frozen is that of the Black Sea, which is narrow and not very falt, and receives a great many rivers coming from northern regions, and bringing down ice: that this fea therefore fometimes freezes to fuch a degree, that its whole furface is congealed to a confiderable thickneefs; and, if the hiftorians are to be credited, was frozen, in the reign of the emperor Conftantine Copronymus, thirty ells thick, not including twenty ells of fnow which was lying on the ice. This fact, continues M. de Buffon, feems to be exaggerated: but it is true however, that it freezes almoft every winter; whilft the high feas which are 1000 leagues nearer, towards the pole, do not freeze; which can have no other caufe than the difference in faltnefs and the little quantity of ice carried out by rivers, if compared to the enormous quantity of ice which the rivers convey into the Black Sea.' Mr de Buffon is not miftaken when he mentions that the Black Sea frequently freezes. Strabo informs us, that the people near the Bofphorus Cimmerius pafs this fea in carts from Panticapæum to Phanagorea; and that Neoptolemus, a general of Mithridates Eupator, won a battle with his cavalry on the ice, on the very fpot where he gained a naval victory in the fummer. Marcellinus Comes relates, that in the XIV Indiction, under the confulfhip of Vincentius and Fravita, in the year 401 after Chrift, the whole furface of the Pontus was covered with ice, and that the ice in fpring was carried through the Propontis, during thirty days, like mountains. Zonaras mentions the fea between Conftantinople and Scutari frozen to fuch a degree in the reign of Conftantine Copronymus, that even loaded carts paffed over it. The prince Demetrius Cantemir obferves, that in the year 1620-1, there happened fo intenfe a froft, that the people walked over the ice from Conftantinople to Ifkodar. All thefe inftances confirm Mr de Buffon's affertion. But as this great natural hiftorian fays that the Black Sea is the only inftance of a fea being entirely frozen (A), I muft beg leave to diffent from him; for it is equally well attefted, that the Baltic is fometimes entirely frozen, according to Caefar Schutz's account. In the year 1426, the winter was fo fevere, that people travelled over the ice acrofs the Baltic from Dantzick to Lubeck; and the fea was likewife paffable from Denmark to Mecklenburgh: and in the year 1459, the whole Baltic was entirely frozen, fo that perfons travelled, both on foot and on horfeback, over ice from Denmark to the Venedick Hanf-towns, called *Lubeck*, *Wifmar*, *Roftock*, and *Stralfund*, which had never happened before; people likewife travelled acrofs the Baltic over ice from Reval in Eftland to Denmark and to Sweden, and back

(A) In the year 860, the mediterranean was covered with ice, fo that people travelled in carts and horfes acrofs the Ionian Sea to Venice; (*Hermannus Contractus ap. Pifior. Script.* t. II. p. 236.) And in 1234, the Mediterranean was again thus frozen, that the Venetian merchants travelled over the ice with their merchandife to what place they chofe; *Matth. Paris*, p. 78.

Pole. back again, without the leaſt danger (B). But, according to Sæmund Frode, even the great German Ocean between Denmark and Norway was frozen in the year 1048, ſo that the wolves frequently ran over the ice from one country to the other. The great northern ocean is likewiſe moſt certainly ſometimes frozen to a great diſtance from any land. For Muller relates, that in the year 1715, a Coſſack called *Markoff*, with ſome other perſons, was ſent by the Ruſſian government to explore the north ſea; but finding it next to impoſſible to make any progreſs during ſummer, on account of the vaſt quantities of ice commonly filling this ocean, he at laſt determined to try the experiment during winter: he therefore took ſeveral ſledges drawn according to the cuſtom of the country by dogs, which commonly go about 80 or 100 werſts per day, 105 of which make a degree. And on March the 15th, Old Style, with this caravan of nine perſons, he left the ſhores of Siberia at the mouth of the river Yana, under the 71° of north latitude, and proceeded for ſeven days together northward, ſo that he had reached at leaſt the 77° or 78° north latitude, when he was ſtopped by the ice, which there began to appear in the ſhape of prodigious mountains. He climbed up to the top of ſome of theſe ice mountains: but ſeeing from thence no land, nor any thing except ice, as far as the eye could reach, and having beſides no more food for his dogs left, he thought it very neceſſary to return; which he with great difficulty performed, on April the 3d, as ſeveral of the dogs, which had periſhed for want, were employed to ſupport thoſe that remained alive. Theſe facts, I believe, will convince the unprejudiced reader, that there are other ſeas beſides the Black Sea, which really do freeze in winter, and that the ice carried down the rivers could not at leaſt freeze the German Ocean between Norway and Denmark, becauſe the rivers there are ſo ſmall, and bear a very inconſiderable proportion to the immenſe ocean, which according to experiments made by Mr Wilke is very ſalt, though near the land, in the Swediſh harbour of Landſcrona.

"Now, if ſix or ſeven degrees of latitude, containing from 360 to 420 ſea miles, are not to be reckoned a great diſtance from the land, I do not know in what manner to argue, becauſe no diſtance whatſoever will be reckoned far from any land. Nay, if the Coſſack Markoff, being mounted on one of the higheſt ice-mountains, may be allowed to ſee at leaſt to the diſtance of 20 leagues, the extent alluded to above muſt then be increaſed to 480 Engliſh ſea-miles; which certainly is very conſiderable, and makes it more than probable, that the ocean is frozen in winter, in high northern latitudes, even as far as the pole. Beſides, it invalidates the argument which theſe gentlemen wiſh to infer from thence, *that the ocean does not freeze in high latitudes, eſpecially where there is a conſiderably broad ſea;* for we have ſhown inſtances to the contrary. Pole.

"But M. de Buffon ſpeaks of ice carried down the rivers into the northern ocean, and forming there theſe immenſe quantities of ice. 'And in caſe, ſays he, we would ſuppoſe, againſt all probability, that at the pole it could be ſo cold as to congeal the ſurface of the ſea, it would remain equally incomprehenſible, how theſe enormous floating ice-maſſes could be formed, if they had not land for a point to fix on, and from whence they are ſevered by the heat of the ſun. The two ſhips, which the India Company ſent in 1739 upon the diſcovery of the Auſtral lands, found ice in 47° or 48° ſouth latitude, but at no great diſtance from land; which they diſcovered, without being able to approach it. This ice, therefore, muſt have come from the interior parts of the lands near the ſouth pole; and we muſt conjecture, that it follows the courſe of ſeveral large rivers, waſhing theſe unknown lands, in the ſame manner as the rivers Oby, the Yeniſea, and the other great rivers which fall into the northern ſea, carry the ice-maſſes, which ſtop up the ſtreights of Waigats for the greater part of the year, and render the Tartarian ſea inacceſſible upon this courſe.' Before we can allow the analogy between the rivers Oby, Yeniſea, and the reſt which fall into the northern ocean, and thoſe coming from the interior parts of the Auſtral lands, let us compare the ſituation of both countries, ſuppoſing the Auſtral lands really to exiſt. The Oby, Yeniſea, and the reſt of the Siberian rivers, falling down into the northern ocean, have their ſources in 48° and 50° north latitude, where the climate is mild and capable of producing corn of all kinds. All the rivers of this great continent increaſing theſe great rivers, have likewiſe their ſources in mild and temperate climates, and the main direction of their courſe is from ſouth to north; and the coaſt of the northern ocean, not reckoning its ſinuoſities, runs in general weſt and eaſt. The ſmall rivers, which

(B) In 1296, the Baltic was frozen from Gothland to Sweden. (*Incerti auctoris Annales Denor. in Weſtphalii monument. Cimbr.* t. I. p. 1392.)

In 1306, the Baltic was during fourteen weeks covered with ice, between all the Daniſh and Swediſh iſlands. (*Ludwig reliquiæ, MS.Stor.* t. IX. p. 170.)

In 1323, there was a road for foot-paſſengers and horſemen over the ice on the Baltic during ſix weeks. (*id. ibid.*)

In 1349, people walking over the ice from Stralſund to Denmark. (*Incerti auct. cit. ap. Ludwig.* t. IX. p. 181.)

In 1408, the whole ſea between Gothland and Oeland, and likewiſe between Roſtock and Gezoer, was frozen. (*id. ibid.*)

In 1423, the ice bore riding from Pruſſia to Lubeck. (*Crantzii Vandal.* l. X. c. 40.) The whole ſea was covered with ice from Mecklenburg to Denmark. (*Incert auct. ap. Ludwig.* t. IX. p. 125.)

In 1461, (ſays *Nicol. Marſchallus in annal. Herul. ap. Weſtphal.* t. I. p. 261.) Tanta erat hyems, ut concreto gelu oceano plauſtris millia paſſuum ſupra CCC merces ad ultimam Thylen (*Iceland*) et Orcades veherentur *e Germania* tota pene bruma.

In 1545, the ſea between Roſtock and Denmark, and likewiſe between Fionia and Sealand, was thus frozen, that the people travelled over the ice on foot, with ſledges to which horſes and oxen were put. (*Anonym. ap. Ludwig.* t. IX. p. 176.)

In 1294, the Cattegat or ſea between Norway and Denmark was frozen; that from Oxſlo in Norway, they could travel on it to Jutland. (*Strelow Chron. Juthiland*, p. 148.)

Pole.

which are formed in high latitudes, have, properly ſpeaking, no ſources, no ſprings, but carry off only the waters generated by the melting of ſnow in ſpring, and by the fall of rain in the ſhort ſummer, and are for the greateſt part dry in autumn. And the reaſon of this phænomenon is obvious, after conſidering the conſtitution of the earth in thoſe high northern climates. At Yakutſk, in about 62° north latitude, the ſoil is eternally frozen, even in the height of ſummer, at the depth of three feet from the ſurface. In the years 1685 and 1686, an attempt was made to dig a well; and a man, by great and indefatigable labour, continued during two ſummer-ſeaſons, and ſucceeded ſo far in this laborious taſk, that he at laſt reached the depth of 91 feet; but the whole earth at this depth was frozen, and he met with no water, which forced him to deſiſt from ſo fruitleſs an attempt. And it is eaſy to infer from hence, how impoſſible it is that ſprings ſhould be formed in the womb of an eternally frozen ſoil.

15 Of the freezing of ſalt-water.

"The argument, therefore, is now reduced to this, *That ſalt water does not freeze at all; or, if it does, the ice contains briny particles.* But we have already before produced numberleſs inſtances, that the ſea does freeze; nay, Crantz allows, *that the flat pieces of ice are ſalt, becauſe they were congealed from ſea-water.* We beg leave to add a few deciſive facts relative to the freezing of the ſea. Barentz obſerves in the year 1596, September the 16th, the ſea froze two fingers thick, and next night the ice was as thick again. This happened in the midſt of September; what effect then muſt the intenſe froſt of a night in January not produce? When Captain James wintered in Charleton's Iſle, the ſea froze in the middle of December 1631. It remains, therefore, only to examine, whether the ice formed in the ſea muſt neceſſarily contain briny particles. And here I find myſelf in a very diſagreeable dilemma; for during the intenſe froſt of the winter in 1776, two ſets of experiments were made on the freezing of ſea-water, and publiſhed, contradicting one another almoſt in every material point. The one by Mr Edward Nairne F. R. S. an ingenious and accurate obſerver; the other by Dr Higgins, who reads lectures on chemiſtry and natural philoſophy, and conſequently muſt be ſuppoſed to be well acquainted with the ſubject. I will therefore ſtill venture to conſider the queſtion as undecided by theſe experiments, and content myſelf with making a few obſervations on them: but previouſly I beg leave to make this general remark, that thoſe who are well acquainted with mechanics, chemiſtry, natural philoſophy, and the various arts which require a nice obſervation of minute circumſtances, need not be informed, that an experiment or machine ſucceeds often very well when made upon a ſmaller ſcale, but will not anſwer if undertaken at large; and, *vice verſa*, machines and experiments executed upon a ſmall ſcale will not produce the effect, which they certainly have when made in a more enlarged manner. A few years ago an experiment made on the dyeing of ſcarlet, did not ſucceed when undertaken on a ſmall ſcale, whereas it produced the deſired effect when tried at a dyer's houſe with the large apparatus; and it evidently confirms the above aſſertion, which I think I have a right to apply to the freezing of ſalt-water. It is therefore probable, that the ice formed in the ocean at large, in a higher latitude, and in a more intenſe degree of cold, whereof we have no idea here, may become ſolid, and free from any briny particles, though a few experiments made by Dr Higgins, in his houſe, on the freezing of ſalt-water, produced only a looſe ſpungy ice filled with briny particles.

16 Reſult of Mr Nairne's experiments on this ſubject.

"The ice formed of ſea-water by Mr Nairne was very hard, $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches long, and 2 inches in diameter; it follows from thence, that the waſhing the outſide of this ice in freſh water, could not affect the inſide of a hard piece of ice. This ice when melted yielded freſh water, which was ſpecifically lighter than water, which was a mixture of rain and ſnow water, and next in lightneſs to diſtilled water. Had the ice thus obtained not been freſh, the reſiduum of the ſea water, after this ice had been taken out, could not have been ſpecifically heavier than ſea water, which, however, was the caſe in Mr Nairne's experiment. It ſeems, therefore, in my opinion, evident from hence, that ſalt water does freeze, and has no other briny particles than what adhere to its outſide. All this perfectly agrees with the curious fact related by Mr Adanſon (c), who had brought to France two bottles of ſea water, taken up in different parts of the ocean, in order to examine it and to compare its ſaltneſs, when more at leiſure; but both the bottles containing the ſalt water were burſt by being frozen, and the water produced from melting the ice proved perfectly freſh. This fact is ſo fairly ſtated, and ſo very natural, that I cannot conceive it is neceſſary to ſuppoſe, without the leaſt foundation for it, *that the bottles were changed, or that Mr Adanſon does not mention the circumſtance by which the ſea water was thus altered upon its being diſſolved:* for as he expreſsly obſerves the bottles to have been burſt, it is obvious that the concentrated briny parts ran out and were entirely drained from the ice, which was formed of the freſh water only.

"The ice formed by Dr Higgins from ſea water, *conſiſted of thin laminæ, adhering to each other weakly.* Dr Higgins took out the frozen ice from the veſſels wherein he expoſed the ſea water, and continued to do ſo till the remaining concentrated ſea water began to form cryſtals of ſea ſalt. Both theſe experiments, therefore, by no means prove what the doctor intended to infer from thence; for it was wrong to take out ſuch ice, which only *conſiſted of thin laminæ, adhering to each other weakly.* Had he waited with patience, he would have obtained a hard ice as well as Mr Nairne, which, by a more perfect congelation, would have excluded the briny particles intercepted between the *thin laminæ, adhering to each other weakly;* and would have connected the laminæ, by others formed by freſh water. The doctor found afterwards, it is true, thicker and ſomewhat more ſolid ice, in the veſſel B: but the ſea water had already been ſo much concentrated by repeated congelations, that it is no wonder the ice formed in it became at laſt brackiſh: it ſhould ſeem then, that no concluſive arguments can be drawn from theſe experiments.

"There are two other objections againſt the formation of the ice in the great ocean. The *firſt* is taken from

(c) Second Supplement to the Probability of reaching the north pole, p. 129.

from the immenſe bulk and ſize of the ice maſſes formed in the ocean, which is *the deepeſt maſs of water we know of.* But the reader is referred to the table communicated above, where it appears, that in the midſt of ſummer, in the latitudes of 55°, 55° 26′, and 64° ſouth, at 100 fathoms depth, the thermometer was at 34°, 34°$\frac{1}{2}$ and 32°; and that in all inſtances, the difference between the temperature at top and 100 fathoms depth never exceeded four degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, or that the temperature of the air did not differ five degrees from that of the ocean at 100 fathom deep. If we now add to this, that beyond the 71° ſouth the temperature of the air and ocean muſt be ſtill colder, and that the rigours of an antarctic winter are certainly more than ſufficient to cool the ocean to 28°$\frac{1}{2}$, which is requiſite for congealing the aqueous particles in it; if we moreover conſider, that theſe ſevere froſts are continued during ſix or eight months of the year, we may eaſily conceive that there is time enough to congeal large and extenſive maſſes of ice. But it is likewiſe certain, that there is more than one way by which thoſe immenſe ice maſſes are formed. We ſuppoſe very juſtly, that the ocean does freeze, having produced ſo many inſtances of it; we allow likewiſe, that the ice thus formed in a calm, perhaps does not exceed three or four yards in thickneſs; a ſtorm probably often breaks ſuch an ice-field, which Crantz allows to be 200 leagues one way, and 80 the other; the preſſure of the broken fragments againſt one another frequently ſets one upon the other piece, and they freeze in that manner together; ſeveral ſuch double pieces, thrown by another preſſure upon one another, form at laſt large maſſes of miles extent, and of 20, 40, 60, and more fathoms thickneſs, or of a great bulk or height. Martens, in his deſcription of Spitzbergen, remarks, that the pieces of ice cauſe ſo great a noiſe by their ſhock, that the navigators in thoſe regions can only with difficulty hear the words of thoſe that ſpeak; and as the ice-pieces are thrown one upon another, ice-mountains are formed by it. And I obſerved very frequently, in the years 1772 and 1773, when we were among the ice, maſſes which had the moſt evident marks of ſuch a formation, being compoſed of ſtrata of ſome feet in thickneſs. This is in ſome meaſure confirmed by the ſtate in which the Coſſack Markoff found the ice at the diſtance of 420 miles from the Siberian coaſts. The high maſſes which were not found formed, as is ſuſpected in the *Second ſupplement to the probability of reaching the north pole*, p. 143-145, near the land, under the high cliffs, but far out at ſea; and when theſe ice mountains were climbed by Markoff, nothing but ice, and no veſtiges of land, appeared as far as the eye could reach. The high climates near the poles, are likewiſe ſubject to heavy falls of ſnow, of ſeveral yards in thickneſs, which grow more and more compact, and by thaws and rain are formed into ſolid ice, which increaſe the ſtupendous ſize of the floating ice mountains.

"The *ſecond* objection againſt the freezing of the ocean into ſuch ice as is found floating in it, is taken from the *opacity* of ice formed in ſalt water; becauſe the largeſt maſſes are commonly tranſparent like cryſtal, with a fine blue tinct, cauſed by the reflection of the ſea. This argument is very ſpecious, and might be deemed unanſwerable to thoſe who are not uſed to cold winters and their effects. But whoſoever has ſpent ſeveral winters in countries which are ſubject to intenſe froſts, will find nothing extraordinary or difficult in this argument: for it is a well-known fact in cold countries, that the ice which covers their lakes and rivers, is often opaque, eſpecially when the froſt ſets in, accompanied by a fall of ſnow; for, in thoſe inſtances, the ice looks, before it hardens, like a dough or paſte, and when congealed it is opaque and white: however, in ſpring, a rain and the thaw, followed by froſty nights, change the opacity and colour of the ice, and make it quite tranſparent and colourleſs like a cryſtal; but, in caſe the thaw continues, and it ceaſes entirely to freeze, the ſame tranſparent ice becomes ſoft and porous, and turns again entirely opaque. This, I believe, may be applicable to the ice ſeen by us in the ocean. The field-ice was commonly opaque; ſome of the large maſſes, probably drenched by rain, and frozen again, were tranſparent and pellucid; but the ſmall fragments of looſe ice, formed by the decay of the large maſſes, and ſoaked by long-continued rains, we found to be porous, ſoft, and opaque.

"It is likewiſe urged as an argument againſt the formation of ice in the ocean, that it always requires land, in order to have a point upon which it may be fixed. Firſt, I obſerve, that in Mr Nairne's experiments, the ice was generated on the ſurface, and was ſeen ſhooting cryſtals downwards: which evidently evinces, in my opinion, that ice is there formed or generated where the intenſeſt cold is; as the air ſooner cools the ſurface than the depth of the ocean, the ice ſhoots naturally downwards, and cools the ocean more and more, by which it is prepared for further congelation. I ſuppoſe, however, that this happens always during calms, which are not uncommon in high latitudes, as we experienced in the late expedition. Nor does land ſeem abſolutely neceſſary in order to fix the ice; for this may be done with as much eaſe and propriety to the large ice-mountains which remain undiſſolved floating in the ocean in high latitudes; or it may perhaps, not be improper to ſuppoſe, that the whole polar region, from 80 and upwards, in the ſouthern hemiſphere, remains a ſolid ice for ſeveral years together, to which yearly a new circle of ice is added, and of which, however, part is broken off by the winds and the return of the mild ſeaſon. Wherever the ice floats in large maſſes, and ſometimes in compact bodies formed of an infinite number of ſmall pieces, there it is by no means difficult to freeze the whole into one piece, for amongſt the ice the wind has not a power of raiſing high and great waves. This circumſtance was not entirely unknown to the ancients; and it is probable they acquired this information from the natives of ancient Gaul, and from the Britons, and other northern nations, who ſometimes undertook long voyages. The northern ocean was called by the ancients the *frozen*, the *dead*, the *lazy*, and *immoveable ſea*: ſometimes they gave it the name *mare cronium*, the concrete ſea, and *morimaruſa*, the dead ſea. And, what is very remarkable, in all the northern cold countries the froſt ſometimes is ſo intenſe, that all the waters become ſuddenly coagulated into a kind of paſte or dough, and thus at once congeal."

On this reaſoning of Mr Forſter's, however, we muſt

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17 Observations on Mr Forster's reasoning.

must observe, that it cannot possibly invalidate any fact which Mr Barrington has advanced. The best concerted and most plausible theory in the world must yield to experience; for this is in fact what must judge all theories. Now, from what we have already related, it is demonstrated, that in the space between the mouths of the rivers Piasida and Chatanga, more ice must be formed, and more intense colds generated, than in any other part of the world. Consequently, for a considerable space both on the east and west side of that, the sea must be more full of ice than any where else. Now, between these two rivers there is the promontory of Taimura, which runs out to the latitude of 78°, or near it, and which of necessity must obstruct the dispersion of the ice; and that it actually does so is in some degree probable, because in one of the Russian voyages abovementioned, the eastern mouth of the Lena was quite free, when the western ones were entirely choaked up with ice. Now the mouth of the Yana lies several degrees to the eastward of the Lena: consequently, when the ice comes eastward from the Cape of Taimura, it must necessarily fill all that sea to the latitude of 78° and upwards; but the Cossack Markoff, if he proceeded directly north, could not be farther than the promontory of Taimura, and consequently still enveloped among the ice. Besides, we are certain, that the sea in 78° is not at all frozen into a solid cake in some places, since Captain Phipps, in 1773, reached 81°. Mr Forster's argument therefore either proves nothing, or it proves too much. If it proves, that about the middle of the eastern continent the cold is so intense that a sufficient quantity of ice is formed to obstruct the navigation for several hundred miles round, this proves nothing; because we knew before, that this must be the case. But if it proves, that the sea must be unnavigable by reason of ice all round the globe at 78° N. L. this is too much; because we certainly know, that, in 1773, Captain Phipps reached the latitude of 81°. However, tho' it should be allowed that the sea is quite clear all the way to the pole, it must be a very great uncertainty whether any ship could by that way reach the East Indies; because we know that it must fall down between the continents of Asia and America, tho' that strait whose mouth must often be blocked up with ice driving eastward along the continent of Asia.

The south pole is still more inaccessible than the north pole; for the ice is found in much lower southern than northern latitudes. This superior degree of cold has by many been supposed to proceed from a greater quantity of land about the south than the north pole; and the notion of a vast continent in these regions prevailed almost universally, insomuch, that many have sought for it but in vain. But for a particular discussion of this matter, see the articles SOUTH-*Sea*, and TERRA *Australis*.

POLE *Axe*, a sort of hatchet nearly resembling a battle-axe, having an handle about 15 inches in length, and being furnished with a sharp point or claw, bending downwards from the back of its head; the blade whereof is formed like that of any other hatchet. It is principally employed to cut away and destroy the rigging of any adversary who endeavours to board.

Pole-axes are also said to have been successfully used on some occasions in boarding an enemy, whose sides were above those of the boarder. This is executed by detaching several gangs to enter at different parts of the ship's length, at which time the pole-axes are forcibly driven into her side, one above another, so as to form a fort of scaling-ladders.

Pole & Polesino.

POLE-*Cat*. See MUSTELA.

POLEMICAL, in matters of literature, an appellation given to books of controversy, especially those in divinity.

POLEMONIUM, GREEK VALERIAN, or *Jacob's ladder*; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. There are two species, of which the most remarkable is the cœruleum, with an empalement longer than the flower. It grows naturally in some places of England; however, its beauty has obtained it a place in the gardens. There are three varieties, one with a white, another with a blue, and another with a variegated flower, also a kind with variegated leaves. They are easily propagated by seeds; but that kind with variegated leaves is preserved by parting its roots, because the plants raised from seeds would be apt to degenerate and become plain.

POLEMOSCOPE, in optics, the same with OPERA-GLASS. See OPTICS, p. 5584. col. 1. par. *ult*.

POLENBURG (Cornelius), a sweet painter of little landscapes and figures, was born at Utrecht in 1586, and educated under Blomaert, whom he soon quitted to travel into Italy; and studied for a long time in Rome and Florence, where he formed a style entirely new, which, though preferable to the Flemish, is unlike any Italian, except in his having adorned his landscapes with ruins. There is a varnished smoothness and finishing in his pictures, that render them always pleasing, though simple and too nearly resembling one another. The Roman cardinals were charmed with the neatness of his works, as was also the great duke; but could not retain him. He returned to Utrecht, and pleased Rubens, who had several of his performances. King Charles I. invited him to London, where he generally painted the figures in Steenwyck's perspectives: but the king could not prevail on him to fix here; for, after staying only four years, and being handsomely rewarded by his Majesty for several pieces which he performed for him, he returned to Utrecht, and died there at the age of 74. His works are very scarce and valuable.

POLERON, one of the Banda or nutmeg islands in the East Indies. This was one of those spice islands which put themselves under the protection of the English, and voluntarily acknowledged James I. king of England for their sovereign; for which reason the natives of this and the rest of the islands were murdered, or driven thence by the Dutch, together with the English.

POLESIA, a province of Poland, bounded by Polachio and Proper Lithuania on the north, and by Volhinia on the south. It is one of the palatinates of Lithuania, and is commonly called *Brejcia*, and its capital is of this name. It is full of forests and lakes.

POLESINO DE-BOVIGO, a province of Italy in the republic of Venice, lying to the north of the river Po, and bounded on that side by the Paduan, on the south by the Ferrarese, on the east by Degado, and on the west

Polianthes. weſt by the Veroneſe. It is 45 miles in length, and 17 in breadth, and is a fertile country. Rovigo is the capital.

POLIANTHES, the Tuberose; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria claſs of plants. There is but one ſpecies, conſiſting of ſome varieties; all of which being exotics of tender quality, require aid of artificial heat, under ſhelter of frames and glaſſes, &c. to bring them to flower in perfection in this country. The polianthes, or tuberoſe, hath an oblong, bulb-like, tuberous, white root; crowned with a few long very narrow leaves; amidſt them an upright, ſtraight, firm ſtem, three or four feet high, terminated by a long ſpike of large white flowers, arranged alternately. The varieties are the common tuberoſe, with ſingle-flowers,—double flowered,—dwarf-ſtalked,—variegated leaved. They all flower here in June, July, and Auguſt: the flowers are funnel or bell ſhaped; garniſh the upper part of the ſtem, in a long ſpike, conſiſting of from ten to twenty or more ſeparate in alternate arrangements, the lower flowers opening firſt, which are ſucceeded by thoſe above, in regular order, making in the whole a moſt beautiful appearance, highly enriched with a moſt fragrant odour. The common ſingle-flowered tuberoſe, is the ſort the moſt commonly cultivated, as it generally blows the moſt freely, and poſſeſſes the fineſt fragrance. The double-flowered kind alſo highly merits culture as when it blows fair it makes a ſingularly fine appearance. The dwarf and the variegated kinds are inferior to the other two, but may be cultivated for variety.

All the varieties being exotics from warm countries, although they are made to flower in great perfection in our gardens by aſſiſtance of hot-beds, they will not proſper in the open ground, and do not increaſe freely in England; ſo that a ſupply of the roots is imported hither annually from Genoa, and other parts of Italy, by moſt of the eminent nurſery and ſeedſmen, and the Italian warehouſe-keepers; generally arriving in February or March, time enough for the enſuing ſummer's bloom; and are ſold commonly at the rate of twelve or fifteen ſhillings per hundred, being careful always to procure as large roots as poſſible, for on this depends the ſucceſs of having a complete blow. They requiring artificial heat to blow them in this country, are planted in pots, and plunged in a hot-bed, under a deep frame furniſhed with glaſs lights; or placed in a hot-houſe, where they may be blowed to great perfection, with little trouble. The principal ſeaſon for planting them is March and April; obſerving, however, that in order to continue a long ſucceſſion of the bloom, it is proper to make two or three different plantings, at about a month interval; one in March, another in April, and a third the beginning of May, whereby the blow may be continued from June until September; obſerving, as above-mentioned, they may be flowered either by aid of a common dung or bark hot-bed, or in a hot-houſe.

With reſpect to the propagation of theſe plants, it is principally by off-ſets of the roots. The blowing roots that are brought annually from abroad, for ſale, are often furniſhed with off-ſets, which ought to be ſeparated, previous to planting; thoſe alſo that are planted here in our gardens frequently furniſh off-ſets fit for ſeparation in autumn when the leaves decay; they muſt then be preſerved in ſand all winter in a dry ſheltered place; and in the beginning of March, plant them either in a bed of light dry earth in the full ground; or, to forward them as much as poſſible, allow them a moderate hot-bed; and in either method indulge them with a ſhelter in cold weather, either of a frame and lights, or arched with hoops and occaſionally matted; but let them enjoy the full air in all mild weather, giving alſo plenty of water in dry weather, during the ſeaſon of their growth in ſpring and ſummer. Thus let them grow till their leaves decay in autumn; then take them up, clean them from earth, and lay them in a box of dry ſand to preſerve them till ſpring; at which time, ſuch roots as are large enough to blow may be planted and managed as already directed, and the ſmaller roots planted again in a nurſery-bed, to have another year's growth; afterwards plant them for flowering. The Egyptians put the flowers of tuberoſe into ſweet oil; and by this means give it a moſt excelent flavour, ſcarce inferior to oil of jaſmine.

Policandro || Polidoro.

POLICANDRO, a ſmall iſland in the Archipelago, ſeated between Milo and Morgo. It has no harbour, but has a town about three miles from the ſhore near a huge rock. It is a ragged ſtony iſland, but yields as much corn as is ſufficient for the inhabitants, who conſiſt of about 120 Greek families, all Chriſtians. The only commodity is cotton; of which they make napkins, a dozen of which are ſold for a crown. E. Long. 35. 25. N. Lat. 36. 36.

POLICASTRO, an epiſcopal town of Italy in the kingdom of Naples, and in the Hither Principate; but now almoſt in ruins, for which reaſon the biſhop reſides in another town. E. Long. 15. 46. N. Lat. 40. 26.

POLICY, or Polity, in matters of government. See Polity.

Policy *of Inſurance*, or *Aſſurance*, of ſhips, is a contract or convention, whereby a perſon takes upon himſelf the riſks of a ſea-voyage; obliging himſelf to make good the loſſes and damages that may befal the veſſel, its equipage, tackle, victualing, lading, &c. either from tempeſts, ſhipwrecks, pirates, fire, war, repriſals, in part or in whole; in conſideration of a certain ſum of ſeven, eight, or ten *per cent.* more or leſs according to the riſk run; which ſum is paid down to the aſſurer by the aſſuree, upon his ſigning the policy. See Insurance.

POLIDORO da Caravaggio, an eminent painter, born at Caravaggio in the Milaneſe in 1492. He went young to Rome, where he worked as a labourer in preparing ſtucco for the painters; and was ſo animated by ſeeing them at work in the Vatican, that he ſolicited ſome of them to teach him the rules of deſigning. He attached himſelf particularly to Maturino a young Florentine; and a ſimilarity in talents and taſte, producing a diſintereſting affection, they aſſociated like brothers, laboured together, and lived on one common purſe, until the death of Maturino. He underſtood and practiſed the chiaro ſcuro in a degree ſuperior to any in the Roman ſchool; and finiſhed an incredible number of pictures both in freſco and in oil, few of the public buildings at Rome being without ſome of his paintings. Being obliged to

Polignac || Politian.

to fly from Rome when it was ſtormed and pillaged, he retired to Meſſina, where he obtained a large ſum of money with great reputation, by painting the triumphal arches for the reception of Charles V. after his victory at Tunis: and when he was preparing to return to Rome, he was murdered, for the ſake of his riches, by his Sicilian valet with other aſſaſſins, in the year 1543.

POLIGNAC (Melchier de), an excellent French genius and a cardinal, born of an ancient and noble family at Puy, the capital of Velay, in 1662. He was ſent by Lewis XIV. ambaſſador extraordinary to Poland, where, on the death of Sobieſki, he formed a project of procuring the election of the prince of Conti. But failing, he returned home under ſome diſgrace; but when reſtored to favour, he was ſent to Rome as auditor of the Rota. He was plenipotentiary during the congreſs at Utrecht, at which time Clement I. created him a cardinal; and upon the acceſſion of Lewis XV. he was appointed to reſide at Rome as miniſter of France. He remained there till the year 1732, and died in the 1741. He left behind him a MS. poem intitled *Anti-Lucretius, ſeu De Deo et Natura;* the plan of which he is ſaid to have formed in Holland, in a converſation with Mr Bayle: this celebrated poem was firſt publiſhed in the year 1749, and has ſince been ſeveral times printed in other countries beſides France.

POLISHER, or Burnisher, among mechanics, an inſtrument for poliſhing and burniſhing things proper to take a poliſh. The gilders uſe an iron-poliſher to prepare their metals before gilding, and the bloodſtone to give them the bright poliſh after gilding.

The poliſhers, among cutlers, are a kind of wooden wheels made of walnut-tree, about an inch thick, and of a diameter at pleaſure, which are turned round by a great wheel; upon theſe they ſmooth and poliſh their work with emery and putty.

The poliſhers for glaſs conſiſt of two pieces of wood; the one flat, covered with old hat; the other long and half-round, faſtened on the former, whoſe edge it exceeds on both ſides by ſome inches, which ſerves the workmen to take hold of, and to work backwards and forwards by.

The poliſhers uſed by ſpectacle-makers are pieces of wood a foot long, ſeven or eight inches broad, and an inch and a half thick, covered with old beaver hat, whereon they poliſh the ſhell and horn frames their ſpectacle-glaſſes are to be ſet in.

POLISHING, in general, the operation of giving a gloſs or luſtre to certain ſubſtances, as metals, glaſs, marble, &c.

The operation of poliſhing optic-glaſſes, after being properly ground, is one of the moſt difficult points of the whole proceſs. See Optics, nº 181, &c. 194, &c.

POLITIAN (Angelo), was born at Monte Pulciano in Tuſcany in 1454. He was one of the moſt learned and polite writers of his time. The firſt work which gained him a reputation was a poem on the tournament of Julian de Medicis. The account he wrote ſome time after of the conſpiracy of the Pazzi's was very much eſteemed. He wrote many other pieces, which have merited approbation; and had he lived longer, he would have enriched the republic of letters with many excellent works; but he died at the age of 40 years. His morals anſwered the homelineſs of his face rather than the beauty of his genius.

Politics || Pollution.

POLITICS, the firſt part of œconomy, conſiſting in the well governing and regulating the affairs of a ſtate for the maintenance of the public ſafety, order, tranquillity, and morals.

POLITY, or Policy, denotes the peculiar form and conſtitution of the government of any ſtate or nation; or the laws, orders, and regulations relating thereto *.——Polity differs only from politics, as the theory from the practice of any art.

* See Government.

POLL, a word uſed in ancient writings for the head: hence to poll, is either to vote, or to enter down the names of thoſe perſons who give their votes, at an election.

Poll-*Evil*. See Farriery, § xxx.

Poll-*Money*, or *Capitation*, a tax impoſed by authority of parliament on the perſon or head; either on all indifferently, or according to ſome known mark or diſtinction, as quality, calling, &c.

Thus, by the ſtatute 18 Car. II. every ſubject in the kingdom was aſſeſſed by the head, or poll, according to his degree; every duke 100 l. marquis 80 l. baronet 30 l. knight 20 l. eſquire 10 l. &c. and every ſingle private perſon 12 d.

This was no new tax, as appears by former acts of parliament.

POLLEN, the fecundating or fertilizing duſt contained within the antheræ or tops of the ſtamina, and diſperſed upon the female organ when ripe, for the purpoſes of impregnation. See Botany.

This duſt, correſponding to the ſeminal fluid in animals, is commonly of a yellow colour; and is very conſpicuous in the ſummits of ſome flowers, as the tulip and lily. Its particles are very minute, and of extreme hardneſs. Examined by the microſcope, they are generally found to aſſume ſome determinate form, which often predominates, not only through all the ſpecies of a particular genus, but alſo through the genera of a natural family or order. The powder in queſtion being triturated, and otherwiſe prepared in the ſtomach of bees, by whom great quantities are collected in the hairy bruſhes with which their legs are covered, is ſuppoſed by ſome authors to produce the ſubſtance known by the name of *wax;* a ſpecies of vegetable oil, rendered concrete by the preſence of an acid, which muſt be removed before the ſubſtance can be rendered fluid.

POLLEX, in anatomy, denotes either the thumb or great toe, according as *manus* or *pedis* is added to it.

POLLIO (Caius Aſinius), a celebrated Latin poet and orator, was of conſular dignity, and compoſed ſome tragedies which were eſteemed, but are now loſt. He was the firſt who opened at Rome a library for the uſe of the public. He was the friend of Mark Antony; which prevented his complying with the ſolicitations of Auguſtus, who preſſed him to embrace his party. At length Auguſtus having wrote ſome verſes againſt Pollio, he was urged to anſwer them; on which he ſaid, "I ſhall take care of writing againſt a man who has the power of proſcribing us." He is praiſed by Virgil and Horace.

POLLUTION, in general, ſignifies defilement, or the rendering a perſon or place unclean or unholy.

For

For the Jewish pollutions, see the article Impurity.

The Romanists hold a church to be polluted by the effusion of blood or of seed therein; and requires its being consecrated anew. And the Indians are so superstitious on this head, that they break all the vessels which those of another religion have drank out of, or even only touched; and drain all the water out of a pond in which a stranger has bathed.

Pollution, in medicine, a disease which consists in an involuntary emission of the seed in time of sleep. This, in different persons, is very different in degree; some being affected with it only once in a week, a fortnight, three weeks, or a month, and others being subject to it almost every night. The persons most subject to it, are young men of a sanguineous temperament, who feed high and lead a sedentary life. When this happens to a person but once in a fortnight or a month, it is of no great consequence; but when it happens almost every night, it greatly injures the health; the patient looks pale and sickly; in some the eyes become weak and inflamed, are sometimes affected with violent destructions, and are usually at last incircled with a livid appearance of the skin. This distemper is to be cured rather by a change of life than by medicines. When it has taken its rise from a high diet, and a sedentary life, a coarser food and the use of exercise will generally cure it. Persons subject to this disease should never take any stimulating purges, and must avoid as much as possible all violent passions of the mind: and though exercise is recommended in moderation, yet if this be too violent, it will rather increase the disorder than contribute to its cure.

Self-Pollution. See Onanism.

POLLUX. See Castor.

Pollux, in astronomy, a fixed star of the second magnitude in the constellation Gemini, or the Twins.

POLTROON, or Poltron, a coward, or dastard, wanting courage to perform any thing great or noble. The word is borrowed from the French, who, according to Salmasius, derive it *a pollice truncato*; because anciently those who would avoid going to the wars, cut off their thumb. But Menage, with more probability, derives it from the Italian *poltrone*, and that from *poltro* a "bed;" because timorous, pusillanimous people, take pleasure in lying a-bed. Others choose to derive the word from the Italian, *poltro*, a "colt;" because of that creature's readiness to run away.

POLOCSKI, a palatinate in the duchy of Lithuania, bounded on the north by the palatinate of Weytepski, on the south by the Dwina, on the north by Muscovy, and on the west by Livonia. It is a desart country full of wood, and had formerly its own dukes.

Polocski, a town of Lithuania, and capital of a palatinate of the same name, with two castles to defend it. It was taken by the Muscovites in 1563, and retaken the same year. It is seated on the river Dwina, 50 miles south-west of Weytepski, and 80 east of Braslaw. E. Long. 29. 0. N. Lat. 56. 4.

POLYADELPHIA, (from πολυς, "many," and αδελφια, "brotherhood,") many brotherhoods. The name of the 18th class of Linnæus's sexual system, consisting of plants with hermaphrodite flowers, in which several stamina or male organs are united by their filaments into three or more distinct bundles.

POLYANDRIA, (πολυς, "many;" and ανηρ, a "man, or husband,") many husbands; the name of the 13th class in Linnæus's sexual method, consisting of plants with hermaphrodite flowers, which are furnished with several stamina, that are inserted into the common receptacle of the flower.

POLYANTHUS, in botany. See Primula.

POLYÆNUS, the name of many ancient persons, and principally of one who appears to have been a Macedonian, and the writer of eight books of *Stratagemata*, Stratagems of illustrious commanders in war. The best edition is that of Leyden 1690, 8vo. Numbers of these stratagems appear ridiculous or impracticable; but the book is of use to those who study the Greek language or antiquity. We have citations from other works of the same author.

POLYBIUS, a famous Greek historian, was born at Megalopolis, a city of Arcadia; and was the son of Lycortas, chief of the republic of the Achæans. He was sent ambassador to Rome, where he contracted a strict friendship with Scipio and Lelius; and in that city composed his excellent history, after he had made several voyages to the places of which he was to treat. This history was divided into 40 books; but there only remains the five first, with extracts of some parts of the others. It has had several editions in Greek and Latin; and there is an English translation by Mr Hampton. Polybius lived about 120 years before the Christian æra, and died at the age of 82.

POLYCARP, one of the most ancient fathers of the Christian church, was born towards the end of the reign of Nero, probably at Smyrna; where he was educated at the expence of Calista, a noble matron distinguished by her piety and charity. He was unquestionably a disciple of St John the Evangelist, and conversed familiarly with other of the apostles. When of a proper age, Bucolus ordained him a deacon and catechist of his church; and upon his death he succeeded him in the bishopric, to which he is said to have been consecrated by St John, who also directed his Apocalypse, among others, to him, under the title of *the angel of the church of Smyrna*. At length the controversy about the observation of Easter beginning to grow high between the eastern and western churches, he went to Rome to discourse with those who were of the opposite party. The see was then possessed by Anicetus, with whom he had many conferences, that were carried on in the most peaceable and amicable manner; and though neither of them could bring the other to embrace his opinion, they both retained their own sentiments without violating that charity which is the great law of their religion. Polycarp governed the church of Smyrna till he suffered martyrdom in 167. There is still extant an epistle written by St Polycarp to the Philippians.

POLYCHREST, in pharmacy, signifies a medicine that serves for many uses, or that cures many diseases.

Sal Polychrest, a compound salt made of equal parts of salt-petre and sulphur, deflagrated in a red-hot crucible.

POLYDORE virgil. See Virgil.

POLYGALA, MILKWORT; a genus of the octandria, belonging to the diadelphia class of plants. There are 24 species, of which the most remarkable are,

1. The vulgaris, or common milkwort, is a native of the British heaths and dry pastures. The stalks are about

about five or six inches long, several arising from the same root: the leaves are firm, smooth, entire, and grow alternate upon the stalks, which are terminated with spikes of flowers, most commonly blue, but often red or white: the calix consists of five leaves, three of which are small and green, two below, and one above the corolla; the other two intermediate ones are large, oval, flat, coloured, veined, and resemble petals, which at length turn greenish, and remain a defence to the seed-vessel; the corolla consists of three petals folded together, and forming a tube: the carina is terminated by a kind of heart-shaped, concave appendage, fringed at the extremity. The root of this plant has a bitter taste, and has been found to possess the virtues of the American rattlesnake-root. It purges without danger, and is also emetic and diuretic; sometimes operating all the three ways at once. A spoonful of the decoction made by boiling an ounce of the herb in a pint of water till one half has exhaled, has been found serviceable in pleurisies and fevers, by promoting a diaphoresis and expectoration; and three spoonfuls of the same, taken once an hour, has proved beneficial in the dropsy and anasarca. It has also been found serviceable in consumptive complaints.

2. The senega, or seneka, rattlesnake-wort, grows naturally in most parts of North America. This hath a perennial root composed of several fleshy fibres, from which arise three or four branching stalks which grow erect, garnished with spear-shaped leaves placed alternately. The flowers are produced in loose spikes at the end of the branches: they are small, white, and shaped like those of the common fort. It flowers here in July, but the plants do not produce seeds. The root of this species operates more powerfully than the last; but besides the virtues of a purgative, emetic, and diuretic, it has been recommended as an antidote against the poison of a rattlesnake; tho' how precarious every remedy in that case must be, will appear from what is said under the article POISON.

As the seeds of the rattlesnake-wort seldom succeed even in the countries where the plant is a native, the best method of propagating it is to procure the roots from America, and plant them in a bed of light earth in a sheltered situation, where they will thrive without any other culture than keeping them free from weeds. But though the plant will stand our ordinary winters, it will be proper to cover it during that season with old tanner's bark, or other mulch, to keep out the frost.

POLYGAMIA, (πολυς, "many;" and γαμος, "marriage.") This term, expressing an intercommunication of sexes, is applied, by Linnæus, both to plants and flowers. A polygamous plant is that which bears both hermaphrodite flowers and male or female, or both.

POLYGAMY, a plurality of wives or husbands, in the possession of one man or woman, at the same time.

Many arguments have been offered to prove the unlawfulness of polygamy; one of the principal of which is, that the males and females brought into the world are nearly on a balance; only abating for a small excess on the side of the males, to make up for the extraordinary expence thereof in war and at sea: whence it evidently follows, that nature only intends one wife, or one husband, for the same person; since if they have more, some must go without any at all. Hence it is justly concluded, that the Christian law, which prohibits polygamy, is more agreeable to the law of nature than the Mahometan, and, we may add, than the Jewish law, by which polygamy was tolerated. See BIGAMY.

POLYGLOTT, among divines and critics, chiefly denotes a bible printed in several languages. See BIBLE, and PRINTING.

POLYGON, in geometry, a figure with many sides, or whose perimeter consists of more than four sides at least; such are the pentagon, hexagon, heptagon, &c.

POLYGONUM, KNOT-GRASS; a genus of the trigynia order, belonging to the octandria class of plants. There are 27 species; but the most remarkable are, 1. The bistorta, bistort, or greater snakeweed, hath a thick oblique intorted root, blackish without and red within; a simple round slender stem near two feet high; oval leaves, having decurrent foot-stalks, and the stalk terminated by thick short spikes of whitish-red flowers. 2. The vivaparum, or smaller bistort, hath a thickish root, a simple slender stem half a foot high, spear-shaped leaves, and the stalks and branches terminated by long spikes of whitish-red flowers. Both these perennials flower in May and June, succeeded by ripe seeds in August. They grow wild in England, &c. the first in moist places, the other in mountainous situations. 3. Oriental polygonum, commonly called *persicaria*, hath fibrous roots; an upright, robust, strong, jointed stem, rising eight or ten feet high, dividing at top into several branches; very large oval-lanceolate alternate leaves, on broad foot-stalks half surrounding the stem; and all the branches terminated by long, slender, hanging spikes of reddish-purple heptandrous and digynious flowers, from July till October. 4. Fagopyrum, buckwheat, or brank, rises with an upright smooth branchy stem, from about a foot and a half to a yard high, heart-shaped sagittated leaves, and the branches terminated by clusters of whitish flowers, succeeded by large angular seeds; excellent for feeding pigeons, and most sorts of poultry.

All these plants are hardy, and succeed in almost any soil and situation; the two first are perennial in root; and the third and fourth are annual, wholly decay at the end of summer, or early in winter. The first two sorts are retained in some curious gardens for variety; but their chief merit is for medical purposes: they are powerful astringents, and are used both internally and externally; esteemed very efficacious in hæmorrhages, and other fluxes; and good to heal sore mouths. Third sort, Oriental polyganum, or persicaria, is a most elegant annual for the embellishment of the pleasure-ground; assuming a majestic tree-like growth by its erect luxuriant stem, and branchy head; which being garnished with noble large foliage, and numerous pendulous spikes of flowers, in constant succession three or four months, exhibits a very ornamental appearance from June or July until October, and is so easy of culture, that from its scattered seeds in autumn, young plants rise spontaneously in abundance the ensuing spring, and shoot up so rapidly as to attain six or eight feet stature by July, when they generally begin flowering, and continue till attacked by the frost, then totally perish; so that a fresh supply must be raised from seed annually. The fourth sort (buck-wheat) is a sort of corn, and is frequently cultivated both by way of fodder, cutting its stalks while young and green to feed

feed cattle; and for its grain to feed pigeons, poultry, hogs, &c. It flourishes in any soil and situation, but generally thrives best in a light dry earth; and the driest seasons seldom retard its growth. The first and second fort are easily propagated in plenty, by parting the roots in autumn. The third fort, Oriental polygonum, being annual, is always propagated from feed annually, either in the full ground, or by aid of hot-beds.

Uses. The root of a kind of bistort, according to Gmelin, is used in Siberia for ordinary food. This species is by Haller called *bistorta foliis ad oram nervosis*, and by some other botanists *bistorta montana minor*. The natives call it *mouka;* and so indolent are they, that, to save themselves the trouble of digging it out of the earth, they go in spring and pillage the holes of the mountain rats, which they find filled with these roots. In our country, bistort is used in medicine. All the parts of bistort have a rough austere taste, particularly the root, which is one of the strongest of the vegetable astringents. It is employed in all kinds of immoderate hæmorrhagies and other fluxes, both internally and externally, where astringency is the only indication. It is certainly a very powerful styptic, and is to be looked on simply as such; the sudorific, antipestilential, and other like virtues ascribed to it, it has no other claim to, than in consequence of its astringency, and of the antiseptic power which it has in common with other vegetable styptics. The largest dose of the root in powder is one dram.

POLYGRAPHY, Polygraphia, or *Polygraphice*, the art of writing in various unusual manners or cyphers; as also of decyphering the same. The word is formed from the Greek, πολυ, *multum*, and γραφη, *scriptura*, "writing."

The ancients seem to have been very little acquainted with this art; nor is there any mark of their having gone beyond the Lacedæmonian scytala. Trithemius, Porta, Vigenere, and father Niceron, have written on the subject of polygraphy or ciphers. See Cipher.

POLYHYMNIA, in the pagan mythology, one of the nine muses, thus named from the Greek words Πολυς, "much;" and μνεια, "memory." She presided over history, or rather rhetoric; and is represented with a crown of pearls and a white robe; her right hand in action as if haranguing, and holding in her left a caduceus or sceptre to shew her power.

POLYHEDRON, in geometry, denotes a body or solid comprehended under many sides or planes.

Polyhedron, in optics, is a multiplying glass or lens, consisting of several plane surfaces disposed into a convex form. See Optics, p. 5575.

POLYMATHY, denotes the knowledge of many arts and sciences. The word is derived from the Greek, Πολυ, *multum*, and μαθανω, *disco*.

POLYPETALOUS, among botanists, an epithet applied to such flowers as consist of several petals or flower-leaves.

POLYPODIUM, polypody; a genus of the order of filices, belonging to the cryptogamia class of plants. There are 65 species, of which the most remarkable is the filix mas, or common male fern. This grows in great plenty throughout Britain in woods and stony soils. The leaves are a cubit high, and grow in circular tufts. They are at first alternately pinnate, the pinnæ increasing in size from the base towards the middle, and afterwards gradually decreasing upwards to the summit of the leaf. These pinnæ are again pinnatifid, or subdivided almost to the nerve into obtuse parallel lobes, crenated on the edges. The stalks are covered with brown filmy scales. The fructifications are kidney-shaped, and covered with a permanent scaly shield or involucrum. The capsules are of a pale brown, surrounded with a saffron-coloured elastic ring.

This fern has nearly the same qualities, and is used for most of the same intentions as the pteris aquilina. They are both burnt together for the sake of their ashes, which are purchased by the soap and glass-makers. In the island of Jura are exported annually 150l. worth of these ashes.

Gunner relates, in his *Flor. Novæg.* that the young curled leaves, at their first appearance out of the ground, are by some boiled and eaten like asparagus; and that the poorer Norwegians cut off those succulent laminæ, like the nails of the finger at the crown of the root, which are the bases of the future stalks, and brew them into beer, adding thereto a third portion of malt, and in times of great scarcity mix the same in their bread. The same author adds, that this fern cut green and dried in the open air, affords not only an excellent litter for cattle, but, if infused in hot water, becomes no contemptible fodder to goats, sheep, and other cattle, which will readily eat, and sometimes grow fat upon it: a circumstance well worth the attention of the inhabitants of the Highlands and Hebrides, as great numbers of their cattle, in hard winters, frequently perish for want of food.

But the anthelmintic quality of the root of the male fern is that for which it is chiefly to be valued, and of which an account is given under the article Medicine, n° 493.

POLYPUS, in zoology, a species of the Hydra; which, though cut in a thousand pieces, and in every direction, still exists, and each section becomes a complete animal.

Polypus *of the Heart*. See Medicine, n° 209, 383.

POLYSARCIA, or Corpulency. See Medicine, n° 433.

POLLYSYLLABLE, in grammar, a word consisting of more than three syllables; for when a word consists of one, two, or three syllables, it is called a *monosyllable*, a *dissyllable*, and *trisyllable*.

POLYSYNDETON. See Oratory, n° 65.

POLYTHEISM, in matters of religion, the doctrine or belief of a plurality of gods.

POLYTRICHUM, in botany, a genus of the order of musci, belonging to the cryptogamia class of plants. There are three species; the most remarkable of which is the commune, or great golden maiden-hair, frequently to be met with on the bogs and wet places of this country. It grows in patches, the stalks erect, generally single and unbranched, from three inches to a foot, or even a yard, high. The leaves are numerous, stiff, lanceolate, acute, growing round the stalk without order, and, if viewed with a microscope, appear to have their edges finely serrated. They are of a bright green when young and fresh, but reddish when dried or in decay; the filaments, or peduncles, are of a shining red, or orange colour, from two to four inches long, arising singly from the top of the stalks, and surrounded

Polytrichum, Pomaceæ.

rounded at their base with a cylindrical tubular vagina, or perichætium. The anthera, or capsule, is quadrangular, green at first, afterwards yellow, and red when ripe, having an annular pedestal, or apophysis, at its base. The operculum is flat, with a projecting point in the centre; and underneath is a whitish circular membrane, placed in the middle of the capsule's orifice, and sustained there by numerous arched threads, or cilia, connected by one end to the circumference of this membrane, and by the other fastened to the ring of the anthera. The pollen, or, as others term it, the seed, is freed from the anthera or capsule through the space between the cilia. The calyptra is twofold, an internal and external one; both which at first entirely cover and hang over the anthera. The internal one is conical, membranaceous, and smooth; the external one is composed only of tawny hairs, connected into a sort of mat, lacerated at the base, and serving like a roof of thatch to defend the other. Besides the stalks before described, there are commonly some others near at hand, which are destitute both of filaments and capsules, but are terminated with a kind of rosaceous cup, either of a bright red or yellowish colour, composed of leaves of different sizes, the outermost broad, the innermost lanceolate, growing gradually more and more fine and slender to the centre. This cup is looked upon by Linnæus as the female flower of this moss; but Haller is opinion that it is only the gem or origin of a new stalk, which frequently rises from its centre, and this again becomes sometimes proliferous. There are two varieties of this moss: the first has much shorter stalks than the preceding, and often branched; the leaves stiffer, erect, and more crowded; in other respects the same. The other has a stalk scarcely more than half an inch high, terminated with a cluster of linear, erect, rigid leaves, for the most part entire on the edges, and tipped each with a white hair. The filament is about an inch high, and the capsule quadrangular. The female flower, or gem, is of a bright red colour.

The first kind, when it grows long enough for the purpose, is sometimes used in England and Holland to make brooms or brushes. Of the female sort the Laplanders, when obliged to sleep in desart places, frequently make a speedy and convenient bed. Their manner of doing it is curious: Where this moss grows thick together, they mark out, with a knife, a piece of ground, about two yards square, or of the size of a common blanket; then beginning at one corner, they gently sever the turf from the ground, and as the roots of the moss are closely interwoven and matted together, they by degrees strip off the whole circumscribed turf in one entire piece; afterwards they mark and draw up another piece, exactly corresponding with the first; then, shaking them both with their hands, they lay one upon the ground, with the moss uppermost, instead of a mattrass, and the other over it, with the moss downwards, instead of a rug; and between them both take a comfortable nap, free from fleas and bugs, and without fear of contagious distempers. It is probable they might take the hint of making such a bed from the bear, a cohabitant of their country, which prepares his winter-quarters with a large collection of this same moss.

POMACEÆ, (*pomum*, an "apple,") the name of the 36th order in Linnæus's Fragments of a Natural Method, the genera of which have a pulpy esculent fruit of the apple, berry, and cherry kind. See BOTANY, Sect. vi. 36.

Pomegranate || Pompeys.

POMEGRANATE. See PUNICA.

POMERANIA, a province of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, with the title of a duchy. It is bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea, on the east by Prussia and Poland, on the south by the marquisate of Brandenburg, and on the west by the duchy of Mecklenburg; and is about 250 miles in length, and in some places 75 miles and in others 50 in breadth. It is watered by several rivers, the most considerable of which are the Oder, the Pene, the Rega, the Persant, the Wipper, the Stolp, the Lupo, and the Lobo. The air is cold; but the soil abounds in pastures, and produces corn, of which a great deal is exported. It is a flat country; containing many lakes, woods, and forests, and has several good harbours. It is divided into the Hither and Farther Pomerania, and the territories of the kings of Sweden and Prussia in this duchy are divided by the river Pene.

POMET (Peter), an able druggist at Paris, was born in 1658. He collected at a great expence from all countries drugs of every kind, and rendered himself celebrated by his book intitled *Histoire Generale des Drogues*, which is the most complete book on the subject that has yet been printed. He gave demonstrations with respect to his drugs in the king's garden, and a catalogue of all the drugs contained in his work, with a list of all the rarities of his cabinet, which he proposed to publish by subscription; but was prevented by his death, which happened in 1699, upon the very day when the patent for a pension granted him by Lewis XIV. was made out.

POMFRET (John), an English poet, son of the rector of Luton in Bedfordshire, was born in 1667, and educated at Cambridge. He entered into orders, and obtained a living in Bedfordshire, but died of the small-pox at the age of 35. He published a small volume of tolerable poems; which if they are not to be extolled for their sublimity, have a moral and pious turn, which recommended them to common readers; so that Pomfret's poems still continue to be a very popular book among those whose reading is not very extensive either in poetry or prose.

POMME', or POMMETTE', in heraldry, is a cross with one or more balls or knobs at each of the ends.

POMMEL, or PUMMEL, in the manege, a piece of brass or other matter at the top and in the middle of the saddle-bow.

POMONA, in fabulous history, the tutelar deity of orchards and fruit-trees. See VERTUMNUS.

POMPEII, (anc. geog.), a town of Campania near Herculaneum, and destroyed along with it by the great eruption of Vesuvius in the time of Titus.

POMPEY the GREAT, (Cneius Pompeius Magnus), the renowned rival of Julius Cæsar. Being defeated by him at the battle of Pharsalia, owing to the defection of his cavalry, he fled to Egypt by sea, where he was basely assassinated by order of Theodotus, prime minister to Ptolemy the Younger, then a minor, 48 B.C*. * See *Rome*.

POMPEYS (Cneius and Sextus), his sons, commanded a powerful army when they lost their illustrious father. Julius Cæsar pursued them into Spain, and defeated

feated them at the battle of Munda, in which Cneius was slain, 45 B. C. Sextus made himself master of Sicily; but being defeated in the celebrated naval engagement at Actium, by Augustus and Lepidus, he fled to Asia, with only 7 ships, the remains of his fleet, which consisted of more than 350; and from thence, unable to continue the war, he was obliged to retire to Lesbos, where renewing the war by raising an army, and seizing on some considerable cities, Marcus Titius, in the interest of Marc Anthony, gave him battle, defeated him, took him prisoner, and basely put him to death, 35 B. C. See ROME.

POMPONIUS MELA. See MELA.

POMUM, an APPLE; a species of seed-vessel, composed of a succulent fleshy pulp; in the middle of which is generally found a membranous capsule, with a number of cells, or cavities, for containing the seeds. Seed-vessels of this kind have no external opening, or valve. At the end opposite to the foot-stalk is frequently a small cavity, called by the gardeners the *eye of the fruit*, and by botanists *umbilicus*, the "navel," from its fancied remblance to the navel in animals. Gourd, cucumber, melon, pomegranate, pear, and apple, furnish instances of the fruit or seed-vessel in question.

POND, or FISH-*Pond*. See FISH-*Pond*.

POND-*Weed*, in botany. See POTAMOGETON.

PONDICHERRY, a town of the East Indies, on the coast of Coromandel on this side the Ganges; the best French settlement in these parts. It was taken by the Dutch in 1693; but rendered back by the treaty of Ryswick. It was taken by the British in the last war; and the fortifications were demolished. The country on which it stands is low, and the vessels are obliged to come to an anchor a mile and a half from it; not even boats or canoes could come within musket-shot of it, so that the black Indians were obliged to carry their merchandizes and other things to the factory in flat-bottomed boats. The factory stood on a barren spot, insomuch that there is hardly a worse on the whole coast; but it was chosen because it is difficult to be attacked on the side of the sea. E. Long. 80. 14. N. Lat. 12. 26.

PONIARD, a little pointed dagger, very sharp edged; borne in the hand, or at the girdle, or hid in the pocket. The word is formed from the French *poignard*, and that from *poignée*, "handful."—The poniard was anciently in very great use; but it is now in good measure set aside, except among assassins.—Sword and poniard were the ancient arms of duelists; and are said to continue still so among the Spaniards. The practice of sword and poinard still make a part of the exercise taught by the masters of defence.

PONTEFRACT, or POMFRET, a town of the West Riding of Yorkshire in England, situated on the river Are. It is said to take its name from a broken bridge, which is supposed to have been laid anciently over that marshy spot called the *Wash*. Here are the ruins of a noble old castle, where Richard II. was barbarously murdered, and two of Edward V.'s uncles. The collegiate chapel of St Clement, which had a dean, three prebendaries, &c. is still distinguishable in it. This town has a good market, and fairs for horses, sheep, and other cattle. It is a corporation, governed by a mayor, recorder, aldermen, and burgesses, and gives title of earl to the family of Fermor. In the reign of queen Elizabeth, 200 l. was left by George Talbot, earl of Shrewsbury, to be lent for ever, at 5 l. a time, on proper security, for three years, to the poor artificers of the town; and Thomas Wentworth, esquire, ancestor to the marquis of Rockingham, left 200 l. to the charity-school. A branch of the great Roman military way, called *Ermin-street*, which passed from Lincoln to York, may be traced betwixt this town and Doncaster. The adjacent country yields plenty of limestone, together with liquorice and skirrets. W. Long. 1. 5. N. Lat. 53. 42.

PONTIFEX, PONTIF, or *High priest*, a person who has the superintendance and direction of divine worship, as the offering of sacrifices and other religious solemnities. The Romans had a college of pontifs; and over these a sovereign pontif, or pontifex maximus, instituted by Numa, whose function it was to prescribe the ceremonies each god was to be worshipped withal, compose the rituals, direct the vestals, and for a good while to perform the business of augury, till, on some superstitious occasion, he was prohibited intermeddling therewith. The office of the college of pontifs was to assist the high-priest in giving judgment in all causes relating to religion, inquiring into the lives and manners of the inferior priests, and punishing them if they saw occasion, &c. The Jews too had their pontifs; and among the Romanists, the pope is still styled the *sovereign pontif*.

PONTIFICATE, is used for the state or dignity of a pontif or high priest; but more particularly in modern writers, for the reign of a pope.

PONTON, or PONTOON, in war, a kind of flat-bottomed boat, whose carcass of wood is lined within and without with tin: they serve to lay bridges over rivers for the artillery and army to march over. The French pontoons, and those of most other powers, are made of copper on the outside: though these cost more at first, yet they last much longer than those of tin; and when worn out, the copper sells nearly for as much as it cost at first; but when ours are rendered useless, they sell for nothing. Our pontoons are 21 feet long, 5 feet broad broad, and depth within 2 feet 1.5 inches.

PONTOON-*Carriage*, is made with two wheels only, and two long side-pieces, whose fore ends are supported by a limber; and serves to carry the pontoon, boards, cross timbers, anchors, and every other thing necessary for making a bridge.

PONTOON-*Bridge*, is made of pontoons slipped into the water, and placed about five or six feet asunder; each fastened with an anchor, when the river has a strong current; or to a strong rope that goes across the river, running through the rings of the pontoons. Each boat has an anchor, cable, baulks, and chests. The baulks are about five or six inches square, and 21 feet long. The chests are boards joined together by wooden bars, about three feet broad, and 12 feet long. The baulks are laid across the pontoons at some distance from one another, and the chests upon them joined close; which makes a bridge in a very short time, capable of supporting any weight.

PONTUS, the name of an ancient kingdom of Asia, bounded on the east by Colchis, on the west by the river Halys, on the north by the Euxine Sea, and on

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on the south by Armenia Minor. Some derive the name of *Pontus* from the neighbouring sea, commonly called by the Latins *Pontus Euxinus;* others from an ancient king named *Pontus*, who imparted his name both to the country and the sea; but Bochart deduces it from the Phœnician word *botno*, signifying a silberd, as if that nut abounded remarkably in this place. But this derivation seems to be very far fetched; and the common opinion that the country derived its name from the sea, seems by far the most probable. The kingdom was divided into three parts; the first, named *Pontus Galaticus*, extending from the river Halys to the Thermodon; the second, named *Pontus Polemonaicus*, extended from the Thermodon to the borders of *Pontus Cappadocicus;* and this last extended from Pontus Polemonaicus to Colchis, having Armenia Minor and the upper stream of the Euphrates for its southern boundary.

1 Etymology of the name

It is commonly believed, that the first inhabitants of Pontus were descended from Tubal; but in process of time mixed with Cappadocians, Paphlagonians, and other foreign nations, besides many Greek colonies which settled in those parts, and maintained their liberty till the time of Mithridates the Great and Pharnaces. The first king of this country whom we find mentioned in history is Artabazes, who had the crown bestowed on him by Darius Hystaspes. The next was Rhodobates, who reigned in the time of Darius Nothus. After him came Mithridates, who, refusing to pay the usual tribute to the Persians, was defeated by Artaxerxes Mnemon; but a peace was soon after concluded by the mediation of Tissaphernes. Besides this, we hear nothing of him farther than that he was treacherously taken prisoner by Clearchus afterwards tyrant of Heraclea, and obliged to pay a large sum for his ransom.

2 Artabazes the first king.

3 Mithridates I.

Mithridates I. was succeeded by Ariobarzanes, who being appointed by Artaxerxes governor of Lydia, Ionia, and Phrygia, employed the forces that were under his care in the extending of his own dominions, and subduing those of his natural prince. The king of Persia sent one Autophrodates against him; but Ariobarzanes, having with great promises prevailed on Agesilaus and Timothæus the Athenian to come to his assistance, obliged Autophrodates to retire. He then rewarded Agesilaus with a great sum of money, and bestowed on Timotheus the cities of Sestos and Abydos, which he had lately taken from the Persians. He used his utmost endeavours to reconcile the Lacedæmonians and Thebans; but, not being able to bring the latter to any reasonable terms, he assisted the Lacedemonians with vast sums of money. The Athenians shewed so much respect for this prince, that they not only made him free of their city, but granted both him and his children whatever they asked of them. He was murdered in the 28th year of his reign by one Mithridates, whom authors suppose to have been his son. This happened at the time that Alexander the Great invaded Asia, so that Pontus for a time fell under the power of the Macedonians.

4 Ariobarzanes shakes off the Macedonian yoke.

In the reign of Antigonus, Mithridates the son of Ariobarzanes shook off the Macedonian yoke, the particulars of which event are related as follow: Antigonus having dreamed that he had a field in which gold grew after the manner of corn, and that Mithridates cut it down and carried it into Pontus, began to be very jealous of him, and ordered him to be put to death privately. But Mithridates, having got notice of the king's intention, withdrew into Paphlagonia, attended only by six horsemen. Here, being joined by many others, he possessed himself of Ciniatum, a strong hold situated near mount Olgasys; from whence, as his army continually increased, he made an irruption into Cappadocia; and, having driven the commanders of Antigonus from that part which borders upon Pontus, he entered his paternal kingdom, which, in spite of the utmost efforts of Antigonus, he held for the space of 26 years, and transmitted to his posterity.

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Under the reigns of Mithridates III. Ariobarzanes II. and Mithridates IV. the immediate successors of Mithridates II. nothing remarkable happened. But Mithridates V. made war on the inhabitants of Sinope, a city on the coast of Paphlagonia. He made himself master of all the adjacent places; but finding the whole peninsula on which Sinope itself stood well fortified and garrisoned, not only by the inhabitants, but by their allies the Rhodians, he abandoned the enterprize. He afterwards proved a great friend to the Rhodians, and assisted them with money to repair the losses they had sustained by an earthquake. He entered also into a strict alliance with Antiochus the Great, who married one of his daughters named *Laodice*.

5 Pharnaces I differs with the Romans.

After the death of Mithridates V. his son Pharnaces I. attacking the city of Sinope, unexpectedly took it by storm. On this the Rhodians sent ambassadors to Rome, complaining of the behaviour of the king of Pontus; but Pharnaces was so far from being intimidated by their threats, that he invaded the territories of Eumenes their great ally. The latter sent ambassadors to Rome, and entered into an alliance with Ariarathes king of Cappodocia. Pharnaces in his turn sent ambassadors to Rome, complaining of Eumenes and Ariarathes; upon which some Romans were sent into Asia to inquire into the state of matters. These found Eumenes and his associates willing to accommodate the difference, but Pharnaces in a quite opposite disposition, which they accordingly reported at Rome.

In the mean time a war was commenced between Eumenes and Pharnaces; but the latter, being disappointed of assistance from Seleucus king of Syria, whom the Romans would not allow to join him, was at last forced to sue for peace, which was granted him upon the following conditions: That he should forthwith withdraw his forces from Galatia, and disannul all engagements and alliances with the inhabitants of that country; that he should in like manner evacuate Paphlagonia, and send back such as he had from thence carried into slavery; that he should restore to Ariarathes all the places which he had taken during the war, the hostages of both kings, all their prisoners without ransom, and moreover should deliver up to them such of their subjects as from the first breaking out of the war had fled to him; that he should return to Morzias, a petty king in these parts, and to Ariarathes, 900 talents which he had seized in the war, and pay down 300 more to Eumenes as a fine for invading his dominions without provocation. Mithridates

7 Concludes a most disadvantageous peace.

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dates, king of Armenia, having in this war joined Pharnaces, was, by the articles of the treaty, obliged to pay 300 talents to Ariarathes for having assisted his enemy contrary to an alliance at that time subsisting between them. Soon after, Pharnaces died, and left the kingdom to his son Mithridates VI. more weakened by this peace than by the most destructive war.

8 Mithridates the Great, a cruel prince.

The new king entered into an alliance with the Romans, and proved such a faithful friend, that he was rewarded by the senate with Phrygia Major, and honoured with the title of the friend and ally of the people of Rome. After a long and prosperous reign, he was murdered by some of his intimate acquaintance, and was succeeded by his son Mithridates VII. surnamed the *Great*.

The new prince, though not exceeding 13 years of age, began his reign with most inhuman acts of cruelty to his mother and nearest relations. His father, by his last will, had appointed him and his mother joint-heirs to the kingdom; but he, claiming the whole, threw her into prison, where she soon died thro' the hard usage she met with. Those to whom the care of his education was committed, observing him to be of a cruel and unruly temper, made various attempts on his life, but could never effect their design, as the king was always on his guard, and armed, in that tender age, against all kind of treachery, without showing the least diffidence.

9 His extraordinary qualities.

In his youth Mithridates took care to inure himself to hardships, passing whole months in the open air, employed in the exercise of hunting, and often taking his rest amidst the frozen snow. When he came of age he married his sister named *Laodice*, by whom he had a son named *Pharnaces*. After this he took a journey through many different kingdoms of Asia, having nothing less in view than the whole continent. He learned their different languages, of which he is said to have spoken 22; took an estimate of their strength; and above all viewed narrowly their strong holds and fortified towns. In this journey he spent three years; during which time, a report being spread abroad that he was dead, his wife Laodice had a criminal conversation with one of the lords of her court, and had a son by him. When her husband returned, she presented him with a poisoned bowl; but Mithridates had accustomed himself to take poison from his infancy, so that it had now no other effect than to hasten the destruction of his wife, which very soon took place, together with all those who had been any way accessory to her disloyalty and incontinence.

The king now began to put in execution his schemes of conquest. However, he certainly took the wrong method by attacking first those nations which were immediately under the protection of Rome, and thus at once provoking that powerful people to fall upon him. He began with Paphlagonia, which the Romans had declared a free state. This country he easily reduced, and divided between himself and Nicomedes king of Bithynia, at that time his ally. The Romans remonstrated; but Mithridates, instead of paying any regard to their remonstrances, invaded Galatia, which was immediately under their protection. This he also reduced, and then turned his eyes on Cappadocia. But as the kingdom of Cappadocia was at that time held by Ariarathes, who was a great favourite of the Romans, and married to the sister of Mithridates, the latter hired an assassin to dispatch Ariarathes, after which he thought he might succeed better in his designs. After the death of Ariarathes, Cappadocia was invaded by Nicomedes king of Bithynia, who drove out the son, and married the widow of Ariarathes. This gave Mithridates a plausible pretence for invading Cappadocia; which he instantly did, and drove Nicomedes quite out of the country. Thus Mithridates gained considerable reputation, not only as a warrior, but as a just and good-natured prince; for as it was not known that he had any hand in the murder of Ariarathes, every one imagined that he had undertaken the war against Nicomedes, merely to revenge the quarrel of his nephew, and to restore him to his right. To keep up the farce a little longer, Mithridates actually withdrew his troops out of the country, and left the young prince master of the kingdom. In a short time, however, he began to press the young king of Cappadocia to recal the assassin Gordius, who had murdered his father: but this the king of Cappadocia refused with indignation; and Mithridates, being determined on a quarrel at all events, took the field with an army of 80,000 foot, 10,000 horse, and 600 chariots armed with scythes. With this force he imagined he should carry all before him: but, finding the king of Cappadocia ready to oppose him with a force no way inferior to his own, he had recourse to treachery; and inviting his nephew to a conference, stabbed him, in the sight of both armies, with a dagger which he had concealed in the plaits of his garment. This barbarous and unexpected piece of treachery had such an effect on the Cappadocians that they threw down their arms, and suffered Mithridates, without opposition, to seize upon all their strong holds. He resigned the kingdom, however, to his son, a child of eight years of age. The care of the young prince, and of the whole kingdom, he committed to Gordius; but the Cappadocians, disdaining to be ruled by such a scandalous assassin, placed on the throne the brother of Ariarathes, who had kept himself concealed in some part of Asia. His reign, however, was of short duration; he being soon after driven out by Mithridates, and the Cappadocians again reduced. The unhappy prince died of grief; and in him ended the family of Pharnaces, who had ruled Cappadocia from the time of Cyrus the Great.

10 Conquers several countries.

11 Causes the king of Cappadocia to be murdered.

12 Assassinates his own nephew.

Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, being now greatly afraid of Mithridates, and supposing that his own dominions would next fall a prey to the ambitious conqueror, suborned a youth of a comely and majestic aspect to pretend that he was a third son of Ariarathes, to go to Rome, and demand the kingdom of Cappadocia as his just right. He was received by the senate with the greatest kindness, and Laodice the wife of Nicomedes even confirmed the deceit by her oath. But in the mean time Mithridates having got intelligence of the plot, sent notice of it by Gordius to the Romans, so that the imposture was soon known at Rome also. The consequence of this was, that the senate commanded Mithridates to relinquish Cappadocia, and Nicomedes that part of Paphlagonia which he possessed; declaring both these countries free. The Cappadocians protested that they could not live without

13 Nicomedes king of Bithynia attempts to deceive the Romans.

14 The deceit exposed by Mithridates.

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out a king; upon which they were allowed to choose one of their own nation. Mithridates used all his interest in favour of Gordius; but he being excluded by the Romans, one Ariobarzanes was chosen by the majority of votes.

15 Ariobarzanes settled on the throne of Cappadocia by the Romans, but driven out by Mithridates.

To enforce this election, Sylla was sent into Cappadocia. He had the character of an ambassador, but the real intent of his coming was to disappoint the ambitious designs of Mithridates. With an handful of forces he defeated a numerous army of Cappadocians and Armenians commanded by Gordius, and settled Ariobarzanes on the throne. But no sooner was Sylla gone, than Mithridates stirred up Tigranes king of Armenia against Ariobarzanes, who without making any resistance fled to Rome, and Tigranes restored the kingdom to Ariarathes the son of Mithridates. At the same time died the king of Bithynia; upon which Mithridates immediately invaded that country, and drove out Nicomedes the natural son of the late king. But the expelled prince, having fled to Rome, and being assisted by that powerful republic, the king of Pontus was soon obliged to abandon Bithynia and Cappadocia.

16 Who engages in a war with the Romans.

The Romans now being exceedingly jealous of the power and ambition of Mithridates, resolved to humble him at all events. For this purpose they sent ambassadors to the kings of Bithynia and Cappadocia, desiring them to make frequent inroads into the neighbouring territories of Mithridates, and behave there as they pleased; assuring them of powerful assistance in case they should have occasion. Ariobarzanes could not by any means be induced to provoke so powerful a neighbour; but Nicomedes being induced, partly by promises, and partly by menaces, to comply, entered Pontus, where he laid waste whole provinces with fire and sword. Mithridates complained to the Roman legates: but they replied, that he himself had been the first aggressor; that Nicomedes had only paid him in his own coin, and that they would not allow him to hurt their friend and ally. Upon this, Mithridates, entering Cappadocia with a numerous army, put to flight the united forces of Ariobarzanes and Altinius the Roman legate; thus making himself once mote master of this kingdom. In the mean time he sent ambassadors to Rome, complaining of the proceedings of Nicomedes: but his ambassadors met with a very indifferent reception; being enjoined to tell their master, that he must either restore the kingdom of Cappadocia to Ariobarzanes, and make peace with Nicomedes, or be accounted an enemy of the Roman people. With this answer they were commanded to depart the city that very day, and told that no more ambassadors could be admitted till such time as their commands were obeyed.

17 Defeats Ariobarzanes and Altinius.

In the mean time both parties prepared for war. The Roman legates in Asia drew together all the forces they could muster in Bithynia, Cappadocia, Paphlagonia, and Galatia; and, being joined by Cassius governor of Asia, took the field against Mithridates in the year 89 B. C. They divided their army into several small bodies: Cassius encamped on the confines of Bithynia and Galatia; Manius Aquilius with his body possessed himself of the avenues leading from Pontus into Bithynia; Quintus Oppius secured the entrance into Cappadocia; and the admirals Minucius Rufus and C. Popilius lay with a fleet of 300 sail at Byzantium, to prevent the enemy from entering the Euxine sea. Each of the generals had under his command an army of 40,000 men; besides a body of 50,000 foot and 6000 horse brought to their assistance by Nicomedes.

On the other hand, Mithridates having invited several of the neighbouring nations to join him, collected an army of 250,000 foot, 50,000 horse, 130 chariots armed with scythes; besides 300 ships and 100 galleys. Part of this force he detached against Nicomedes; and utterly defeated him, though much superior in number, as he was taking possession of an advantageous post by order of Cassius. Another part he detached against Manius Aquilius, whom he also defeated with the loss of 10,000 killed on the spot, and 3000 taken prisoners; on which the other Roman generals abandoned their posts, the fleet also dispersed, and most of the ships were either taken or sunk by the admirals of Mithridates.

18 And Nicomedes and Manius Aquilius.

19 Overruns Asia Minor.

The king of Pontus now resolving to improve the opportunity, and drive the Romans entirely out of Asia, over-ran all Phrygia, Mysia, Asia Proper, Caria, Lycia, Pamphylia, Paphlagonia, and Bithynia, with all the rest of the countries which had either belonged to or sided with the Romans, as far as Ionia. He was received every where with the greatest demonstrations of joy; the inhabitants flocking to him in white garments, and calling him their father, deliverer, their god, and the great and sole lord of all Asia. What gained him the affections of the people was his kind usage to the prisoners he had taken in the two engagements above-mentioned; for he not only sent them all home without ransom, but furnished them with plenty of provisions, and money sufficient to defray their expences by the way. Ambassadors flocked to him from all parts; and among others, from Laodicea on the Lycus, to whom the king promised his protection, provided they delivered up to him Q. Oppius governor of Pamphylia, who had fled thither for protection. This request was readily complied with; Oppius was sent to him in chains, with lictors walking before him in derision of the Roman pride and ostentation. Mithridates was overjoyed to see a Roman general and proconsul in his power; and his joy was soon after increased by the arrival of Manius Aquilius, whom the Lesbians, revolting from the Romans, sent to him in fetters, together with many other Romans of distinction who had taken shelter among them. As he had been the chief author of the war, Mithridates led him about with him wherever he went, either bound on an ass, or on foot coupled with one Bastarnes a public malefactor, compelling him to proclaim to the crowds who came to see him, that he was Manius Aquilius the Roman legate. When he came to Pergamus, he caused him first to be publicly whipped, then to be put on the rack, and lastly melted gold to be poured down his throat.

20 Puts Aquilius to death.

Mithridates being now looked upon as invincible, all the free cities of Asia received him as their sovereign, contributing large sums towards the defraying the expences of the war; by which means he became possessed of such treasures as enabled him to keep several numerous armies in the field for five years without levying any taxes on his subjects. As many Roman

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man citizens were dispersed in the provinces which Mithridates had subdued, he considered these as so many spies who would not fail to send an account of his proceedings to Rome: for which reason he resolved to cut them all off at once by a general massacre; which barbarous policy, it is said, had never been heard of till his time, but has been since practised by other nations. He dispatched private letters to all the governors and magistrates of the cities where the Romans resided, enjoining them on pain of death, and the entire destruction of their country, to cause all the Italian race, women and children not excepted, to be murdered on the 30th day from the date of his letters, and to let their bodies lie unburied in the open fields. One moiety of their goods was to be forfeited to the king, and the other bestowed as a reward on the assassins. Whatever slave murdered his master was to receive his liberty, and one half of the debt was to be remitted to the debtor that should kill his creditor. Whoever concealed an Italian, under any pretence whatever, was to be punished with immediate death. On the fatal day, all the gates of the cities being shut, and the avenues kept with soldiers, the king's orders were proclaimed, which caused an universal horror, not only among the unhappy victims themselves, but among those who had any feelings of humanity, at seeing themselves obliged either to betray and murder their innocent guests, friends, and relations, or to become liable to a cruel death. However, as most of the Asiatics bore a mortal hatred to the Romans, and were moreover animated by the promise of an ample reward, the orders were without delay put in execution. The inhabitants of Ephesus, where Mithridates then resided, dragged such as had taken sanctuary in the temple of Diana from the very statue of the goddess, and put them to the sword. The Pergamenians discharged showers of darts upon them as they embraced the statues in the temple of Esculapius. At Adramyttium in Mysia many were murdered in the water, while they were attempting, with their children on their backs, to swim over to the island of Lesbos. The Caunians, who not long before had been delivered from the yoke of the Rhodians, and restored to their ancient privileges, excelled all the rest in cruelty: for, as if they had apostatised from human nature, they took pleasure in tormenting and butchering the innocent children before their mothers eyes; some of them running distracted, and others dying with grief at a sight which nature could not bear. The Trallians were the only people on the continent who could not have the cruelty to imbrue their hands in the blood of the innocent Italians. However, as the king's orders were peremptory, they hired one Theophilus a Paphlagonian to dispatch the few Romans that lived among them. He, having shut them all up together in the temple of Concord, first cut off their hands as they embraced the statues of the gods, and then hacked them in pieces. Many Romans were saved on the floating islands of Lydia called *Calaminæ*, where they concealed themselves till such time as they found an opportunity of escaping out of Asia. Nevertheless, according to Plutarch and Dion, 150,000 Roman citizens were massacred on that day; but, according to others, only 80,000.

21 Cruelty massacres all the Romans in Asia.

Mithridates having now got rid of those whom he was in dread of on the continent, embarked great part of his forces in order to reduce the islands of the Archipelago. At Cos he was gladly received, and had delivered up to him the young Alexander, son of Alexander king of Egypt, who, being driven out of that country, was killed by Chareas a sea-captain as he was retiring in a small vessel to Cyprus. With the young prince, they put into the king's hands vast sums of money, with all the golden vessels and jewels, to an immense value, which his grandmother Cleopatra had been amassing for many years. To the young prince Mithridates gave an education suitable for a king's son, but kept the treasures for himself. Here likewise he found 800 talents in ready money, which, at the first breaking out of the war, had been deposited by the Jews of Asia, and were designed for the temple of Jerusalem.

22 Reduces the island of Cos.

From Cos Mithridates steered his course for Rhodes, where at that time all the Romans, who had escaped the massacre above-mentioned, found a sanctuary, and, amongst others, L. Cassius the proconsul. The Rhodians, however, being very expert in maritime affairs, Mithridates did not think proper to venture an engagement. As the enemy's fleet advanced, therefore, he retired; but six of the Rhodian ships coming up with 25 of his, a sharp action ensued, in which the Rhodians sunk two of the king's ships, and put the rest to flight. In this encounter, though Mithridates had never seen a sea-fight before, he behaved with great intrepidity; but one of the ships of his own squadron falling foul of that which carried him, he was very near being taken prisoner. From this time forth he abhorred the sea, and took an aversion to all the Chians, because the pilot of that ship was a Chian. However, he again appeared before the island; but was forced anew to leave it with disgrace, and to give over all thoughts of reducing it.

23 But fails in his attempt upon Rhodes.

Mithridates now retired into Asia, with a design to settle the civil government of the countries which he had conquered, committing the care of the war to his generals. Archelaus, his generalissimo, was sent into Greece with an army of 120,000 men; where, by treachery, he made himself master of Athens, and either put to the sword or sent to Mithridates all those who favoured or were suspected to favour the Romans. From Athens he dispatched parties to reduce the neighbouring castles and the island of Delos, which they did accordingly; but Orobius, a Roman general, hearing that the enemy kept no guards, but passed their time in carousing and debauchery, fell upon them unexpectedly, and cut off the whole party, except Apellicon the comander.

24 His generals reduce all Greece.

In the mean time, Metrophanes, another of the king's generals, entering Eubœa, laid waste the whole country, exerting his rage chiefly against the cities of Demetrias and Magnesia, which refused to open their gates to him. But as he was sailing off with a great booty, Bryttius, the prætor or governor of Macedonia, coming up with him, sunk some of his ships, and took others, putting all the prisoners to the sword. Mithridates, upon the news of this loss, sent his son Ariarathes with a powerful army to invade Macedonia; which he soon reduced, together with the kingdom of Thrace, driving the Romans every where before him. The generals whom he sent into other

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quarters were no leſs ſucceſsful; ſo that Mithridates had, according to Aulus Gellius, 25 different nations who paid him homage. The ſame author adds, that he was ſkilled in every one of their various languages, ſo that he could converſe with the natives without an interpreter. Among theſe nations we find the Rhoxani, now the Ruſſians or Muſcovites, whom Deiphontus, one of the king's generals, brought under ſubjection, after having ſlain in an engagement 50,000 of the barbarians.

All this time the Romans had been too much taken up with their own domeſtic quarrels to take ſuch effectual meaſures as they otherwiſe would have done for checking the progreſs of Mithridates. But at laſt, having received certain advice that the king deſigned to invade Italy, and that he had even been ſolicited to do ſo by ſome of the revolted Italians, they ſent againſt him Lucius Sylla, who had already given ſufficient proofs of his courage, conduct, and experience in war. He had with him only five legions and a few cohorts. With this inconſiderable force he landed in Attica, and in a ſhort time made himſelf maſter of the capital; Archelaus not daring, or, according to others, through treachery, not caring to engage him. As Sylla had but a few frigates, he ſent Lucullus to the iſland of Rhodes, with orders to the Rhodians to join him with their fleet. The undertaking was very dangerous, as the king's fleet in a manner covered the ſea. However, Lucullus, deſpiſing all danger, ventured out, and ſailed, without meeting with any perverſe accident, to Syria, Egypt, Libya, and Cyprus; from whence he returned with ſuch ſupplies of ſhips and experienced mariners, as enabled Sylla, after their conjunction with the Rhodians, to act offenſively by ſea alſo. Archelaus now diſpatched meſſengers to Taxiles, who commanded in Thrace and Macedon, deſiring him to join him with all his forces; which the other readily did, and between both muſtered an army of 120,000 men. Sylla met them near Cheroneæ, with only 15,000 foot and 1500 horſe; but gave them a moſt dreadful overthrow, no fewer than 110,000 of the Aſiatics being ſlaughtered, while the Romans loſt only 12 men.

25 Sylla ſent againſt him.

26 Who totally defeats his generals in Greece.

This ſucceſs having raiſed envy and jealouſy againſt Sylla in Rome, the ſenate ſent Lucius Valerius Flaccus, the conſul of that year, with two legions into Aſia, in appearance to attack Mithridates on that ſide, but with private inſtructions to fall upon Sylla himſelf, if they found him diſaffected to the ſenate. As Flaccus was a man of no experience in war, C. Fimbria, a ſenator of great repute among the ſoldiery, was appointed to attend him with the character of legate and lieutenant-general. Sylla was at that time in Bœotia; but, hearing what had happened at Rome, he marched with all expedition into Theſſaly, with a deſign to meet Flaccus, who, he expected, was to land in that province. But no ſooner had he left Bœotia, than the country was overrun by an army of Aſiatics, under the command of Dorylaus the king's chief favourite. On this advice Sylla returned into Bœotia, where he gained two ſignal victories, which put an end to the war in Greece. In the firſt of theſe Dorylaus loſt 15,000 of his men according to ſome, or 200,000 according to others; and in the next all the reſt. In this laſt engagement 20,000 were driven into a river, where they all periſhed; an equal number were purſued into a marſh, and entirely cut off; the reſt were killed in the heat of battle, the Romans giving no quarter to men who had treated their fellow-citizens after ſuch a barbarous manner in Aſia. Plutarch tells us, that the marſhes were dyed with blood; that the courſe of the river was ſtopped by the dead bodies; and that even in his time, that is, near 200 years after, a great number of bows, helmets, coats of mail, and ſwords, were found buried in the mud. Archelaus, who had joined Dorylaus with a body of 10,000 men a few days before the battle, lay three days ſtripped among the ſlain till he found a ſmall veſſel which carried him to Eubœa, where he gathered what forces he could, but was never again able to appear in the field. Indeed Livy tells us, that Archelaus betrayed the king's cauſe; and Aurelius Victor, that the king's fleet was intercepted by Sylla through the treachery of Archelaus: adding, that there was a good underſtanding between theſe two commanders, as was plain from Sylla's beſtowing upon Archelaus 10,000 acres of land near the city of Chalcis in Eubœa. Strabo alſo informs us, that Archelaus was afterwards greatly eſteemed and careſſed by Sylla and the ſenate; but Sylla himſelf in his commentaries, and Dio, endeavour to clear Archelaus from all ſuſpicion of treachery.

27 Flaccus and Fimbria ſent into Aſia.

28 Sylla gains two other victories in Greece.

In the mean time, Sylla having given up Bœotia to be plundered by his ſoldiers, marched into Theſſaly, where he took up his winter-quarters, cauſed his old ſhips to be refitted and ſeveral new ones built, in order to paſs over into Aſia in the beginning of the ſpring, that he might drive from thence not only Mithridates but his rival Flaccus alſo, whom the ſenate, out of oppoſition to him, had appointed governor of that province. But before he arrived, ſome differences having ariſen between Flaccus and Fimbria, the latter was by the conſul deprived of his command. Upon this Fimbria, having gained over the ſoldiery to his ſide, made war on the conſul, took him priſoner, put him to death, and aſſumed the command of all the Roman forces in Aſia. In this ſtation he behaved with the greateſt cruelty, inſomuch that his name became more odious than even that of Mithridates itſelf. This hatred the king of Pontus endeavoured to improve to his own advantage; and therefore commanded his ſon, by name alſo *Mithridates*, to join Taxiles, Diophantes, and Menander, three of his moſt experienced commanders, to return at the head of a numerous army into Aſia; not doubting, but the inhabitants, thus haraſſed by Fimbria, would ſhake off the Roman yoke when they ſaw ſuch a powerful army in the field ready to protect them. But Fimbria, diſtruſting the Aſiatics, marched out to meet the enemy, and offered them battle before they entered the province. As the king's army was greatly ſuperior to the Romans in number, the latter ſuffered greatly in the engagement, but held out till night parted them, when they withdrew to the oppoſite ſide of a river, which was at a ſmall diſtance from the field of battle. Here they deſigned to intrench themſelves: but in the mean time a violent ſtorm ariſing, Fimbria laid hold of that opportunity to repaſs the

29 Fimbria puts Flaccus to death.

30 Defeats the forces of Mithridates.

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the river and surprise the enemy; of whom he made such havock as they lay in their tents, that only the commanders and some few troops of horse escaped. Among these was the king's son; who, attended by a few horse, got safe to Pergamus, where his father resided. But Fimbria, pursuing him night and day without intermission, entered Pergamus sword in hand; and hearing that both Mithridates and his son had fled from thence a few hours before, he continued his pursuit, and would have taken the king himself, had he not entered Pitane with a considerable body of horse. The place was closely invested by Fimbria; but as he had no ships to block it up by sea also, he sent a messenger to Lucullus, who commanded the Roman navy in Asia, intreating him, as he tendered the welfare of the republic, to make what haste he could to Pitane, and assist him in taking the most inveterate enemy the Romans had. But Lucullus, preferring the gratification of a private pique to the good of his country, refused to come; and thus allowed the fleet of Mithridates to carry him in safety to Mitylene.

31 And besieges the king.

32 Who is suffered by Lucullus to escape.

Soon after the king's departure Fimbria took Pitane by storm, and reduced most of the cities of Asia, particularly Troy, which he took by storm in eleven days, and put most of the inhabitants to the sword, because they had sent an embassy to Sylla, offering to submit to him rather than to Fimbria.—To add to the misfortunes of Mithridates, his fleet was entirely defeated in two engagements by Lucullus; so that he began to be weary of the war, and therefore desired Archelaus to conclude a peace upon as honourable terms as he could. The king himself had afterwards also a conference with Sylla, and a peace was concluded in 85 B. C. on the following terms, viz. That Mithridates should relinquish all his conquests, and content himself with his paternal dominions which were confined within the limits of Pontus: that he should immediately resign Bithynia to Nicomedes, and Cappadocia to Ariobarzanes, and release without ransom all the prisoners he had taken during the war: that he should pay to the Romans 2000, or as others will have it 3000 talents, and deliver up to Sylla 80 ships with all their arms and ammunition, and 500 archers; and lastly, that he should not molest such cities or persons as had during the war revolted to him and sided with the Romans.

33 Peace concluded.

Sylla, having thus concluded the war with great glory to himself and advantage to the republic, turned his army against Fimbria; but the latter, finding himself in no condition to oppose his rival by force, had recourse to treachery, and attempted to get Sylla murdered. The plot miscarried, and Fimbria put an end to his own life; upon which Sylla, having now an uncontrouled power in Asia, declared the Chians, Rhodians, Lycians, Magnesians, and Trojans, free, and friends of the people of Rome, by way of reward for their having sided with the Romans: but on the other cities he laid heavy fines; condemning them in one year to pay 20,000 talents, and quartering his soldiers in the houses of those who had shewn disaffection to the Romans. Each private man was to receive of his landlord 16 drachmas a day, and each officer 50; and besides, both were to be supplied with provisions, not only for themselves, but for such of their friends as they thought proper to invite. By these impositions most of the people of Asia were reduced to beggary; especially the inhabitants of Ephesus, who had above all others shown their hatred to the Romans. Sylla then, having collected immense treasures, set sail for Italy; leaving behind him Lucullus with the character of *quæstor*, and Muræna with that of *prætor*.

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The two legions which Fimbria had commanded were given to Muræna, because Sylla suspected them of an inclination to the faction of Marius, whose party he was going to crush at Rome.

Mithridates in the mean time no sooner returned into Pontus, than he set about the reduction of those nations which had revolted from him during the war. He began with the Colchi; who immediately submitted, upon condition that Mithridates would give his son for a king over them. This was complied with; but the old king had thenceforward a jealousy of his son, and therefore first imprisoned and then put him to death. Soon after this, the king having made great preparations under pretence of reducing the Bosphori, a warlike nation who had revolted from him, the Romans began to be jealous. Their jealousy was further increased by Archelaus, who fled to them, and assured them that the preparations of Mithridates were not at all designed against the Bosphori. On hearing this, Muræna invaded Pontus without any farther provocation. The king put him in mind of the articles of peace concluded with Sylla; but Muræna replied that he knew of no such articles; for Sylla had set nothing down in writing, but contented himself with the execution of what had been agreed upon. Having given this answer, the Roman general began to lay waste and plunder the country, without sparing even the treasures or temples consecrated to the gods. Having put all to fire and sword on the frontiers of Pontus towards Cappadocia, he passed the river Halys, and on that side possessed himself of 400 villages without opposition; for Mithridates was unwilling to commit any hostilities before the return of an ambassador whom he had sent to Rome to complain of the conduct of Muræna. At last the ambassador returned, and with him one Callidius; who, in public assembly, commanded Muræna to forbear molesting a friend and ally of the Roman people; but afterwards, calling him aside, he had a private conference with him, in which it is supposed, as he brought no decree of the senate, that he encouraged him to pursue the war. Whatever might be in this, it is certain that Muræna still continued to practise the same hostilities, and even made an attempt on Sinope, where the king resided and the royal treasures were kept. But as the town was well fortified, he was forced to retire with some loss. In the mean time Mithridates himself taking the field, appeared at the head of a powerful army, drove the Romans out of their camp, and forced them, with great slaughter, to save themselves over the mountains into Phrygia; which sudden victory again induced many cities to join Mithridates, and gave him an opportunity once more of driving the Romans out of Cappadocia.

34 Mithridates reduces the nations which had revolted from him.

35 The Romans invade his territories without provocation.

36 But are defeated.

In the mean time Sylla, being created dictator at Rome, sent a messenger to Muræna, charging him in his name not to molest Mithridates, whom he had honoured with the title of a friend and ally of Rome.

Muræna

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Muræna did not think proper to difregard this meffage; and therefore immediately abandoned all the places he had feized, and Mithridates again renounced Cappadocia, giving his own fon as an hoftage of his fidelity. Being then at leifure to purfue his other plans, Mithridates fell upon the Bofpori; and, having foon fubdued them, appointed Machares one of his fons king of the country. But leading his army from thence againft the Achæans, a people bordering on the Colchi, and originally defcended from the Greeks, who returning from Troy had miftaken their way into Greece and fettled there, he was defeated with the lofs of three-fourths of his men. On his return to Pontus, however, he recruited his army, and made vaft preparations to invade them anew; but in the mean time, hearing of Sylla's death, he came to the imprudent refolution of entering into a fecond war with the Romans. Having therefore induced his fon-in-law Tigranes, king of Armenia, to invade Cappadocia, he himfelf entered Paphlagonia at the head of 120,000 foot difciplined after the Roman manner, 16,000 horfe, and 100 chariots armed with fcythes. This country readily fubmitted; after which the king marched into Bithynia, which alfo fubmitted without oppofition; the province of Afia followed the example of the reft; for thefe countries being oppreffed with exorbitant taxes, looked upon him as their deliverer. In entering the cities of Afia, he caufed M. Marius or Varius, whom Sertorius had fent him out of Spain to difcipline his troops, walk before him with the enfigns of confular dignity as if he was the chief magiftrate; the king following as one of his attendants. He made feveral cities free; but at the fame time acquainted the inhabitants that they were indebted to Sertorius for their liberty; and thus, by the connivance of that general, many cities revolted from the Romans without knowing that they had done fo. But in the mean time Julius Cæfar, being at that time at Rhodes whither he had gone to ftudy oratory, and hearing what havock the king's officers made in the adjacent countries, he collected what troops he could, and falling unexpectedly upon them, drove them quite out of the province of Afia.

37 Engages in a new war with the Romans.

38 Lucullus and Cotta fent againft him.

The Roman fenate, now finding a war unavoidable, appointed Lucullus to manage it. The other conful Cotta, having folicited an employment in this war, was fent with a fleet to guard the Propontis and defend Bithynia. Lucullus having raifed one legion in Italy, paffed over with it into Afia, where he was joined by four others, two of which, as they had ferved under Fimbria, proved at firft very mutinous and refractory; nor were the other two much better, having immerfed in the Afiatic luxuries. The difciplining of thefe troops took up a confiderable time, which was prejudicial to the Roman affairs; for almoft all the Afiatics were ready to revolt, and Mithridates was making the greateft preparations. One of his armies was ordered to march into Cappadocia, under the command of Diophantus Matharus, in order to oppofe Lucullus if he fhould attempt to enter Pontus on that fide; another, commanded by Mithridates in perfon, confifted of 150,000 foot, 12,000 horfe, and 100 chariots armed with fcythes; a third army, commanded by Marius and Eumachus, two generals of great experience in war, was encamped in the neighbourhood of Heraclea in Pontus.

The beginning of the war proved favourable to Mithridates. Cotta being defired by Lucullus to keep his fleet within the harbour, as being inferior to that of Mithridates, refolved to take the firft opportunity of fighting the king by land, not doubting of an eafy victory. Having for this purpofe collected all the forces he could, Cotta difpatched his legate, P. Rutilius, with a confiderable body to obferve the motions of the enemy. This commander being met by Marius and Eumachus, an engagement enfued, in which the Romans were defeated, and the greateft part of them, together with their commander, cut in pieces. The fame misfortune befel feveral other officers of diftinction fent out to oppofe Mithridates; who, being elated with fuccefs, ordered his admiral to fail into the very harbour, and fire the Roman fleet. This was accordingly performed without the leaft oppofition from Cotta; and 60 fhips were taken, funk, or burnt, on that occafion.

39 Mithridates is at firft fuccefsful.

Thefe victories having increafed the rebellious difpofition of the Afiatics, made Lucullus haften his march in order to ftop the progrefs of the enemy. But finding the king's army much more numerous than he expected, he thought proper to decline an engagement. However, feveral fkirmifhes happened, in which the Romans had always fo much the advantage, that they became impatient for a general engagement. But Lucullus did not at this time choofe to run fo great a rifk; and therefore Mithridates, feeing he could not force the Romans to a battle, decamped in the night-time, and by day-break reached Cyzicum, a moft important city, and greatly attached to the Romans. Lucullus purfued him; and, falling on his rear, killed 10,000, and took 13,000 prifoners. After this, the Roman general, by a manœuvre, gained an important pafs, which enabled him to cut off all communication between the army of Mitridates and the neighbouring country. The king, feeing himfelf thus in danger of famine, redoubled his efforts to gain the city; but finding that he could not batter down the walls, he refolved to undermine them. In this alfo he was unfuccefsful; the befieged funk countermines, and had very near taken the king himfelf in one of his own mines. In the mean time, winter coming on, the army of Mithridates was fo diftreffed for want of provifions, that many died of hunger, while the furvivors were forced to feed on the flefh of their dead companions. The famine was followed by a plague; which deftroyed fuch numbers, that Mithridates was obliged to think of a retreat; and even this was become very dangerous. However, he laid hold of the opportunity when Lucullus went away to befiege a neighbouring caftle, and fent off the greateft part of his cavalry in the night; ordering them not to halt till they were out of the reach of the enemy. But Lucullus having got intelligence of their march, fuddenly returned, and purfued them fo clofe, that he came up with them as they were paffing a river, took 600 horfe, all their beafts of burden, 15,000 men, and put the reft to the fword. On his return he fell in with Ariftonicus the king's admiral, whom he took, juft as he was ready to fail with a large fum of money defigned to bribe the Roman army. In the mean time Mithridates, finding himfelf reduced to the laft extremity, embarked in the night-time with the

40 But is reduced to great ftraits by Lucullus.

41 Who cuts off great numbers of his men.

the greatest part of the forces, while Marius and Eumachus, with 30,000 men, made the best of their way to Lampsacus. But being closely pursued by the Romans, they were overtaken at the river Æsopus, which at that time was not fordable, by reason of its having been swelled by heavy rains. Twenty thousand were killed on the spot; nor could a single man have escaped, had not the Asiatics scattered great quantities of gold and silver in the way, that the march of the Romans might be retarded by their stopping to gather it up. Lucullus on his return entered Cyzicum amidst the acclamations of the citizens; who afterwards instituted public sports in honour of him, which they called *Lucullea*. The city was declared free, and all the privileges, exemptions, and immunities bestowed upon the citizens which were enjoyed by the inhabitants of Rome itself.

42 Lucullus gains a great victory at sea.

From Cyzicum, Lucullus marched along the coast of the Hellespont till he came to Troas; where he equipped his fleet, and put to sea in quest of Marius, Alexander, and Dionysius, three of the king's general's, who had a fleet of 50 ships, with 10,000 land-forces on board. Lucullus came up with them near the island of Lemnos, took 32 of their ships, and put a great number of their land-forces to the sword. The day after the engagement the three generals were discovered in a cave where they had concealed themselves, and dragged from thence to Lucullus; who, after having severely upbraided Marius for fighting against his country, caused him to be put to death. Alexander and Dionysius were reserved for the triumph; but the latter poisoned himself to avoid that disgrace. Lucullus then steered his course for Bithynia, on receiving intelligence that Mithridates had appeared with his fleet on those coasts: but the king having notice of his approach, made what haste he could to gain Pontus, and arrived at Heraclea on board a pirate named *Selemus*; with whom he was obliged to trust himself, his fleet being dispersed by a violent storm, and the ship that carried him cast away.

43 Farther successes of Lucullus.

In the mean time Mithridates was no less unfortunate by land than by sea. Triarius, one of the officers of Lucullus, reduced the cities of Apamea, Prusa, Prusias, and Nicæa. From thence he marched with all expedition to Nicomedia, where the king himself was, and near which place Cotta lay encamped. But before the two armies could be joined, Mithridates escaped, first to Heraclea, which was betrayed to him, and from thence to Sinope. Nor was Lucullus himself all this time inactive. Having reduced all Paphlagonia and Bithynia, he marched through Cappadocia, and joined Cotta and Triarius at Nicomedia, with a design to invade Pontus; but hearing that Heraclea was in the hands of Mithridates, he dispatched Cotta to reduce that city. Triarius was ordered with the fleet to the Hellespont and Propontis, to intercept the king's fleet, which was daily expected from Spain with supplies from Sertorius. Lucullus himself, with the main strength of the army, pursued his march into Pontus. His army was greatly harassed, especially in the narrow passes between Cappadocia and Pontus, by flying parties of the enemy. But the greatest inconvenience was the want of provisions, as the king's troops had laid waste all the country round; insomuch that Lucullus having lost almost all his beasts of burden, was obliged to take along with the army 30,000 Galatians, each of them carrying a sack of corn on his back. At last, however, he gained the plains of Pontus; where provisions were so plentiful, that an ox was sold for a drachma, and every thing else in proportion.

The Roman general having now carried the war into the enemy's country, divided his forces, and at the same time invested a very strong town named *Amisus*; another called *Eupatoria*, built by Mithridates, and made the place of his residence; and another, named *Themiscyra*, situated on the banks of the Thermodoon. Eupatoria was soon taken, but Themiscyra made a vigorous resistance. The townsmen galled the Romans to such a degree, that, not daring to approach the walls openly, they contented themselves with undermining them: but in this, too, they met with no small difficulty; for the enemy countermined, and often engaged them under ground, letting into the mines bears and other wild beasts, with swarms of bees, which obliged them to abandon their works. However the town was at last obliged to surrender for want of provisions. As for Amisus, Lucullus himself sat down before it: but, finding it strongly fortified, and garrisoned with the flower of the king's troops, the Roman general thought proper to reduce it by famine; and on this occasion his countrymen first complained of him as protracting the war for his own advantage.

In the mean time Mithridates having recruited his shattered army, advanced to Cabiræ, a city not far distant from Amisus. Lucullus, leaving part of the army to continue the siege, marched at the head of the rest to oppose Mithridates. But the king having drawn his cavalry into a general engagement, defeated them with considerable loss, and drove them back to the mountains, through the passes of which Lucullus had lately marched to attack him. This check obliged the Roman general to retire to a rising ground near the city of Cabiræ, where the enemy could not force him to an engagement. Here, provisions beginning to grow scarce, Lucullus sent out strong parties from his army into Cappadocia, the only place from whence he could have supplies. One of these parties entirely defeated Taxiles and Diophantes, two of the king's generals, who had been stationed there to prevent Lucullus from having any communication with the country. The king, upon the news of this defeat, resolved to break up his camp and retire, not questioning but that Lucullus would attack him as soon as his forces returned. This resolution he no sooner imparted to his nobles, than they began privately to send away their most valuable goods; which being found out by the soldiers, they took it in such bad part that no intelligence had been given them, that they plundered their baggage, and put those who had the care of it to the sword. After this they betook themselves to flight, crowding out of the gates in the utmost confusion. The king hastened to stop their flight; but nobody showing him the least respect, he was carried away by the crowd, and in great danger of being trampled to death. Having with difficulty made his escape, he retired with a small retinue, first to Cabiræ, and then to his son-in-law Tigranes king of Armenia. Lucullus dispatched the best part of his cavalry to pursue the fugitives; while he himself, with the rest, invested the camp of Mithridates, where those remained who could not fly with

44 The army of Mithridates mutinies, which obliges the king to fly into Armenia.

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with the rest. The camp was easily taken; but most of the soldiers made their escape, while the Romans, contrary to their general's orders, were busied in plundering. Lucullus then pursued hard after the king; who, being overtaken by a company of Galatians, caused a mule loaded with part of his treasures to be driven in among them, by which means he made his escape while they quarrelled about the booty. Mithridates, remembering in his flight, that he had left his sisters, wives, and concubines at Pharnacia, dispatched an eunuch, named *Bacchus*, or *Bacchides*, with orders to put them all to death, least they should fall into the hands of the enemy; which was accordingly done.

After the flight of Mithridates, the Romans no longer met with any opposition; the king's governors flocking from all parts to put themselves under the protection of the conqueror. Among these was the grandfather of Strabo the geographer, whom the king had disobliged by putting to death his cousin-german Tibias, and his son Theophilus. He was a man of such credit, that it was no sooner heard that he had abandoned the king's party, than 15 other commanders delivered up to Lucullus the places with which they had been intrusted; and about the same time Triarius falling in with the king's fleet near the island of Tenedos, obtained a complete victory, having either taken or sunk 60 of the enemy's vessels.

All this time Cotta had been employed without success in besieging Heraclea, which he could never have reduced without the assistance of Triarius. That commander, having defeated the fleet, soon reduced the town to such distress, that a third part of the garrison died of hunger; upon which the governor, Conacorix, privately agreed with Triarius to deliver one of the gates to him. This was accordingly done; and the Romans, entering, made a terrible slaughter of the helpless inhabitants. But in the mean time Cotta, provoked at seeing himself deprived both of all share of the booty, and the honour of reducing a place before which he had sat so long, fell upon his countrymen as they were busied in plundering; which would have occasioned a great deal of bloodshed, had not Triarius promised to divide the booty equally. Conacorix, in order to conceal his treachery, after marching out of Heraclea, seized on two forts belonging to the Romans; and Triarius being sent to recover them, Cotta, in his absence, plundered the city anew, rifled the temples which the other had spared, put all the citizens he could meet with to the sword, and having carried off every thing valuable, at last set fire to the city in several places, by which means it was soon reduced to ashes. Cotta then, having no farther occasion for his troops, dismissed the auxiliaries, resigned his legions to Lucullus, and put to sea himself in order to return to Rome. But he had scarce got out of the harbour, when part of his ships, being overloaded with the spoils of the city, sunk; and the others were by a violent north wind dashed against the shore, which occasioned the loss of a great part of the booty. However, on his return to Rome, he was highly applauded by the senate, and honoured with the title of *Ponticus*.

Lucullus, having now reduced Pontus, marched against the Chaldeans, Tibarenians, and inhabitants of Armenia Minor; who voluntarily submitted to him, and put him in possession of all their strong holds. From Armenia, he returned before Amissus, which still held out; Callimachus, governor of the place, having harassed the Romans to such a degree by engines of his own contrving, that they had given over their assaults, and contented themselves with blocking it up by land, though the garrison was at the same time plentifully supplied with provisions by sea. Lucullus, on his arrival, summoned the city to surrender, offering the inhabitants very honourable terms; but, being refused, he made a general assault at the time when he knew that Callimachus used to draw off great part of his troops to give them some refpite. The Romans applying their scaling ladders, got over the wall before Callimachus could come to the assistance of those whom he had left to guard it; however, by setting the city on fire, he found means in that confusion to make his escape. Lucullus commanded his men to use their utmost endeavours to save the city; but they being intent only upon plundering, regarded nothing but the furniture. At last the fire was extinguished by a violent shower; and Lucullus, having with much ado restrained his soldiers from committing any farther excesses, repaired the city in some measure before he left it, and suffered the inhabitants to enjoy their possessions in peace.

45 Tigranes defeated by Lucullus.

Nothing was now wanting but the captivity of Mithridates himself to put a final period to the war; and therefore Lucullus demanded him from his son-in-law Tigranes. But though that prince could not be prevailed to see Mithridates on account of his misconduct, he could as little be induced to deliver him up to his enemies. After this refusal, however, he for the first time condescended to see his father-in-law, after he had resided a year and eight months in his dominions. In a private conference held by the two kings, it was agreed, that Tigranes should march against the Romans, and Mithridates with 10,000 horse return into Pontus, where he should make what levies he could, and rejoin Tigranes, before Lucullus, who was then employed in the siege of Sinope, could enter Armenia. But, in the mean time, Sinope having surrendered, Lucullus with all possible expedition marched against Tigranes, and, having drawn him into a general engagement, gave have him an entire defeat, as is related under the article Armenia.

46 Bu: resolves to try another campaign.

Mithridates was marching to his assistance, when he met his son-in law flying with a small retinue to shelter himself in some remote corner of the kingdom. He encouraged him to raise new forces; not doubting but that another campaign would repair all former losses, provided he would commit to his management every thing relating to the war. To this Tigranes agreeing, as thinking him more fit to deal with the Romans than himself, orders were issued out for raising a new army, and all the Armenians able to bear arms summoned to meet at the place of the general rendezvous. Out of these Mithridates choose 70,000 foot, and 35,000 horse; and having trained them up during the winter, after the Roman discipline, in the beginning of the spring he left part of them with Tigranes, and marched himself with the rest into Pontus, where he recovered many important places, and overcame in a pitched battle M. Fabius, whom Lucullus had appointed

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ed governor of that province. Being flushed with this success, as soon as the wounds he received in the engagement suffered him to move, he pursued Fabius, and besieged him in the city of Cabira, whither he had retired; but in the mean time Triarius, who was marching out of Asia to join Lucullus, hearing what distress the Romans were in, hastened to their relief, and appearing unexpectedly on the neighbouring hill, struck such terror into the enemy, that they raised the siege, and made the best of their way into Cappadocia. Triarius pursued them, and got so near them as to be parted only by a river. Here he halted, with a design to pass the river after he had allowed his men some rest; for they were tired out with long marches. But Mithridates was before-hand with him, and crossing the river on a bridge, where he had placed a strong guard, attacked the Romans with great resolution before they had time to refresh themselves. The battle was bloody, and the event doubtful, till the bridge breaking down with the weight of the multitude that passed, the king's troops who had engaged, relying chiefly on their numbers, began to lose courage, seeing they could receive no further assistance; and the Romans charging them with fresh vigour, they betook themselves to a precipitate flight. After this engagement, as winter came on, both armies were glad to retire to their winter-quarters.

47 Mithridates defeated.

During the winter Mithridates raised new forces; and having received considerable supplies from Tigranes, took the field early in the spring, in hopes of driving the Romans quite out of Pontus, before Lucullus, who had work enough on his hands in Armenia, could come to their assistance. With this view he marched straight against Triarius and Sornatius, to whom Lucullus had committed the care and defence of that province; and finding them encamped near the city of Gaziursa, proffered them battle; which they declining, he sent a strong detachment to besiege a castle where the Romans had left all their baggage, hoping they would rather venture an engagement to relieve the place, than lose all they had got with so much toil and labour during the war: neither was he disappointed in his hopes; for though Triarius was for keeping close in his camp till the arrival of Lucullus, whom he daily expected, having acquainted him with the danger, the soldiers hearing that the castle was besieged, declared in a tumultuous manner, that if he did not lead them they would march to the relief of the place without his leave. Triarius being thus forced by his own men to fight, drew out his forces against the king, whose army was three times his number; but while they were upon the point of engaging, both armies were by a violent storm forced to retire their respective camps; but Triarius receiving that very day intelligence of the approach of Lucullus, and fearing he would snatch the victory out of his hands, resolved to make a bold push, and next morning by break of day attack the king in his camp. If he conquered, the glory he thought would be entirely his own; if he were overcome, the enemy could reap no great advantage from his victory, Lucullus being at hand with a powerful army. The king, in that surprise, putting himself at the head of a few troops of his guards, sustained the brunt of the Romans, till the rest of his army drawing up came to his relief, and attacked the enemy with such fury, that the Roman foot were forced to give way, and were driven into a morass, where they were surrounded and great numbers of them cut in pieces.

48 Defeats Triarius.

Their horse were likewise put to flight, and pursued with great slaughter, till a Roman centurion in the king's service, pitying his countrymen, attempted to kill him. The king's life was saved by his breast-plate; but as he received a deep wound in the thigh, he was obliged to give over the pursuit himself, and those that were about him caused the retreat to be sounded, which, as it was unexpected, occasioned a great confusion in the whole army. The centurion was immediately cut in pieces; but the Roman horse in the mean time getting the start of the enemy, found means to make their escape. Above 7000 of the Romans were killed in that battle; and among them 150 centurions and 24 tribunes, the greatest number of officers that had been lost in any engagement to that day. Mithridates being cured of his wound, that he might not for the future be exposed to such dangers, caused all the Romans that served in his army to be formed into one body, as if they were to be sent out on a party, and then ordered them to retire to their tents, where they were all to a man cut in pieces.

49 All the Romans in the service of Mithridates massacred.

The king, however elated with success, yet would not engage Lucullus; but with long marches hastened into Armenia Minor, and encamped upon a hill near the town of Talura, expecting Tigranes, who was advancing with a strong army to join him. Lucullus, in pursuit of Mithridates, marched over the field of battle, leaving those unburied who had fallen in the engagement, which alienated the minds of the soldiery from him, and they began to be very mutinous; being stirred up by Appius Claudius, whom Lucullus had turned out of his command for his vile behaviour, notwithstanding he was nearly related to him, Lucullus having married his sister. The discontent that prevailed in the army came to such a height, that Lucullus was obliged to lie still in his camp all that summer; the soldiers declaring in a mutinous manner, that they would not follow him any longer, nor serve under a general who refused to share the booty with them.

50 Lucullus recalled, which recrieves the affairs of Mithridates

These complaints, and the general discontent that reigned in the army, obliged the senate to recal Lucullus, and appoint Manius Acilius Glabrio, consul of that year, in his room. Glabrio arriving in Bithynia, gave notice by public criers to all the cities, that the senate had discharged Lucullus and his army, and confiscated his goods for protracting the war and refusing to comply with their injunctions. Hereupon Lucullus was abandoned by the greater part of his army, and forced to retire into Galatia, not being in a condition to make head against the joint forces of the two kings; who, laying hold of that opportunity, recovered the best part of Pontus, Bithynia, Cappadocia, and Armenia Minor: for though Glabrio had hastened into Pontus, as if he had intended to engage the enemy and rob Lucullus of the victory, yet, upon the first news of the approach of the two kings, he thought fit to retire and leave the country open on all sides to the enemy.

51 Pompey sent against him.

When this was heard at Rome, a law was enacted there by C. Manilius, a tribune of the people, whereby the management of the war against Mithridates and Tigranes was committed to Pompey, and likewise the provinces of Cilicia, then under Quintus Marcius, and

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of Bithynia under Glabrio. By the ſame law he was continued in that unlimited power by ſea, with which he was inveſted when he firſt ſet out againſt the pirates of Cilicia. In virtue of this law, Pompey, who had juſt then ended the war with the Cilician pirates, took upon him the command of the army, and directed all the allies of the Roman people to join him with all poſſible expedition: but before he took the field, he renewed the alliance which Sylla and Lucullus had concluded with Phrahates king of Parthia, and then ſent friendly propoſals to Mithridates; who at firſt ſeemed inclined to give ear to them, and accordingly diſpatched an ambaſſador to the Roman army to treat of a peace. Pompey required of him to lay down his arms if he was in earneſt, and deliver up to him all thoſe who had revolted from the Romans during the war. This demand was no ſooner reported abroad in the king's camp, but the deſerters, who were very numerous in the king's army, betaking themſelves to their arms, threatened to put Mithridates himſelf to death; and would have occaſioned a great diſturbance, had not the king appeaſed the growing tumult, by aſſuring them, that he had ſent ambaſſadors, not to treat of a peace, but only to take, under pretence of ſuing for peace, a view of the enemy's ſtrength. He moreover obliged himſelf, by a ſolemn oath in the preſence of the whole army, never to enter into any treaty of friendſhip with the Romans, nor to deliver up to them ſuch as had ever ſerved under him.

52 Mithridates rejects his propoſals of peace.

Pompey, finding his propoſals rejected, advanced againſt the king with an army of 30,000 foot and 20,000 horſe, as Plutarch writes, or 30,000, as we read in Appian, all choſen troops; for he diſcharged moſt of thoſe who had ſerved under Glabrio and Lucullus. As he entered Galatia, he was met by Lucullus, who endeavoured to perſuade him to march back, the war being near finiſhed, and even deputies ſent by the republic to ſettle the province of Pontus: but not being able to prevail with him, after mutual complaints againſt each other, they parted; and Pompey removing his camp, commanded the troops that were with Lucullus to join him, except 1600 whom he left to attend Lucullus in his triumph. From thence Lucullus ſet out for Rome, where he was received by the ſenate with great marks of eſteem, moſt men thinking him highly injured by the authors of the Manilian law. Pompey purſued his march into Pontus; but finding that he could not by any means draw the king to a battle, he marched back into Armenia Minor, with a deſign either to reduce that province, or oblige Mithridates to venture a battle in order to relieve it. Mithridates followed him at ſome diſtance; and entering Armenia, encamped on a hill over-againſt the Romans, and, by intercepting their convoys, reduced them to ſuch diſtreſs, that they were obliged to remove to a more convenient place, the king cutting off many in their rear, and harraſſing them with frequent attacks, till he fell into an ambuſcade laid by Pompey, whoſe perſonal courage and prudent conduct on that occaſion confirmed the king in his reſolution not to hazard a general engagement. The two armies encamped over-againſt each other; Pompey on one hill and the king on another, near the city of Daſtira, in the province of Aciſilene, at a ſmall diſtance from the Euphrates, which divides Aciſilene from Armenia Minor.

Here Pompey, ſeeing he could neither draw the king to a battle, nor force his camp, which was pitched on a ſteep and craggy mountain, began to block him up with a ditch which he carried round the bottom of the hill where the king was encamped; and meeting with no oppoſition, finiſhed his work, and quite cut off the enemy's communication with the country. Pompey was amazed to ſee the king thus tamely ſuffer himſelf to be ſhut up; and could not help ſaying, That he was either a great fool or a great coward: a fool, if he did not apprehend the danger he was in; a coward, if, being appriſed of it, he did not to the utmoſt of his power prevent it. By this ditch, which was 150 furlongs in circuit, and defended by many forts raiſed at ſmall diſtances from each other, the king was ſo cloſely beſieged, that he could neither ſend out parties to forage, nor receive the ſupplies that came to him from Pontus. He was thus beſieged for the ſpace of 45 or 50 days; and his army reduced to ſuch ſtraits, that, having conſumed all their proviſions, they were at laſt forced to live on their dead horſes. Hereupon Mithridates reſolved at all events to break through the Roman fortifications; and accordingly, having put to the ſword all thoſe that were ſick or diſabled, that they might not fall into the enemy's hands, he attacked in the dead of the night the Roman guards, and having overpowered them with his numbers, got ſafe into the open fields, and continued his march all night towards Armenia Major, where he was expected by Tigranes.

53 Is beſieged by Pompey,

54 But breaks through the Roman lines.

Pompey next morning by break of day purſued the enemy with his whole army; and having with much ado overtaken them, found the king encamped on a hill, to which there was but one aſcent, and that guarded by a ſtrong body of foot. The Romans encamped over-againſt them; but Pompey fearing the king ſhould make his eſcape in the night-time, privately decamped, and taking the ſame rout the enemies were to hold in order to gain Armenia, poſſeſſed himſelf of all the eminences and defiles thro' which the king was to paſs. Mithridates thinking that Pompey was returned to his former camp, purſued his march, and about the duſk of the evening entered a narrow valley, which was ſurrounded on all ſides by ſteep hills. On theſe hills the Romans lay concealed, expecting the ſignal to fall upon the enemy and attack them on all ſides at once, while they were tired with their march, and ſeemingly, as they had ſent out no ſcouts, in great ſecurity. Pompey was at firſt for putting off the attack till the next morning, thinking it not ſafe to engage in the night-time among ſuch ſteep and craggy mountains; but was at laſt prevailed upon, by the earneſt prayers and intreaties of all the chief officers of the army, to fall upon the enemy that very night. It was therefore agreed, that in the dead of the night all the trumpets ſhould at once ſound the charge, that this ſignal ſhould be followed by an univerſal ſhout of the whole army, and that the ſoldiers ſhould make what noiſe they could, by ſtriking their ſpears againſt the braſs veſſels that were uſed in the camp. The king's army at this ſudden and unexpected noiſe, which was echoed again by the mountains, imagined at firſt that the gods themſelves were come down from heaven to deſtroy them; and the Romans charging them on all ſides with ſhowers of ſtones and arrows from the tops of the hills, they betook themſelves to a precipitate flight; but finding all the paſſes beſet with ſtrong bodies of horſe and foot, were

55 Is overtaken by Pompey, and totally defeated.

Pontus. were forced to fly back into the valley, where, for many hours together, they were exposed to the enemy's shot, without being able, in that confusion, either to attack them or defend themselves. They attempted indeed to make some resistance when the moon rose; but the Romans running down upon them from the hills, did not give them time to draw up, and the place was so narrow that they had not room even to make use of their swords. The king lost on that occasion 10,000 men, according to Appian, but 40,000, according to Eutropius and others. On Pompey's side there fell between 20 and 30 private men, and two centurions.

56 Distress of Mithridates.

Mithridates, at the head of 800 horse, broke through the Roman army, and being after this effort abandoned by all the rest, because they were closely pursued by the enemy, he travelled all night attended by three persons only, *viz.* his wife, or, as Plutarch calls her, his *concubine*, by name *Hypsicratia*, his daughter Dripetine, and an officer. At day-break he fell in with a body of mercenary horse, and 3000 foot, who were marching to join him. By these he was escorted to the castle of Sinoria, situated on the borders of the two Armenias. As great part of his treasures were lodged here, he rewarded very liberally those who accompanied him in his flight; and taking 6000 talents, withdrew into Armenia. As soon as he entered the borders, he dispatched ambassadors to Tigranes, acquainting him with his arrival; but that prince, who was then on the point of concluding a separate peace with the Romans, clapt his ambassadors in irons, pretending that his son Tigranes had, at the instigation of Mithridates, revolted first to the Parthians, and then to the Romans. Mithridates finding himself thus abandoned, even by his son-in-law, left Armenia; and directing his course towards Colchis, which was subject to him, and not as yet invaded by the Romans, passed the Euphrates the fourth day, and got safe into his own territories.

Pompey sent out several parties in pursuit of the king; but remained himself with the main body of the army in the field of battle, where he built a city, calling it from that remarkable victory, *Nicopolis*. This city, with the adjoining territory, he bestowed upon such of his soldiers as were old or disabled; and many flocking to it from the neighbouring countries, it became in a short time a very considerable place. This battle was certainly attended with very fatal consequences for Mithridates; who was forced, his army being entirely either cut off or dispersed, to abandon his own dominions, and fly for shelter to the most remote parts of Scythia. Pompey having concluded a peace with Tigranes, as we have related in the history of Armenia, and settled the affairs of that kingdom, began his march in pursuit of Mithridates through those countries that lie about mount Caucasus. The barbarous nations through which he passed, chiefly the Albanians and Iberians, attempted to stop his march, but were put to flight. However, he was obliged, by the excessive cold and deep roads, to pass the winter near the river Cyrus. Early in the spring he pursued his march; but meeting with great opposition from the Iberians, a warlike nation, and entirely devoted to Mithridates, he was employed most part of the summer in reducing them. In the mean time Mithridates, who had wintered at Dioscurias, on the isthmus between the Euxine and Caspian seas, and had been joined there by such of his troops as had made their escape from the late unfortunate battle, continued his flight through the countries of the Achæans, Zygians, Heniochians, Cercetans, Moschi, and Colchians. Of these nations some received him kindly, and even entered into alliance with him; thro' others he was forced to make himself a way with his sword.

57 He flies into Scythia, and from thence into other countries.

58 Pompey's further conquests.

Pompey took the same rout, directing his course by the stars, especially in the northern parts of Scythia, and carrying with him even provision of water to supply the army in the vast deserts through which he marched. He spent two years in warring with these nations, and was often in danger of losing both his life and his army: but at last he overcame them all; and believing Mithridates, of whom he could have no account, to be dead, he marched back into Armenia Minor, where he allowed some rest to his soldiers, who were quite worn out with the hardships they had endured in that expedition. Having refreshed his army, he marched into Pontus, to reduce some strongholds which were still garrisoned by the king's troops. While he was at Aspis in Pontus, many of the king's concubines were brought to him; but he sent them all home to their parents, without offering them the least injury, and thereby gained the affection of the chief lords of Pontus, whose daughters they were. The strong castle of Symphori was delivered up to him by Stratonix, one of the king's concubines, upon no other terms than that he would spare her son Xiphares, who was with the king, in case he should fall into his hands. She likewise discovered to him great treasures hid under ground, which he, with great generosity, bestowed upon her, reserving for himself only some vessels to set off his triumph. Having taken another fort called the *New Castle*, and to that time looked upon as impregnable, he found in it great store of gold, silver, and other valuable things, which he afterwards consecrated to Jupiter Capitolinus. Here, in looking over the king's manuscripts, he came to discover where the rest of his treasures were concealed, what troops he could raise and maintain, what sums were yearly paid him by his subjects and tributaries, &c. whereby he could make a true estimate of his whole power and wealth. Amongst other manuscripts he found some books of physic, wrote by Mithridates himself, which he commanded Lenæus, a learned grammarian, to translate into Latin.

59 Mithridates appears again at the head of a considerable army.

Pompey, having thus reduced all Pontus, marched into Syria, with a design to recover that kingdom, and passing through Arabia to penetrate as far as the Red Sea. But while he was employed in this expedition, news was brought him, that Mithridates, whom he believed dead, had appeared unexpectedly in Pontus at the head of a considerable army, and surprized Panticapæum, a famous empory at the mouth of the Euxine Sea. He had lain all this time concealed in the territories of a Scythian prince, adjoining to the Palus Mœotis; but hearing that Pompey had left Pontus, and was engaged in other wars, he ventured out of his hiding-place, resolved either to recover his paternal kingdom, or die in the attempt. He returned privately into Pontus, and managed matters there so dexterously, that the Roman garrisons knew nothing of his arrival till he appeared with a consider-

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able army in the field. He advanced first to the castle of Symphori; and understanding that Stratonix had delivered it up to Pompey, on condition he would save the life of her son in case he should take him prisoner, the king immediately caused the youth, who was in his army, to be put to death, and his body to be left unburied, Stratonix beholding from the walls the cruel and unnatural murder, for he was her son by Mithridates, and had served him with great fidelity. At the same time he sent ambassadors to Pompey to treat of a peace; offering to pay a yearly tribute to the republic, on condition he restored to him his kingdom. Pompey replied, that he would hearken to no proposals whatsoever, without the king came to treat with him in person, as Tigranes had done. This Mithridates looked upon as noways consistent with his dignity; and therefore laying aside all thoughts of an accommodation, began to make what preparations he could for renewing the war.

60 Recovers several places.

He summoned all his subjects that were able to bear arms to meet at an appointed place; and having chosen out of the whole multitude 60 cohorts, each consisting of 100 men, he incorporated them with the regular troops that were already on foot. Being now in a condition to act offensively, for Pompey had left but a small number of troops in Pontus, he possessed himself of Phanagorium, Chersonesus, Theodosia, Nymphæum, and several other important places. But in the mean time Castor, whom Mithridates had appointed governor of Phanagorium, falling out with Tripho, one of the king's favourite eunuchs, killed him, and dreading the king's resentment, stirred up the inhabitants to a revolt: by which means Phanagorium was again lost; but the castle, which was defended by four of the king's sons, Artaphernes, Darius, Xerxes, and Oxathres, held out for some time. The king hastened to their relief; but the castle being set on fire by the rebels, they were forced to surrender themselves to Castor before his arrival. These four sons, with one of the king's daughters, by name *Cleopatra*, Castor sent to the Romans; and fortifying himself in the town, persuaded most of the neighbouring cities, which were oppressed with heavy taxes, and strangely harrassed by the king's collectors, to join in the rebellion.

61 His subjects discontented.

Mithridates finding that he could neither rely upon the soldiery, most of them being forced into the service, nor on his other subjects, who were dissatisfied by reason of the exorbitant taxes, sent ambassadors to invite the princes of Scythia to his relief, and with them his daughters, to be bestowed in marriage upon such as showed themselves most inclined to assist him. But as the ambassadors he employed on this occasion were eunuchs, a race of men no less abhorred by the army than favoured by the king, over whom they had a great ascendant, especially in his old age, the soldiers who were sent to attend them on their journey, put them all to the sword as soon as they were out of the king's reach, and delivered his daughters up to the Romans. Mithridates, finding himself thus deprived of his children, betrayed by his army, and forsaken even by those on whom he chiefly relied, could not yet be induced to submit to the Romans, tho' Pompey promised him honourable conditions, provided he came to treat with him in person. In this desperate condition, he left no stone unturned to stir up the princes of Asia against the Romans, especially the Parthians: but finding them awed by the great opinion they all had of Pompey, he had recourse at last to the European Gauls, whom he understood to be at war with the Romans; and having sent before some of his trusty friends to engage them in his favour, taking leave of his own kingdom, he began his long march, designing to pass thro' Bosphorus, Cimmerius, Scythia, Pannonia, &c. and joining the Gauls, pass the Alps, and invade Italy.

62 His extraordinary design of invading Italy.

This design was no sooner known in the army, but the soldiers began openly to complain and mutiny; exaggerating the boldness of the attempt, the length of the march, and the unsurmountable difficulties that must necessarily attend such a desperate enterprise. The chief commanders did all that lay in their power to divert him from it; representing to him, that if he was not able to cope with the Romans in his own kingdom, much less would he be a match for them in Italy or Gaul, where they could daily receive new supplies; whereas he would lose the best part of his army in so long and difficult a march, and the rest perhaps in the first engagement, without any possibility of repairing the loss. But all was to no purpose; for they found him so unalterably fixed in his resolution, that he caused those to be put to death who with most warmth remonstrated against it, not sparing even his own son Exipodras for dropping some unguarded expressions on that occasion. Thus they were forced to let him pursue his own measures, till they found a more proper opportunity to oppose them, which soon after offered as they were encamped at Bosphorus Cimmerius on their march into Scythia.

62 His son Pharnaces revolts.

Here Pharnaces, the king's favourite son, whom he had appointed to succeed him, observing the general discontent that reigned in the army, began to entertain thoughts of placing the crown on his own head; and not doubting but the soldiery would stand by him if he declared against the intended expedition into Italy, openly protested among the Roman deserters, who were a considerable part of the army, that if they would follow him he would return into Pontus. The Romans, who were well apprised of the danger that attended such an undertaking, and had most of all exclaimed against it, promised to support him to the utmost of their power, and even encouraged him, upon some expressions which he purposely dropped, to assume the title of *king*, a title which his father seemed determined to hold till he had destroyed, by his rash and desperate attempts, himself, his friends, and his army. Pharnaces, finding he could depend on the Romans, engaged the same night most of the chief commanders in his party, and by their means the greater part of the soldiery. It was agreed, that next morning by break of day all those who had declared in his favour should appear in arms, and with a loud shout proclaim Pharnaces king; which was done accordingly, and the shout returned even by those whom Pharnaces had not thought fit to let into the secret. The king, who had taken up his quarters in the city, being awaked by the noise, sent out some of his domestics to know what had happened in the army. Neither did the officers or soldiers dissemble the matter, but boldly answered, that they had chosen a young king in-

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Hereupon Mithridates mounting on horseback, and attended by his guards, went out to appease the tumult: but his guards forsaking him, and his horse being killed under him, he was obliged to fly back into the city; from whence he sent several of his attendants one after another to desire of his son a safe-conduct for himself and his friends. But as none of the messengers returned, some being slain, others siding with the new king, Mithridates endeavoured to move his son to compassion by signifying to him from the walls the distressed condition he was reduced to by a son whom he had favoured above the rest of his children; but finding him noways affected by his speech, turning to the gods, he beseeched them with many tears to make his son know one day by experience the grief and agony which a father must feel in seeing his love and tenderness requited with such ungrateful and monstrous returns. Having thus spoke, he thanked in a very obliging manner those who had stood by him to the last, and exhorted them to make their submission to the new king on the best terms they could procure; adding, that as for himself, he was determined not to outlive the rebellion of a son whom he had always distinguished with particular marks of paternal affection.

63 Mithridates attempts to destroy himself.

After this, he withdrew into the apartment of his wives and concubines, where he first took poison himself, and then presented it to them, and to his favourite daughters Mithridatis and Nissa, who not long before had been betrothed to the kings of Egypt and Cyprus. To the women it proved immediate death; but on the king, who from his infancy had inured his constitution to poisonous potions, it had so slow an operation, that he was forced, through fear of falling into the rebels hands, to recur to his sword. Neither did the wound, as he was greatly weakened by the poison, prove mortal: so that the rebels, having in the mean time stormed the town, and broke into the house, found the king wallowing in his blood, but still alive, and in his sense; which Pharnaces hearing, sent some of those that were about him to dress his wounds, with a design to deliver him up to the Romans, and thereby ingratiate himself with Pompey. But in the mean time a Gaul, who served in the army, by name *Bitæus*, or *Bithocus*, entering the king's room in quest of booty, and being touched with compassion in seeing him forsaken by all his friends, and struggling on the bare ground with the pangs of death, drawing his sword, put an end to his present agonies, and prevented the insults which he chiefly apprehended if he should fall alive into his son's hands. The barbarian is said, when he first saw the king, to have been so awed with the majesty of his countenance, that, forgetful of his booty, he fled out of the room: but being called back, and earnestly intreated by the dying prince to put an end to his misery, he summoned all his courage to perform, as he did, with a trembling hand, that office; and immediately retired without touching any thing that belonged to the king, tho' the hopes of a rich booty was the only motive that had led him thither.

64 A Gaul puts an end to his life out of compassion.

Pompey, who was at time engaged in a war with the Jews, received the first notice of the death of Mithridates as he was on his march to Jerusalem. The messenger who brought the joyful tidings, was sent by Pharnaces, and appeared unexpectedly before Pompey with the branch of a laurel, as was customary on the like occasions, twisted round the head of his javelin. When he heard what had happened at Panticapæum, he was so impatient to impart it to the soldiery, that he could not even wait till they had raised him a mount of turf to speak from thence to the army according to the custom of the camp; but ordered those who were by him to form a kind of mount with their saddles, and from thence acquainted the soldiery that Mithridates had laid violent hands on himself, and his son Pharnaces was ready to acknowledge the kingdom as a gift of the people of Rome, or resign it if they were unwilling he should reign. This news was received with joyful shouts of the whole army, and the day solemnized with feasts and sacrifices throughout the camp, as if in Mithridates alone all the enemies of the republic had died. Pompey dispatched without delay a messenger with letters to the senate, acquainting them with the death of Mithridates, and the submission of his son Pharnaces. When his letters were read, the senators were so overjoyed, that they appointed, at the proposal of Cicero, ten consul, 12 days for returning due thanks to the gods, who had delivered them from such an insulting and powerful enemy; and the tribunes of the people enacted a law, whereby Pompey, in consideration of his eminent service in the Mithridatic war, was to wear a crown of laurel, with the triumphal gown at the Circensian sports, and a purple gown at the scenical plays.

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65 Excessive joy of the Romans at his death.

Pharnaces, when he heard of his father's death, caused his body to be preserved in brine, proposing to present it to Pompey, who had promised to return into Pontus after the reduction of Judæa, and there settle matters to his satisfaction. And accordingly having taken the city and temple of Jerusalem, he set out with two legions for Pontus; and being arrived at Sinope, he was there met by ambassadors from Pharnaces, acquainting him, that their master had forbore assuming the title of king till his will and pleasure were known: that he put both himself and the kingdom entirely into his hands, and that he was willing to attend him at what time or place he thought fit to appoint. The same ambassadors delivered up to Pompey those who had taken Manius Aquilius the Roman legate, whom Mithridates had put to a cruel death, all the prisoners, hostages, and deserters, whether Romans, Greeks, or Barbarians, and the body of Mithridates, with his rich apparel and arms, which were greatly admired by Pompey and the other Romans. Both soldiers and officers flocked to see the king's body; but Pompey declined that sight; and, saying that all enmity between that great prince and the people of Rome was ended with his life, he returned the body to the ambassadors, and caused it to be interred with the utmost pomp and magnificence among his ancestors in the burying-place of the kings of Pontus, Pompey defraying all the charges of that ceremony, which was the most costly and pompous that ever had been seen in those parts. With the body Pompey restored his wearing apparel and armour; but the scabbard of his sword, which cost 400 talents, was stolen by Rubilius a Roman, and sold to Ariarathes king of Cappadocia; and his cap or turban, which was a very curious piece.

55 Submissive embassy of Pharnaces to Pompey.

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piece of workmanship, was privately taken by one Caius, who presented it to Faustus the son of Sylla, in whose house it was kept, and shewn for many years after among the many rarities which Sylla had brought out of Asia.

67 Who bestows upo him the kingdom of Bosphorus.

Pompey bestowed the kingdom of Bosphorus on Pharnaces, and honoured him with the title of a friend and ally of the people of Rome. Pharnaces being thus acknowledged king of Bosphorus, sent orders to all the garrisons of Pontus to submit themselves, with the castles and treasures which they were trusted with, to Pompey, who by that means amassed an immense booty. In the city of Talaura, which Mithridates used to call his wardrobe, he found 2000 cups of onyx set in gold, with such store of gold and silver vessels, of costly furniture, of saddles, bridles, and trappings, set with jewels and precious stones, that the Roman commissaries spent 30 days in taking the inventory of the whole. In another castle he found three large tables with nine salvers of massy gold, enriched with precious stones to an inestimable value; the statues of Minerva, Mars, and Apollo, of pure gold and most curious workmanship; and a pair of gaming tables of two precious stones, three foot broad, and four foot long, on which was a moon of gold weighing 30 pounds, with their men all of the same precious stone. In a fort situated among the mountains, were delivered up to him the king's statue of massy gold eight cubits high, his throne and sceptre, and the bed of Darius the son of Hystaspes. Most of these treasures had been transmitted to him from his ancestors, chiefly from Darius king of Persia; some belonged to the Ptolemies of Egypt, and had been deposited by Cleopatra, as we have hinted above, in the hands of the Coans, who delivered them to Mithridates; great part of them had been collected by the king himself, who was very fond of rich and stately furniture.

Pompey having thus got entire possession of Pontus, and reduced it to the form of a Roman province, marched into *Asia* properly so called; and having wintered at Ephesus, early in the spring set out for Italy with a fleet of 700 ships. As he brought over his army with him, the senate was under no small apprehension lest he should make himself absolute, and rule without controul. But he no sooner landed at Brundusium than he disbanded the army, without waiting for any decree either of the senate or people; what neither his friends nor his enemies had believed. His triumph lasted two whole days; and though he was attended in his triumphal chariot by 324 captives of distinction, among whom were five sons and two daughters of Mithridates, yet he would not suffer any of them to be put to death, as it had been practised by others; but sent them all back, except such as were of royal extraction, to their respective countries, and even supplied them with money to defray the charges of their journey. After his triumph he delivered into the treasury 20,000 talents, though, at the dismissing of the army, he had divided 16,000 talents among the tribunes and centurions, 2000 sestertiums among the quæstors, and had given to each soldier 50 sestertiums.

68 Phanaces falls out with the Romans.

Pompey had no sooner left Asia, but Pharnaces fell unexpectedly upon the Phanagorenses, a people of Bosphorus, whom Pompey had declared free, because they had revolted the first of all from Mithridates, and by their example induced others to abandon the king's party. Pharnaces besieged their chief city Phanagoria, and kept them blocked up, till, for want of provisions, they were forced to sally out, and put all to the issue of a battle; which proving unsuccessful, they delivered up themselves and their city to the conqueror. Some years after the civil war breaking out between Cæsar and Pompey, he laid hold of that opportunity to recover the provinces which his father had formerly possessed; and having raised a considerable army, over-ran Pontus, Colchis, Bithynia, Armenia, and the kingdom of Moschis, where he plundered, as Strabo observes, the temple of the goddess Leucothea. He took the strong and important city of Sinope, but could not reduce Amisus. But in the mean time Cæsar, having got the better of Pompey and his party, appointed Cn. Domitius Calvinus governor of Asia, enjoining him to make war upon Pharnaces with the legions that were quartered in that province. Domitius immediately dispatched embassadors to Pharnaces, commanding him to withdraw his troops from Armenia and Cappadocia. The king returned answer, that he was willing to abandon Cappadocia, but as for the kingdom of Armenia Minor, it was part of his hereditary dominions; and therefore he would not resign it till he had an opportunity of of laying his pretensions before Cæsar himself, whom he was ready to obey in all things. Hereupon Domitius drawing together what forces he could, marched into Cappadocia, which he recovered without opposition, Pharnaces having abandoned it to make a stand in Armenia, which lay nearer his own dominions. Thither Domitius pursued him; and having overtaken him near Nicopolis, found his army drawn up in battle-array, and the king ready to come to an engagement; which Domitius not declining, both armies advanced.

69 And defeats them.

The king, at the head of a choice body of men, fell upon the Romans left wing, consisting mostly of raw and undisciplined Asiatics; and having without much ado put them to flight, penetrated to the centre, where the thirty-fifth legion, the only one which Domitius had, after a faint resistance, gave ground, and, retiring to the neighbouring mountains, left their allies to shift for themselves, who were all cut off. Domitius with the remains of his scattered army marched back into Cappadocia; and from thence, winter drawing on, into the province of Asia. The king being puffed up with this victory, and hearing that Cæsar, with the flower of the Roman forces, was engaged at the siege of Alexandria, appointed one Asander governor of Bosphorus, and marched himself into Cappadocia in pursuit of Domitius, with a design to invade Asia, and recover all the provinces which had been once subdued by his father. Bithynia and Cappadocia readily submitted; but Armenia the Lesser, which was held by Dejotarus, made so vigorous a resistance, that he was forced to give over the enterprise, lest the Romans should in the mean time strengthen themselves in Asia, whither he was in haste to march, in hopes of meeting there with the same success as his father Mithridates had done. But before he reached that province, he was informed that Asander had revolted, in hopes of gaining thereby the good-will of the

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the Romans, and obtaining of them the kingdom of Bosphorus for himself. At the same time he received intelligence, that Cæsar having at last reduced Alexandria, and settled the affairs of Egypt and Syria, was marching into Armenia.

70 Attempts to outwit Julius Cæsar,

He was not a little dismayed at this news, and therefore without delay dispatched ambassadors to sue for peace; hoping that Cæsar, who was hastening into Italy with a design to pass over into Afric, would willingly give ear to any proposals of that nature. Cæsar courteously entertained the ambassadors; and though he did not propose to agree to their conditions, yet, that he might come upon Pharnaces unawares, he showed himself very desirous of entering into a treaty of peace. But in the mean time he pursued his march with all possible expedition; and arriving on the confines of Pontus, ordered all the troops that were quartered in the neighbouring provinces to join him; for he had brought from Alexandria but one legion, namely, the sixth, and that consisting of 1000 men only, the rest having been killed at the siege of Alexandria. Besides this veteran legion, he found at the place of general rendezvous three others, but all of them very indifferently armed, and worse disciplined. With these forces however, such as they were, he advanced against Pharnaces; who being greatly frightened at his approach by reason of the success that had attended him in all his expeditions, again dispatched ambassadors to him with a crown of gold, offering him his daughter in marriage, and promising to do whatever he should require. The ambassadors took care to let know that their master, though highly obliged to Pompey, yet had never been prevailed upon to send him any supplies during the civil war, which Dejotarus king of Armenia the Lesser, whom he had honoured with his friendship, had done. Cæsar returned for answer, that he was willing to conclude a peace with Pharnaces, provided he retired without delay from Pontus, returned all the captives and hostages whether Roman or their allies, and restored the goods of the Roman citizens and publicans which he had seized since he first took up arms. He added, that as to his not sending supplies to Pompey, they ought rather to have concealed such an ungrateful proceeding of their master, than alledged it as any merit, since the forsaking of one to whom he was indebted for his crown, bespoke him a man of mean, selfish, and unworthy principles.

Pharnaces, upon the return of his ambassadors, acquainted Cæsar, that he agreed to the conditions; but finding that Cæsar's affairs called him into Italy, he required a longer term of time for the performance of what was stipulated between them, starting daily new difficulties, in hopes that Cæsar would in the mean time be obliged to depart, and leave the affairs of Pontus in the same posture he had found them. Cæsar seeing himself disappointed, and put off from day to day, could not longer brook the king's deceitful behaviour. Wherefore he determined to put himself at the head of his small army, and attack the enemy in his camp when he least expected it. And accordingly, marching out in the night, he came by break of day in sight of the king's army, and uttering these words, *Shall this treacherous parricide go unpunished?* broke into the camp at the head of 1000 horse. The king's chariots, which were armed with scythes, caused some small disorder among Cæsar's horse; but in the mean time the rest of his army coming up, he put the enemy to flight, and obtained a complete victory. This battle was fought near the place where Mithridates had routed with great slaughter the Roman army under the command of Triarius. Most of the king's army were either taken or cut in pieces; but Pharnaces himself had the good luck to make his escape, while the Romans were busy in plundering the camp. This victory was so quick, that Cæsar in a letter to his friend Aminitius, or Anitius, at Rome, expressed it in three words, thus: "I came, I saw, I conquered." He ever afterwards used to call Pompey a fortunate rather than a great commander, since he had gained his chief glory in the Mithridatic war, fighting with so cowardly an enemy. He divided the rich booty and the spoils of the camp among his soldiers; and because Mithridates had erected a trophy near that place as a monument of his victory over Triarius, which Cæsar, as it was consecrated to the gods, did not think lawful to pull down, he set up another over-against it to transmit to posterity his victory over Pharnaces. After this victory he recovered and restored to the allies of the people of Rome all the the places which Pharnaces had possessed himself of during the war, declared Amisus a free city, and appointed Mithridates Pergamenus king of Bosphorus in the room of Pharnaces.

71 By whom he is entirely defeated.

Having thus settled the affairs of Pontus, he set sail for Italy; leaving Domitius Calvinus to pursue the war against Pharnaces, if he should appear again in the field. Pharnaces had retired after the battle to Sinope with 1000 horse, where he was quickly besieged by Domitius, to whom he surrendered the town, upon no other conditions than that he should be suffered to retire into Bosphorus with the small body that attended him. This Domitius willingly granted; but caused all the king's horses to be killed, since he had asked a safe-conduct only for his horsemen. With these and a band of Scythians and Samaritans he attempted to recover the kingdom of Bosphorus; but being met between Theudocia and Panticapeum, both which cities he had reduced, by Asander, who was still in possession of the kingdom, a sharp engagement ensued, wherein the king's men, as not being used to fight on foot, were put to flight, and Pharnaces himself, who remained alone in the field, was surrounded by the enemy, and cut in pieces, after having reigned in Bosphorus Cimmerius, the kingdom which Pompey had bestowed upon him, according to Appian, fifteen years, according to others, seventeen.

72 Is killed in another engagement.

Upon the death of Pharnaces the kingdom of Pontus was again reduced to the form of a province, and so continue to the triumvirate of Marc Antony, who after the battle at Philippi conferred it upon Darius the son of Pharnaces for his services during the civil war. He continued faithful to the Romans; but did nothing during his reign worth mentioning.

73 Pontus again made a kingdom by Marc Antony.

Darius was succeeded in the kingdom by Polemon, preferred to that honour by Marc Antony. He was the son of Zeno, a famous orator of Laodicea, and greatly favoured by Antony. From him that part of Pontus which borders on Cappadocia, borrowed the name of *Polemoniacus*. He attended Marc Antony in his expedition against

Pontus.

against the Parthians; and being taken prisoner in that unsuccessful battle fought by Statianus, he was sent by the king of the Medes, an ally of the Parthians, to conclude a peace with the Romans. In which embassy he acquitted himself so well, that Antony added the kingdom of Armenia to his own dominions. In the war between Antony and Augustus he sided with the former: but after the battle at Actium, he was received into favour by the latter; and being sent by Agrippa against Scribonius, who upon the death of Asander had usurped the kingdom of Bosphorus, he overcame him, and reduced the kingdom of Colchis, which was bestowed upon him by Agrippa, who likewise honoured him with the title of *friend and ally of the people of Rome*. He afterwards waged war with the neighbouring barbarians refusing to live in subjection to the Romans; but was overcome, taken, and put to death, by the Aspungitani, a people bordering, according to Strabo, on the Palus Mœotis.

Upon his death his son Polemon II. was by the emperor Caligula raised to the throne of Bosphorus and Pontus. But the emperor obliged him to exchange the kingdom of Bosphorus with part of Cilicia; and Nero with his consent reduced that part of Pontus which he enjoyed to the form of a province. He fell in love with Berenice, daughter to Agrippa king of Judæa; and in order to marry her, embraced the Jewish religion. But as she soon became tired of his riotous way of living, and returned to her father; so he renounced his new religion, and again embraced the superstitions of Paganism. Polemon dying without issue, the ancient kingdom of Pontus was parcelled out into several parts, and added to the provinces of Bithynia, Galatia, and Cappadocia, only that part of it which was called *Pontus Polemoniacus* retaining the dignity of a distinct and separate province. During the civil discords between Vespasian and Vitellius, one Anicetus, first a slave, afterwards freedman to king Polemon, and lastly commander of the royal navy, took up arms with a design to rescue the kingdom from the Roman bondage; and being joined by great multitudes drawn together with the prospect of spoil, over-ran the country, and possessed himself of Trapesund, a city founded by the Grecians on the utmost confines of Pontus. Here he cut in pieces a cohort made up of the inhabitants, but which had been formerly presented with the privilege of Roman citizens. He likewise burnt the fleet, and with scorn and insults scoured the sea; Mucianus having called to Byzantium most of the Roman galleys. Hereupon Vespasian, who was at that time in Syria, sent Verdius Gemnius into Pontus with a choice body of vexillaries from the legions. He assailing the enemy while they were in disorder and roaming asunder in pursuit of prey, drove them into their vessels; then with some galleys chased Anicetus into the mouth of the river Chobus, where he thought himself safe under the protection of Sedochus king of the Lazians, whose alliance he had purchased with large sums and rich presents. Sedochus at first refused to deliver him up to the Romans; but was soon prevailed upon, partly by threats, partly by presents, to surrender both him and all the other fugitives who had taken sanctuary in his dominions. Thus ended that servile war; and the kingdom of Pontus continued to be a province of the empire till the time of David and Alexis Comneni, who being driven from Constantinople by the French and Venetians, under the command of Baldwin earl of Flanders, settled, the one at Haraclea, the other at Trebisond. The troubles that arose among the Latins gave Alexus Comnenus an opportunity of erecting here a new empire, which comprehended great part of Pontus, and was known by the name of the *empire of Trebisond*. The Comneni held it about 250 years, till the time of Mohamed II. who carried David Comnenus, the last emperor of Trebisond, prisoner to Constantinople, with all his family, and subjected his empire to that of Constantinople; in which abject slavery Trebisond and all Pontus have continued ever since.

74 Is parcelled out into several provinces.

Ponntypool || Poor.

PONTYPOOL, a town of Monmouthshire in England, seated between two hills. It is but a small place, though noted for its iron-mills, great manufacture of japanned mugs, &c. W. Long. 3. 0. N. Lat. 51. 45.

PONZA, or Pontia, a small island in the Tuscan sea, being the place to which many illustrious Romans were formerly banished. E. Long. 13. 50. N. Lat. 41. 15.

POOL, is properly a reservoir of water supplied with springs, and discharging the overplus by sluices, defenders, weirs, and other causeways.

Pool, a sea-port town of Dorsetshire in England. It is surrounded on all sides by the sea, except on the north, where there is an entrance through a gate. It was formerly nothing but a place where a few fishermen lived: but in the reign of Henry VI. it was greatly enlarged, and the inhabitants had the privilege to wall it round; it was also made a county of itself, and sent two members to parliament. It is governed by a mayor, a senior bailiff, four other justices, and an indeterminate number of burgesses. The town consists of a church and about 600 houses, with broad paved streets; and has a manufactory of knit hose. It is 47 miles west south-west of Winchester, and 110 west by south of London. W. Long. 3. 6. N. Lat. 50. 45.

POOLE (Matthew), a very learned writer in the 17th century, was born at York in 1624. He was educated at Emanuel-college Cambridge, and afterwards incorporated in the university of Oxford. He succeeded Dr Anthony Tuckney in the rectory of St Michael de Quern, in London, about 1648. In 1658 he set on foot a project for maintaining youths of great parts at the universities, and had the approbation of the heads of houses in both of them. He solicited the affair with so much vigour, that in a short time 900l. per annum was procured for that purpose; but this design was laid aside at the Restoration. In 1662, he was ejected from his living for nonconformity. Ten years was he employed in composing his *Synopsis Criticorum Bibliorum*. Besides this great work he published several other pieces. When Dr Oates's depositions concerning the Popish plot were printed, our author found his name in the list of those who were to be cut off, on the account (as was supposed) of what he had written against the Papists in his *Nullity of the Romish Faith*. So that he was obliged to retire into Holland, where he died in 1679, and left behind him the character of a very able critic and casuist.

POOP, the stern of a ship; or the highest, uppermost, and hinder part of a ship's hull. See Stern.

POOR, in law, an appellation given to all those who are

Popayan, Pope.

are in such a low and mean condition, that they either are, or may become, a burden to the parish.

POPAYAN, a province of South America, in the kingdom of New Granada, between the audience of Panama, that of Quito, and the South Sea; 400 miles in length, and 300 in breadth. A chain of barren mountains runs through the country from north to south; and near the sea the soil is so soaked with almost continual rains, that few care to reside there, except for the sake of the gold that is met with in great plenty in the sands of the rivulets. This bewitching metal brings many in search of it, though it is a great doubt whether they ever return back alive or not. For this reason the savage Americans are still masters of a great part of it, and continually annoy the Spaniards.

POPAYAN, the capital town of a province of that name in South America, with a bishop's see, a Spanish governor, and where the courts of justice are held. The inhabitants are almost all Creoles. W. Long. 73. 5. N. Lat. 2. 25.

POPE, the sovereign pontiff, or supreme head of the Romish church. The appellation of *pope* was anciently given to all the Christian bishops; but about the latter end of the 11th century, in the pontificate of Gregory VII. it was usurped by the bishop of Rome, whose peculiar title it has ever since continued.

POPE (Alexander), a late celebrated English poet, was descended from good families, and born the 8th of June 1688, at London, where his father was then a considerable merchant. He was taught to read very early by an aunt; and learned to write without any assistance, by copying printed books. The family being of the Romish religion, he was put, at eight years of age, under one Taverner, a priest, who taught him the rudiments of the Latin and Greek tongues together; and soon after was sent to a Popish seminary at Winchester, from whence he was removed to a school at Hyde-Park Corner. He discovered early an inclination to versifying; and the translations of Ogilby and Sandys from Virgil and Ovid first falling in his way, these were his favourite authors. At 12, he retired with his parents to Binfield, in Windsor Forest; and there became acquainted with the writings of Spenser, Waller, and Dryden. Dryden struck him most, probably because the cast of that poet was most congenial with his own; and therefore he not only studied his works intensely, but ever after mentioned him with a kind of rapturous veneration. He once obtained a sight of him at a coffee-house, but never was known to him: a misfortune which he laments in these pathetic words, *Virgilium tantum vidi.* Though Pope had been under more tutors than one, yet it seems they were so insufficient for the purpose of teaching, that he had learned very little from them: so that, being obliged afterwards to begin all over again, he may justly be considered as one of the αυτοδιδακτοι, or "self-taught." At 15 he had acquired a readiness in the two learned languages; to which he soon after added the French and Italian. He had already scribbled a great deal of poetry in various ways; and this year set about an epic poem, called *Alcander.* He long after communicated it to Atterbury, with a declared intention to burn it; and that friend concurred with him: "Though (adds he) I would have interceded for the first page, and put it, with your leave, among my curiosities." What the poet himself observes upon these early pieces is agreeable enough; and shows, that tho' at first a little intoxicated with the waters of Helicon, he afterwards arrived to great sobriety of thinking. "I confess (says he) there was a time when I was in love with myself; and my first productions were the children of Self-love upon Innocence. I had made an epic poem, and panegyrics on all the princes, and I thought myself the greatest genius that ever was. I cannot but regret these delightful visions of my childhood, which, like the fine colours we see when our eyes are shut, are vanished for ever." His pastorals, begun in 1704, first introduced him to the wits of the time; among which were Wycherly and Walsh. This last gentleman proved a sincere friend to him; and soon discerning that his talent lay, not so much in striking out new thoughts of his own, as in improving those of other men, and in an easy versification, told him, among other things, that there was one way left open for him to excel his predecessors in, which was correctness: observing, that though we had several great poets, yet none of them were correct. Pope took the hint, and turned it to good account; for no doubt the distinguishing harmony of his numbers was in a great measure owing to it. The same year, 1704, he wrote the first part of his Windsor Forest, though the whole was not published till 1710. In 1708, he wrote the Essay on Criticism: which production was justly esteemed a master-piece in its kind, and showed not only the peculiar turn of his talents, but that those talents, young as he was, were ripened into perfection. He was not yet 20 years old; and yet the maturity of judgment, the knowledge of the world, and the penetration into human nature, displayed in that piece, were such as would have done honour to the greatest abilities and experience. But whatever may be the merit of the Essay on Criticism, it was still surpassed, in a poetical view, by the Rape of the Lock, first completely published in 1712. The former excelled in the didactic way, for which he was peculiarly formed; a clear head, strong sense, and a sound judgment, being his characteristical qualities: but it is the creative power of the imagination that constitutes what is properly called a *poet;* and therefore it is in the Rape of the Lock that Pope principally appears one, there being more *vis imaginandi* displayed in this poem than perhaps in all his other works put together. In 1713, he gave out proposals for publishing a translation of Homer's Iliad, by subscription; in which all parties concurred so heartily, that he acquired a considerable fortune by it. The subscription amounted to 6000 l. besides 1200 l. which Lintot the bookseller gave him for the copy. Pope's finances being now in good condition, he purchased a house at Twickenham, whither he removed with his father and mother in 1715: where the former died about two years after. As he was a Papist, he could not purchase, nor put his money to interest on real security; and as he adhered to the cause of king James, he made it a point of conscience not to lend it to the new government: so that, though he was worth near 20,000 l. when he laid aside business, yet, living afterwards upon the quick stock, he left but a slender substance to his family. Our poet, however, did not fail to improve it to the utmost: he had already acquired much by his publications, and he was all attention to

to acquire more. In 1717, he publiſhed a collection of all he had printed ſeparately; and proceeded to give a new edition of Shakeſpeare, which, being publiſhed in 1721, diſcovered that he had conſulted his fortune more than his fame in that undertaking. The Iliad being finiſhed, he engaged upon the like footing to undertake the Odyſſey. Mr Broome and Mr Fenton did part of it, and received 500l. of Mr Pope for their labours. It was publiſhed in the ſame manner, and on the ſame conditions to Lintot; excepting that, inſtead of 1200l. he had but 600l. for the copy. This work being finiſhed in 1725, he was afterwards employed with Swift and Arbuthnot in printing ſome volumes of Miſcellanies. About this time he narrowly eſcaped loſing his life, as he was returning home in a friend's chariot; which, on paſſing a bridge, happened to be overturned, and thrown with the horſes into the river. The glaſſes were up, and he not able to break them: ſo that he had immediately been drowned, if the poſtilion had not broke them, and dragged him out to the bank. A fragment of the glaſs, however, cut him ſo deſperately, that he ever after loſt the uſe of two of his fingers. In 1727, his Dunciad appeared in Ireland; and the year after in England, with notes by Swift, under the name of *Scriblerus*. This edition was preſented to the king and queen by Sir Robert Walpole; who, probably about this time, offered to procure Pope a penſion, which however he refuſed, as he had formerly done a propoſal of the ſame kind made him by Lord Halifax. He greatly cultivated the ſpirit of independency; and "Unplac'd, unpenſion'd, no man's heir or ſlave," was frequently his boaſt. He ſomewhere obſerves, that the life of an author is a ſtate of warfare: he has ſhown himſelf a complete general in this way of warring. He bore the inſults and injuries of his enemies long; but at length, in the Dunciad, made an abſolutely univerſal ſlaughter of them: for even Cibber, who was afterwards advanced to be the hero of it, could not forbear owning, that nothing was ever more perfect and finiſhed in its kind than this poem. In 1729, by the advice of Lord Bolingbroke, he turned his pen to ſubjects of morality; and accordingly we find him, with the aſſiſtance of that noble friend, who furniſhed him with the materials, at work this year upon the Eſſay on Man. The following extract of a letter to Swift diſcovers the reaſon of his Lordſhip's advice: "Bid him (ſays Bolingbroke) talk to you of the work he is about, I hope, in good earneſt; it is a fine one, and will be, in his hands, an original. His ſole complaint is, that he finds it too eaſy in the execution. This flatters his lazineſs: it flatters my judgement; who always thought, that, univerſal as his talents are, this is eminently and peculiarly his, above all the writers I know, living or dead; I do not except Horace. Pope tells the dean in the next letter, that "the work, Lord Bolingbroke ſpeaks of with ſuch abundant partiality, is a ſyſtem of ethics, in the Horatian way." In purſuing the ſame deſign, he wrote his Ethic Epiſtles: the fourth of which, Upon Taſte, giving great offence, as he was ſuppoſed to ridicule the duke of Chandois under the character of Timon, is ſaid to have put him upon writing ſatires, which he continued till 1739. He ventured to attack perſons of the higheſt rank, and ſet no bounds to his ſatirical rage. A genuine collection of his letters was publiſhed in 1737. In 1738, a French tranſlation of the Eſſay on Man, by the Abbé Reſnel, was printed at Paris; and Mr Crouſaz, a German profeſſor, animadverted upon this ſyſtem of ethics, which he repreſented as nothing elſe but a ſyſtem of naturaliſm. Mr Warburton, afterwards biſhop of Glouceſter, wrote a commentary upon the Eſſay; in which he defends it againſt Crouſaz, whoſe objections he ſuppoſes owing to the faultineſs of the Abbé Reſnel's tranſlation. The poem was republiſhed in 1740, with the commentary. Our author now added a fourth book to the Dunciad, which was firſt printed ſeparately in 1742; but the year after, the whole poem came out together, as a ſpecimen of a more correct edition of his works. He had made ſome progreſs in that deſign, but did not live to complete it. He had all his life long been ſubject to the head-ach; and that complaint, which he derived from his mother, was now greatly increaſed by a dropſy in his breaſt, under which he expired the 30th of May 1744, in the 56th year of his age. In his will, dated December 12. 1743, Miſs Blount, a lady to whom he was always devoted, was made his heir during her life: and among other legacies, he bequeathed to Mr Warburton the property of all ſuch of his works, already printed, as he had written or ſhould write commentaries upon, and had not otherwiſe been diſpoſed of or alienated; with this condition, that they were publiſhed without future alterations. In diſcharge of this truſt, that gentleman gave a complete edition of all Mr Pope's works, 1751, in 9 vols, 8vo. A work, entitled, *An Eſſay on the Writings and Genius of Pope*, by Mr Warton, 2 vols 8vo, will be read with pleaſure by thoſe who deſire to know more of the perſon, character, and writings of this excellent poet. In the mean time, the following account of him by Lord Orrery may ſuffice: "If we may judge of him by his works, (ſays this noble author) his chief aim was to be eſteemed a man of virtue. His letters are written in that ſtyle; his laſt volumes are all of the moral kind; he has avoided trifles, and conſequently has eſcaped a rock which has proved very injurious to Swift's reputation. He has given his imagination full ſcope, and yet has preſerved a perpetual guard upon his conduct. The conſtitution of his body and mind might really incline him to the habits of caution and reſerve. The treatment which he met with afterwards, from an innumerable tribe of adverſaries, confirmed this habit; and made him ſlower than the dean, in pronouncing his judgment upon perſons and things. His proſe-writings are little leſs harmonious than his verſe; and his voice, in common converſation, was ſo naturally muſical, that I remember honeſt Tom Southern uſed to call him the *little nightingale*. His manners were delicate, eaſy, and engaging; and he treated his friends with a politeneſs that charmed, and a generoſity that was much to his honour. Every gueſt was made happy within his doors; pleaſure dwelt under his roof, and elegance preſided at his table."

Pope.

Pope's *Dominions*, or *Eccleſiaſtical States*; a country of Italy, bounded on the north by the gulph of Venice and the Venetian dominions, on the ſouth by the Mediterranean, on the eaſt by the kingdom of Naples and the Adriatic, and on the weſt by Tuſcany and Modena. Its length is about 240 miles, but its breadth varies from 20 to 120 miles.

The

Pope. The ſoil, in general, of the pope's dominions is very fertile, but ill cultivated; and there are many fens and marſhy grounds, which are very prejudicial to the air. That the lands are badly cultivated and inhabited, the air bad, and the inhabitants poor, idle, lazy, and groſsly ſuperſtitious, is owing to their being governed by prieſts, who may juſtly be ſaid not only to fleece them, but flea them. This country, with reſpect to the accommodations of life, is but in a very indifferent condition; for, notwithſtanding the fertility of its ſoil, its advantageous ſituation for traffic, the large ſums ſpent in it by travellers, or remitted to it from foreign countries, and its having, for its ruler, the ſucceſſor of St Peter, the prince of the apoſtles, and the vicar of Jeſus Chriſt, yet it is poor and thin of inhabitants, ill cultivated, and without trade and manufactures. This is partly owing to the great number of holidays, of ſturdy beggars called *pilgrims*, and of hoſpitals and convents, with the amazing but uſeleſs wealth of churches and convents, and the inquiſition; but the chief cauſe is the ſeverity of the government, and the grievous exactions and hardſhips to which the ſubjects are expoſed. The legates, tho' moſtly clergymen, whoſe thoughts ſhould be chiefly employed about laying up treaſures in heaven, and who ought to ſet an example to the laity of diſintereſtedneſs and a contempt of this world, yet, in fact, ſcruple no kind of rapacioufneſs: even the holy father himſelf, and the cardinals, make the enriching of their nephews and other relations, and the aggrandizing their families, the great buſineſs of their lives. The extravagant claims and pretenſions of the pope are well known, and by all the rational part of Chriſtendom now treated with contempt and mockery. The Reformation gave a great blow to his ſpiritual power: but as to his temporal dominions, he ſtill poſſeſſes them entire; tho' it is not likely that will long be the caſe, conſidering how much he hath loſt, and is daily loſing, of his ghoſtly empire, and the veneration in which he was formerly held. The Papal dominions were originally procured, partly by the voluntary gift of bigotted princes, and partly by other methods. The Campania of Rome is under the pope's immediate government; but the other provinces are governed by legates and vice-legates, and there is a commander in chief of the pope's forces in every province. The pope is choſen by the cardinals in the conclave, who are 70 in number when complete, and conſiſt of three claſſes, namely, cardinal-biſhops, prieſts, and deacons: they look upon themſelves as on a footing with crowned heads, and have the title of *eminentiſſimi*. The pope holds a conſiſtory of cardinals on eccleſiaſtical affairs; but the cardinals do not meddle with his civil government. The pope's chief miniſter is the cardinal-patron, uſually his nephew, who amaſſes an immenſe eſtate, if the reign be of any long duration. The cardinal that is choſen pope muſt be an Italian, and at leaſt 55 years of age. The ſpiritual power of the pope, though far ſhort of what it was before the Reformation, is ſtill conſiderable. It is computed that the monks and regular clergy, who are abſolutely at his devotion, do not amount to leſs than 2,000,000 of people diſperſed through all the Roman Catholic countries, to aſſert his ſupremacy over princes, and promote the intereſt of the church. The revenues of theſe monks do not fall ſhort of L. 20,000,000 Sterling, beſides the caſual profits ariſing from offerings, and the people's bounty to the church, who are taught that their ſalvation depends on this kind of benevolence.

The pope's revenues, as a temporal prince, may amount to about L. 1,000,000 Sterling per annum, ariſing chiefly from the monopoly of corn, the duties on wine and other proviſions. Over and above theſe, vaſt ſums are continually flowing into the papal treaſury from all the Roman Catholic countries, for diſpenſations, indulgences, canonizations, annates, the pallia, and inveſtitures of archbiſhops, biſhops, &c.

The pope has a conſiderable body of regular forces, well clothed and paid; but his fleet conſiſts only of a few galleys. His life-guards are 40 Swizers, 75 cuiraſſiers, and as many light horſe.

Popham ⇑ Populus.

POPHAM (Sir John), lord chief juſtice of the common pleas in the reign of queen Elizabeth, was the eldeſt ſon of Edward Popham, eſq; of Huntworth in Somerſetſhire, and born in the year 1531. He was ſome time a ſtudent of Baliol college in Oxford; "being then," ſays Ant. Wood, "given at leiſure hours to many ſports and exercifes." After quitting the univerſity, he fixed in the Middle Temple; where, during his novitiate, he is ſaid to have indulged in that kind of diſſipation to which youth and a vigorous conſtitution more naturally incline than to the ſtudy of voluminous *reports*: but, fatiated at length with what are called the *pleaſures of the town*, he applied ſeduloufly to the ſtudy of his profeſſion, was called to the bar, and in 1568 became ſummer or autumn reader. He was ſoon after made ſerjeant at law, and ſolicitor-general in 1579. In 1581, he was appointed attorney-general, and treaſurer of the Middle Temple. In 1592, he was made lord chief juſtice of the king's bench, and the ſame year received the honour of knighthood. In the year 1601, his lordſhip was one of the council detained by the unfortunate earl of Eſſex, when he formed the ridiculous project of defending himſelf in his houſe; and, on the earl's trial, he gave evidence againſt him relative to their detention. He died in the year 1607, aged 76; and was buried in the ſouth aiſle of the church at Wellington in Somerſetſhire, where he generally reſided as often as it was in his power to retire. He was thought ſomewhat ſevere in the execution of the law againſt capital offenders; but his ſeverity had the happy effect of reducing the number of highway robbers. He wrote, 1. Reports and caſes adjudged in the time of queen Elizabeth. 2. Reſolutions and judgments upon caſes and matters agitated in all the courts at Weſtminſter in the latter end of queen Elizabeth.

POPLAR, in botany. See POPULUS.

POPLITÆUS, in anatomy, a ſmall muſcle obliquely pyramidal, ſituated under the ham. See ANATOMY, *Table of the Muſcles*.

POPPY, in botany. See PAPAVER.

POPULAR, ſomething that relates to the common people.

POPULUS, the POPLAR; a genus of the octandria order, belonging to the diœcia claſs of plants.

Species. 1. The alba, or abele-tree, grows naturally in the temperate parts of Europe. Its leaves are

large, and divided into three, four, or five lobes, indented on their edges, of a very dark colour on their upper side, but very white and downy on the under side; standing upon footstalks an inch long. The young branches have a purple bark, and are covered with a white down; but the bark of the stem and older branches is grey. In the beginning of April, the male flowers or catkins appear, which are cylindrical, and about three inches long. About a week after come out the female flowers on catkins, which have no stamina like those of the male. Soon after these come out, the male catkins fall off; and in five or six weeks after, the female flowers will have ripe seeds inclosed in a hairy covering. The catkins will then drop, and the seeds be wafted by the winds to a great distance. 2. The major, or white poplar, has its leaves rounder than the first, and not much above half their size: they are indented on their edges, and are downy on their under side, but not so white as those of the former, nor are their upper surfaces of such a deep green colour. 3. The nigra, or black poplar, has oval heart-shaped leaves, slightly crenated on their edges; they are smooth on both sides, and of a light green colour. 4. The tremula, or aspen-tree, has roundish, angularly-indented leaves: they are smooth on both sides, and stand on long footstalks; so are shaken by the least wind; from whence it has the title of the *tremblling poplar*, or *aspen-tree*. 5. The balsamifera, or Carolina poplar, is a native of Carolina, where it becomes a large tree. The shoots of this sort grow very strong in Britain, and are generally angular; with a light green bark like the willow. The leaves on young trees, and also those on the lower shoots, are very large, almost heart-shaped and crenated; but those upon the older trees are smaller: as the trees advance, their bark becomes lighter, approaching to a greyish colour. 7. The tacamahaca grows naturally in Canada and other parts of North America. This is a tree of a middling growth, sending out on every side many short thick shoots, which are covered with a light brown bark, garnished with leaves differing from one another in shape and size; most of them are almost heart-shaped; but some are oval, and others nearly spear-shaped; they are whitish on their under side, but green on their upper.

Culture. These trees may be propagated either by layers or cuttings, as also from suckers which the white poplars send up from their roots in great plenty. The best time for transplanting these suckers is in October, when their leaves begin to decay. These may be placed in a nursery for two or three years to get strength before they are planted out where they design to remain; but if they are propagated from cuttings, it is better to defer the doing of that until February, at which time truncheons of two or three feet long should be thrust about a foot and a half into the ground. These will readily take root; and if the soil in which they are planted be moist, they will arrive at a considerable bulk in a few years. The black poplar is less apt to take root from large truncheons; therefore it is a better method to plant cuttings of it about a foot and a half in length, thrusting them a foot deep in the ground. This sort will grow almost on any soil, but will thrive best in moist places. The Carolina poplar may also be propagated by cuttings or layers; but the last is the method generally practised, and the plants raised by it are less moist than others. The shoots of this tree while young are frequently killed down to a considerable length by the frost in winter; but as the trees grow older, their shoots are not so vigorous, and become more ligneous, so are not liable to the same disaster. But the trees should be planted in a sheltered situation: for, as their leaves are very large, the wind has great power over them; and the branches being tender, they are frequently broken or split by the winds in summer, when they are much exposed. The tacamahaca sends up a great number of suckers from its roots, by which it multiplies in plenty, and every cutting which is planted will take root.

Uses. The wood of these trees, especially of the abele, is good for laying floors, where it will last for many years; and on account of its extreme whiteness is by many preferred to oak; yet, on account of its soft contexture, being very subject to take the impression of nails, &c. it is less proper on this account than the harder woods. The inner bark of the black poplar is used by the inhabitants of Kamtschatka as a material for bread; and paper has sometimes been made of the cottony down of the seeds. The roots have been observed to dissolve into a kind of gelatinous substance, and to be coated over with a tubular crustaceous spar, called by naturalists *osteocolla*, formerly imagined to have some virtue in producing the callus of a fractured bone. The buds of the sixth species are covered with a glutinous resin which smells very strong, and is the gum tacamahaca of the shops. The best, called, from its being collected in a kind of gourd-shells, *tacamahaca in shells*, is somewhat unctuous and soft; of a pale yellowish or greenish colour, an aromatic taste, and a fragrant delightful smell, approaching to that of lavender or ambergris. This sort is very rare; that commonly found in the shops is in semitransparent globes or grains, of a whitish, yellowish, brownish, or greenish colour, of a less grateful smell than the foregoing. This resin is said to be employed externally by the Indians, for discussing and maturating tumours, and abating pains in the limbs. It is an ingredient in some anodyne, hysteric, cephalic, and stomachic plasters; but the fragrance of the finer sort sufficiently points out its being applicable for other purposes.

PORCELAIN, a fine kind of earthen ware, chiefly manufactured in China, and thence called *China-ware*. All earthen wares which are white and semitransparent are generally called *porcelains*: but amongst these, so great differences may be observed, that, notwithstanding the similarity of their external appearance, they cannot be considered as matters of the same kind. These differences are so evident, that even persons who are not connoisseurs in this way prefer much the porcelain of some countries to that of others.

The art of making porcelain is one of those in which Europe has been excelled by oriental nations. The first porcelain that was seen in Europe was brought from Japan and China. The whiteness, transparency, fineness, neatness, elegance, and even the magnificence of this pottery, which soon became the ornament of sumptuous tables, did not fail to excite the admi-

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Porcelain.

ration and industry of Europeans; and their attempts have succeeded so well, that in different parts of Europe, earthen wares have been made so like the oriental that they have acquired the name of *porcelain*. The first European porcelains were made in Saxony and in France; and afterwards in England, Germany, and Italy: but as all these were different from the Japanese, so each of them had its peculiar character.

1 Porcelain first examined scientifically by Reaumur.

The illustrious Reaumur first attended to the manufacture of porcelain as a science, and communicated his researches in two memoirs before the Academy of Sciences in 1727 and 1729. He did not satisfy himself with considering the external appearance, the painting and gilding, which are only ornaments not essential to the porcelain, but he endeavoured to examine it internally: and having broken pieces of the Japanese, Saxon, and French porcelains, he examined the difference of their grains (which name is given to their internal structure). The grain of the Japanese porcelain appeared to him to be fine, close, compact, moderately smooth, and somewhat shining. The grain of the Saxon porcelain was found to be still more compact, not granulous, smooth, shining like enamel. Lastly, the porcelain of St Cloud had a grain much less close and fine than that of Japan; not, or but little, shining; and resembling the grain of sugar.

2 Different kinds of porcelain.

From these first observations Mr Reaumur perceived that porcelains differed considerably. That he might examine them further, he exposed them to a violent heat. More essential differences than those of the grain appeared upon this trial; for the Japanese porcelain was unaltered by the fire, and all the European were melted.

3 True composition of porcelain discovered by Reaumur.

This essential difference betwixt the Japanese and European porcelains suggested to Mr Reaumur a very ingenious thought, and in many respects true, concerning the nature of porcelain in general. As all porcelains somewhat resemble glass in consistence and transparency, though they are less compact and much less transparent, Mr Reamur considered them as semivitrifications. But every substance may appear, and may actually be, in a semivitrified state in two ways: for, first, it may be entirely composed of vitrifiable or fusible matters; and in this case, by exposing it to the action of fire, it will be actually melted or vitrified, if the heat be sufficiently strong and long-continued. But as this change is not made instantly, especially when the heat is not very violent; and as it passes thro' different stages or degrees, which may be more easily observed as the heat is better managed; hence, by stopping in proper time the application of heat to porcelain made in this manner, we may obtain it in an intermediate state betwixt those of crude earths and of completely vitrified substances, and also possessed of the semitransparency and of the other sensible qualities of porcelain. We know also, that if such porcelain be exposed to a stronger degree of fire, it will then be completely fused and entirely vitrified. But the European porcelains tried by Mr Reaumur had this fusibility; from which he concluded, that their composition is founded upon the abovementioned principle.

In the second place, a paste of porcelain may be composed of fusible and vitrifiable matter, mixed with a certain proportion of another matter which is absolutely unfusible in the fires of our furnaces. We may easily perceive, that if such a mixture be exposed to a heat sufficient to melt entirely the vitrifiable ingredient, that this matter will actually melt: but as it is intermixed with another matter which does not melt, and which consequently preserves its consistency and opacity, the whole must form a compound partly opake and partly transparent; or rather a semitransparent mass; that is, a semi-vitrified substance, or porcelain, but of a kind very different from the former; for as the fusible part of this latter has produced all its effect, and as it has been as much fused as it can be during the baking of the porcelain, the compound may be exposed a second time to a more violent fire, without approaching nearer to a complete vitrification, or without departing from its state of porcelain. But as oriental porcelain has precisely these appearances and properties, Mr Reaumur concludes with reason, that it is composed upon this principle; and he afterwards confirmed his opinion by undeniable facts.

4 Confirmed by accounts from the East Indies.

Father Entrecolles, missionary at China, had sent from thence a summary description of the process by which the inhabitants of that country make their porcelain, and also a small quantity of the materials which they employ in its composition. He said that the Chinese composed their porcelain of two ingredients; one of which is a hard stone or rock, called by them *petuntse*, which they carefully grind to a very fine powder; and the other, called by them *kaolin*, is a white, earthy substance, which they mix intimately with the ground petuntse. Mr Reaumur examined both these matters, and having exposed them separately to a violent fire, he discovered that the petuntse had fused without addition, and that the kaolin had given no sign of fusibility. He afterwards mixed these matters, and formed cakes of them, which by baking were converted into porcelain similar to that of China. Mr Reaumur easily found, that the petuntse of the Chinese was a hard stone of the kind called *vitrifiable*, but much more fusible than any of those which were known in Europe; and that the kaolin was a talcy matter, reduced to a very fine powder. From that time he hoped to make a porcelain of the same kind as the Chinese with materials found in France. Whether he could not find any materials equal to those of China, particularly that material analogous to the petuntse of the Chinese, or because other occupations prevented the continuance of his researches, we do not know; but we find, from his second memoir upon porcelain, that he afterwards attempted to make an artificial petuntse, by mixing our vitrifiable stones with salts capable of rendering them fusible, or even by substituting for it glass ready formed, and by adding to these such substances as he thought might be substituted for kaolin. But he probably found he could not execute these intentions; for he did not resume this subject from the year 1729 to 1739, when he gave a process for converting common glass to a singular kind of porcelain, to which he has given his name, and of which an account is given under the article CHEMISTRY, n° 92.

5 Glass converted by him into a kind of porcelain.

6 Mistaken in some particulars.

Although Mr Reaumur has surmounted many difficulties, and has given just notions concerning this subject, yet he has been mistaken, or rather missed, in two important points. His first error concerns the

Saxon

Porcelain. Saxon porcelain, which he confounds with the other fusible porcelains made in Europe. Formerly, indeed, a porcelain might be made in Saxony, composed entirely of fusible or vitrifiable materials, the vitrification of which was stopt in proper time, and which Mr Reaumur had examined. But now we are certainly informed, that all of that country is capable of resisting the most violent fires without fusion, as well, at least, as those of China and Japan. Mr Reaumur might have been misled by the appearance of the internal texture of this porcelain. For when a piece of it is broken, its internal surface does not appear granulous, but compact, uniform, smooth, shining, and much resembling white enamel. But this appearance, so far from showing that Saxon porcelain is a fused or vitrified substance, proves that it is not entirely composed of fusible matters. All who have considered attentively this subject know, that the internal surface of the most fusible porcelains is also the least dense and least compact: the reason of which is, that no vitreous matter can be smooth and dense internally, unless it has been completely fused. But if the density and shining appearance of the internal surface of the Saxon porcelain were only the effects of the fusion of a vitreous matter, how could we conceive that vessels formed of that matter should have sustained the necessary fusion for giving this density and shining appearance, without having entirely lost their shape? The impossibility of this is evident to any persons who have been conversant in these matters and in the fusion of glass.

7 Difference between the Saxon and oriental porcelain.

This quality of the Saxon porcelain must therefore, proceed from another cause. It does indeed contain, as every porcelain does, particularly those of China and Japan, a fusible substance, which has been even completely fused during the baking. Its density also and its internal lustre proceed chiefly from this fused matter: but we are also certain, that it contains a large quantity of a substance absolutely unfusible, from which it receives its admirable whiteness, its firmness and solidity, during the baking; in a word, which supplies the place of the oriental kaolin, and which has the property of contracting its dimensions considerably while it incorporates with the fusible substance. If it be subjected to the most decisive trial, namely, the action of a violent fire, capable of melting every porcelain composed of fusible matters alone, *Chem. Dict.* "I affirm, (says Mr Macquer), after many experiments, that it cannot be fused, unless by a fire capable also of melting the best Japanese porcelain." The Saxon porcelain is therefore not to be confounded with those which are vitreous and fusible; but is in its kind as excellent as that of Japan, and perhaps superior, as we shall see when we enumerate the qualities which constitute the excellence of porcelain. The subject of Mr Reaumur's second error, or at least that which he has not sufficiently explained, is the kaolin of China. According to him, this matter is a fine talcy powder, from the mixture of which with petuntse the oriental porcelain is formed. Possibly a very finely-ground talcy substance mixed with petuntse might form a porcelain similar to the oriental; but persons acquainted with the manufacture of any porcelain, must perceive the impossibility of forming vessels, unless the paste of which they are made be so ductile and tenacious, that it may be worked upon a potter's lathe, or at least that it may be moulded. But talcs, or any kinds of stones, however finely-ground, cannot acquire the requisite tenacity, which clays only, of all known earthy substances, possess. The Chinese porcelain vessels evidently appear to be turned upon the lathe, since they retain the marks of it: hence they must have been formed of a very tenacious paste, and consequently the kaolin is not a purely talcy matter, but is mixed with clay; or else the petuntse and kaolin are not, as Mr Reaumur supposes, the only ingredients of the paste of which Chinese porcelain is formed, but a sufficient quantity of some binding matter, unknown to father d'Entrecolles and Mr Reaumur, must be also added. Porcelain.

8 Manufactories of porcelain in different countries.

Although, since Mr Reaumur, no scientific person has written concerning porcelain, many have attempted to make it. Manufactories have been established in almost all the states of Europe. Besides that of Saxony, which has been long established, porcelain is also made at Vienna, at Frankendal, and lately in the neighbourhood of Berlin. All these German porcelains are similar to the Saxon; and are made of materials of the same kind, although they differ somewhat from each other. England and Italy also have their porcelains, the chief of which are those of Chelsea and of Naples. Mr de la Condamine, in his last journey into Italy, visited a manufacture of porcelain established at Florence by the marquis de la Ginori, then governor of Leghorn. Mr de la Condamine observed particularly the large size of some pieces of this porcelain. He says he saw statues and groupes half as large as nature, modelled from some of the finest antiques. The furnaces in which the porcelain was baked were constructed with much art, and lined with bricks made of the porcelain materials. The paste of this porcelain is very beautiful; and from the grain of broken pieces it, it appears to have all the qualities of the best Chinese porcelain. A whiter glazing would be desirable, which they might probably attain, if the Marquis Ginori was not determined to use those materials only which were found in that country.

But in no state of Europe have such attempts been made to discover porcelain, or so many manufactories of it been established, as in France. Before even Mr Reaumur had published on this subject, porcelain was made at Saint Cloud, and in the suburb of St Antoine at Paris, which was of the vitreous and fusible kind, but considerably beautiful. Since that time, considerable manufactures of it have been established at Chantilly, at Villeroi, and at Orleans; the porcelains of which have a distinguished merit. But the porcelain produced in the king's manufacture at Sevres holds at present the first rank, from its shining white, its beautiful glazing, and coloured grounds, in which no porcelain has ever equalled it. The magnificence of the gilding, the regularity and elegance of its forms, surpass every thing of the kind.

9 M. Guettard's discoveries.

Mr Guettard has published an account of his discoveries on this subject, in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences for the year 1765. The kaolin which he employed was a white argillaceous earth, filled with mica, which he found in the neighbourhood of Alençon; and his petuntse is a hard, quartzose grit stone, found abboundantly in the same country, with which the streets of Alençon are paved. We also

Porcelain. so know that Mr Guettard had begun to make his experiments on porcelain with these materials in the year 1751, together with the late Duke of Orleans, to whom he was attached. The Count de Lauraguais, of the Academy of Sciences, engaged in the pursuit of porcelain for several years with uncommon ardour and constancy. He spared no trouble nor expence to attain his purpose, which was to make porcelain equal in all respects to that of China and Japan. He shewed some pieces made by him, in the year 1766, to the members of the Academy of Sciences. The persons appointed by them to examine it gave their opinion, "that of all the porcelains made in the country, that of the Count de Lauraguais most resembles the porcelain of China and Japan in solidity, grain, and unfusibility." It were to be wished that it possessed equally the other qualities essential to the excellence of porcelain, namely, the whiteness and lustre observable in the ancient Japanese porcelain. See CHEMISTRY, n° 91.

10 Qualities which constitute the perfection of porcelain

We shall now shew what those qualities are which constitute the perfection of porcelain. We must first carefully distinguish the qualities which only contribute to the beauty and external appearance, from the intrinsic and essential properties in which the goodness and solidity of porcelain consist. All persons who have made experiments in this way have soon discovered the possibility of making compounds very white, beautifully semi-transparent, and covered with a shining glazing; but which cannot be worked for want of tenacity, are not sufficiently compact, are essentially fusible, are subject to break by sudden application of heat and cold; and lastly, the glazing of which cracks, becomes rough, and consequently loses its lustre by use, because it is too soft.

On the other side, we shall also find it not difficult to compose very tenacious pastes, which shall be capable of being easily worked and well baked; which in the baking shall acquire the desirable hardness and density; which are unfusible, and capable of sustaining very well the sudden change of heat and cold; and, in a word, which shall have all the qualities of the most excellent porcelain, excepting whiteness and beauty. We shall soon see that the materials fit for the composition of such porcelains may be found abundantly in every country. The only difficulty, then, in this inquiry concerning porcelain, is, to unite beauty and goodness in one composition; and indeed nature seems to be very sparing of materials fit for this purpose, and therefore perfect porcelain will always be a dear and valuable commodity.

11 Stone ware a kind of porcelain.

Those potteries which we call *stone-ware* are not of modern invention, and have all the essential qualities of the best Japanese. For if we except whiteness, on which alone the semi-transparency depends, and compare all the properties of Japanese porcelain with those of our stone-ware, no difference can be found betwixt them. The same grain appears internally in both; the same found is produced by striking them when properly suspended; the same density, the same hardness by which they strike fire with steel, the same faculty of sustaining the heat of boiling liquors without breaking, and the same unfusibility in fire, are observable. Lastly, if the earths of which stone-ware is made were free from heterogeneous colouring matters, which prevent their whiteness and semitransparency; if vessels were carefully formed; if all the proper attentions were given; and if these vessels were covered over with a fine glazing; they would be as perfect porcelain as that of Japan. The most perfect porcelain, therefore, is nothing else than a fine white stone-ware.

Earths of this kind are probably more rare in Europe than in Japan and China. And probably also the want of these earths was the cause that the first makers of porcelain in this country confined themselves to an external imitation, by employing nothing but vitrifiable matters with fusible salts and a small quantity of white earth, from which fusible and vitreous porcelains were composed, which might be called *false porcelains*. But things are much changed since these first attempts. Besides the discoveries of the count de Lauraguais and of Mr Guettard, genuine white porcelains have been made a long time ago in Germany, especially in Saxony and at Frankendal.

12 Genuine porcelain made in some countries of Europe.

These porcelains are not inferior in any respect to the oriental; they are even much superior in beauty and whiteness to the modern oriental porcelain, which has much degenerated in these respects; they seem even to excel the oriental in the most valuable quality of porcelain, namely, the property of sustaining the sudden change of heat and cold. We cannot judge of the quality of porcelain by a slight trial: for so many circumstances concur to make a piece of porcelain capable or incapable of sustaining the sudden application of heat and of cold, that if at the same time boiling water be poured into two vessels, one of which is good porcelain and the other bad, the former may possibly break and the latter remain entire. The only true method of discovering good porcelain in this respect is, to examine several pieces of it which are daily used; for instance, a set of coffee-cups. But it has been observed, that in many such pieces of oriental porcelain, which have been long and daily used, cracks in the direction of their height may be always perceived, which are never seen in the good European porcelains.

13 Excellency of the ancient Japanese porcelain.

Every one talks of porcelain, and yet few are connoisseurs of it. None can be considered as such but those who have long made it an object of their inquiries. That the ancient Japanese porcelain is the most perfect, is a general opinion. This porcelain is indeed very beautiful, and we must also acknowledge that its quality is excellent. It has been our model, and has long been the object of our admiration and emulation; but which we have been never able to equal, and which many persons believe never can be equalled. Some persons even decry the Saxon porcelain for a quality which really gives it a superiority to the Japanese, namely, the greater smoothness, lustre, and less granulous appearance of its internal surface than the oriental. The resemblance of this surface to that of glass has evidently suggested this notion: and it would be well founded, if the density and lustre of this porcelain proceeded only from a fusible and vitreous quality; but as they do not, and as this porcelain is as fixed and as unfusible as the Japanese, its density, so far from being a fault, is a valuable quality. For we must allow, that of porcelains equal in other respects, those are best which are most firm and compact. Hence the interior substance of the Japanese porcelain is esteemed for its great-

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Porcelain. er denſity, compactneſs, and luſtre, than our vitreous ſand or fritt porcelains, becauſe theſe qualities indicate greater coheſion, and more intimate incorporation of its parts. For the ſame reaſon alſo the ſuperior denſity of the Saxon porcelain ought to give it the preference to the Japaneſe. Beſides, nothing would be eaſier than to give the Saxon porcelain the granulous texture of the Japaneſe, by mixing with the paſte a certain quantity of ſand. But the perſons who perfected that manufacture were certainly ſenſible, that ſuch a conformity to the Japaneſe porcelain would leſſen the merit of theirs. For we know, that in general porcelains are better in proportion as they contain a larger proportion of clay or earth, and leſs of ſand, flints, or other matters of that kind.

What we have ſaid concerning porcelain in general, and the principal kinds of it, ſeems ſufficient to give juſt notions of it, if not to perſons who without conſidering the ſubject are determined to prefer the moſt ancient, to thoſe, at leaſt, who have made experiments on this ſubject, or who, having a ſufficient knowledge of chemiſtry, are capable of ſtudying and examining it thoroughly. We ſhall finiſh this article by giving a ſhort deſcription of the method of manufacturing porcelain.

14 Of making fuſible or vitreous porcelains.

The baſis of the porcelains which we have called *fuſible, vitreous*, or *falſe porcelains*, is called by artiſts a *fritt*; which is nothing elſe than a mixture of ſand or of powdered flints, with ſalts capable of diſpoſing them to fuſion, and of giving them a great whiteneſs by means of a ſufficient heat. This fritt is to be then mixed with as much, and no more, of a white tenacious earth of an argillaceous or marly nature, than is ſufficient to make it capable of being worked upon the wheel. The whole mixture is to be well ground together in a mill, and made into a paſte, which is to be formed, either upon the wheel or in moulds, into pieces of ſuch forms as are required.

Each of theſe pieces, when dry, is to be put into a caſe made of earthen ware (A); which caſes are to be ranged in piles one upon another, in a furnace or kiln, which is to be filled with theſe to the roof. The furnaces are chambers or cavities of various forms and ſizes; and are ſo diſpoſed, that their fire-place is placed on the outſide oppoſite to one or more openings, which communicate within the furnace. The flame of the fuel is drawn within the furnace, the air of which rarefying, determines a current of air from without inwards, as in all furnaces. At firſt a very little fire is made, that the furnace may be heated gradually, and is to be increaſed more and more till the porcelain is baked, that is, till it has acquired its proper hardneſs and tranſparency; which is known by taking out of the furnace from time to time, and examining, ſmall pieces of porcelain, placed for that purpoſe in caſes which have lateral openings. When theſe pieces ſhow that the porcelain is ſufficiently baked, the firſt is no longer to be ſupplied with fuel, the furnace is to be cooled, and the porcelain taken out, which in this ſtate reſembles white marble not having a ſhining ſurface, which is afterwards to be given by covering them with a vitreous compoſition called the *glazing*.

Porcelain.

The porcelain when baked and not glazed is called *biſcuit*, which is more or leſs beautiful according to the nature of the porcelain. The manufacture of Sévres excells all others in this reſpect, and it is therefore the only one which can produce very fine pieces of ſculpture; that is, in which all the fineneſs of the workmanſhip is preſerved, and which are preferable in ſmoothneſs and whiteneſs to the fineſt marble of Italy. 15 Porcelain ſculptures.

As no piece of ſculpture of this kind can preſerve all the delicacy of its workmanſhip when covered with a glazing; and as ſculptors avoid poliſhing their marble figures, becauſe the luſtre of the poliſh is diſadvantageous; therefore, in the manufactures at Sévres, all figures, or little ſtatues, and even ſome ornamental vaſes, are left in the ſtate of biſcuit. The other pieces of porcelain are to be glazed in the following manner.

16 Method of glazing and colouring porcelain.

A glaſs is firſt to be compoſed ſuited to the nature of the porcelain to which it is to be applied; for every glaſs is not fit for this purpoſe. We frequently find that a glaſs which makes a fine glazing for one porcelain ſhall make a very bad glazing for another porcelain; ſhall crack in many places, ſhall have no luſtre, or ſhall contain bubbles. The glazing then muſt be appropriated to each porcelain, that is, to the hardneſs and denſity of the ware, and to the ingredients of its compoſition, &c.

Theſe glazings are prepared by previouſly fuſing together all the ſubſtances of which they conſiſt, ſo as to form vitreous maſſes. Theſe maſſes are to be ground very finely in a mill. This vitreous powder is to be mixed with a ſufficient quantity of water, or other proper liquor, ſo that the mixture ſhall have the conſiſtence of cream of milk. The pieces of porcelain are to be covered with a thin ſtratum of this matter; and when very dry, they are to be again put into the furnace in the ſame manner as before for the forming of the biſcuit, and to be continued there till the glazing be well fuſed. The neceſſary degree of fire for fuſing the glazing is much leſs than that for baking the paſte.

The pieces of porcelain which are intended to remain white are now finiſhed; but thoſe which are to be painted and gilded muſt undergo further operations. The colours to be applied are the ſame as thoſe uſed for enamel painting. They all conſiſt of metallic calxes bruiſed and incorporated with a very fuſible glaſs. Crocus of iron furniſhes a red colour: Gold † precipitated by tin makes the purple and violet; copper calcined by acids and precipitated by an alkali gives a fine green; zaffre makes the blue; earths ſlightly ferruginous produce a yellow; and, laſtly, brown and black colours are produced by calcined iron, together with a deep blue of zaffre. Theſe colours being ground with gum-water, or with oil of ſpike, are to be employed for the painting of the porcelain with deſigns of flowers and other figures. For gilding, a powder or calx of gold is to be applied in the ſame manner as the coloured enamels. The painted and gilded porcelains are to be then expoſed to a fire capable of fuſing the glaſs, with which the metallic colours are mixed. Thus

† See *Chemiſtry*, n° 354.

(A) The caſes are called by Engliſh potters, *ſeggars*. They are generally formed of coarſer clays, but which muſt be alſo capable of ſuſtaining the heat required without fuſion. By means of theſe caſes, the contained porcelain is preſerved from the ſmoke of the burning fuel. The whiteneſs of the porcelain depends much on their compactneſs of texture by which the ſmoke is excluded, and on the purity of the clay of which they are made.

Porcelain || Pork.

Thus the colours are made to adhere, and at the same time acquire a gloss equal to that of the glazing. The gold alone has not then a shining appearance, which must be afterwards given to it by burnishing with a blood stone.

18 Preparation of unfusible porcelain.

The operations for the unfusible porcelains, and also for such as are of the nature of stone-ware, are somewhat more simple. The sands and stones which enter into their composition are to be ground in a mill: the earths or clays are to be washed: the materials are to be well mixed, and formed into a paste: the pieces are first rudely formed upon a potter's wheel; and when dry, or half dry, they are turned again upon the wheel, and their form is made more perfect: they are then placed in the furnace, not to bake them, but only to apply a sufficient heat to give them such a solidity that they may be handled without breaking, and may receive the glazing. As the pieces of porcelain after this slight heat are very dry, they imbibe water readily. This disposition assists the application of the glazing. The vitrifiable or vitrified matter of this glazing, which has been previously ground in a mill, is to be mixed with such a quantity of water, that the liquor shall have the consistence of milk. The pieces of porcelain are hastily dipt in this liquor, the water of which they imbibe, and thus on their surface is left an uniform covering of the glazing materials. This covering, which ought to be very thin, will soon become so dry, that it cannot stick to the fingers when the pieces are handled.

The pieces of this porcelain are then put into the furnace to be perfectly baked. The heat is to be raised to such a height, that all within the furnace shall be white, and the cases shall be undistinguishable from the flame. When, by taking out small pieces, the porcelain is known to be sufficiently baked, the fire is discontinued, and the furnace cooled. If the baking has been well performed, the pieces of porcelain will be found by this single operation to be rendered compact, sonorous, close-grained, moderately glossy, and covered externally with a fine glazing. The painting and gilding of this porcelain are to be executed in a manner similar to that already described.

PORCELAIN *Shell*, a species of CYPREA.

PORCH, in architecture, a kind of vestibule supported by columns; much used at the entrance of the ancient temples, halls, churches, &c.

A porch, in the ancient architecture, was a vestible, or a disposition of insulated columns usually crowned with a pediment, forming a covert place before the principal door of a temple or court of justice. Such is that before the door of St Paul's, Covent-Garden, the work of Inigo Jones. When a porch had four columns in front, it was called a *tetrastyle;* when six, *hexastyle;* when eight, *octostyle*, &c.

PORCUPINE, in zoology. See HISTRIX.

PORE, in anatomy, a little interstice or space between the parts of the skin, serving for perspiration.

PORK, the flesh of swine killed for the purposes of food. See SUS.

The hog is the only domestic animal that we know of no use to man when alive, and therefore seems properly designed for food. Besides, as loathsome and ugly to every human eye, it is killed without reluctance. The Pythagoreans, whether to preserve health, or on account of compassion, generally forbade the use of animal food; and yet it is alleged that Pythagoras reserved the use of hogs-flesh for himself. The Jews, the Egyptians, &c. and others in the warm countries, and all the Mahometans at present, reject the use pork. It is difficult to find out the reason of this, or of the precept given to some of them, though commonly such as are not given without a particular one. The Greeks gave great commendations to this food; and Galen, though indeed that is suspected to be from a particular fondness, is every where full of it. The Romans considered it as one of their delicacies; and if some of the inhabitants of the northern climates have taken an aversion to it, that probably arose from the uncultivated state of their country not being able to rear it. Pork is of a very tender structure; increased perhaps from a peculiarity in its œconomy, *viz.* taking on fat more readily than any other animal. Pork is a white meat even in its adult state, and then gives out a jelly in very great quantity. On account of its little perspirability and tenderness, it is very nutritious, and was given for that intention to the *athletæ*. With regard to its alkalescency, no proper experiments have yet been made; but as it is of a gelatinous and succulent nature, it is probably less so than many others. Upon the whole, it appears to be a very valuable nutriment, and the reason is not very obvious why it was in some countries forbid. It is said that this animal is apt to be diseased; but why were not inconveniencies felt on that account in Greece? Again, it has been alleged, that as Palestine would not rear these animals, and as the Jews had learned the use of them in Egypt, it was necessary they should have a precept to avoid them. But the Egyptians themselves did not use this meat; and this religious precept, indeed, as well as many others, seems to have been borrowed from them. Possibly, as pork is not very perspirable, it might increase the leprosy, which was said to be epidemic in Palestine; though this is far from being certain.

Pork || Porphyry.

Cullen's Mat. Med.

PORPESSE, in ichthyology. See DELPHINUS.

PORPHYRIUS, a famous Platonic philosopher, born at Tyre in 233, in the reign of Alexander Severus. He was the disciple of Longinus, and became the ornament of his school at Athens; from thence he went to Rome, and attended Plotinus, with whom he lived six years. After Plotinus's death, he taught philosophy at Rome with great applause; and became well skilled in polite literature, geography, astronomy, and music. He lived till the end of the third century, and died in the reign of Diocletian. There are still extant, his book on the Categories of Aristotle; a Treatise on Abstinence from Flesh; and several other pieces in Greek. He also composed a large treatise against the Christian Religion, which is lost. That work was answered by Methodius bishop of Tyre, and also by Eusebius, Apollinarius, St Augustin, St Jerome, St Cyril, and Theodoret. The emperor Theodosius the Great caused Porphyrius's book to be burned in 338. Those of his works that are still extant, were printed at Cambridge in 1655, 8vo, with a Latin version.

PORPHYRY, in natural history, a kind of stone of a plain uniform mass, spotted with separate concretions, of great hardness, giving fire with steel, not fermenting with acids, and very slowly and difficultly calcining in a strong fire.

Porphyry is of several sorts; as, 1. The porphyry

of the ancients, which is a moſt elegant maſs of an extremely firm and compact ſtructure, remarkably heavy, and of a fine ſtrong purple, variegated more or leſs with pale red and white; its purple is of all degrees, from the claret-colour to that of the violet; and its variegations are rarely diſpoſed in veins, but ſpots, ſometimes very ſmall, and at others running into large blotches. It is leſs fine than many of the ordinary marbles; but it excels them all in hardneſs, and is capable of a moſt elegant poliſh. It is ſtill found in immenſe ſtrata in Egypt. 2. The hard red-lead coloured porphyry, variegated with black, white, and green. This is a moſt beautiful and valuable ſubſtance. It has the hardneſs and all the other characters of the oriental porphyry; and even greatly excels it in brightneſs, and in the beauty and variegation of its colours. It is found in great plenty in the iſland of Minorca; and is extremely worth importing, for it is greatly ſuperior to all the Italian marbles. 3. The hard, pale-red porphyry, variegated with black, white, and green. This is of a pale fleſh-colour; often approaching to white. It is variegated in blotches from half an inch to an inch broad. It takes a high poliſh, and emulates all the qualities of the oriental porphyry. It is found in immenſe ſtrata in Arabia Petræa, and in the Upper Egypt; and in ſeparate nodules in Germany, England, and Ireland.

Porphyry-*Shell*, a ſpecies of Murex.

PORRUM, the Leek; a ſpecies of plants, belonging to the genus of Allium. There are two ſpecies known in this country; the ſativum, or London leek, and the ampeloprafum. The firſt is the kind commonly cultivated; and of it there have been ſuppoſed two varieties: but Mr Miller obſerves, that the difference has been occaſioned by ſome perſons ſaving the ſeeds from old leeks, and not from the ſeedling leeks; whereby they have degenerated, and become ſmaller and narrower-leaved; but may be recovered again by proper care. The other ſpecies is a native of Siberia; its leaves are narrower than the common ſort; the ſtalks are ſmaller, and do not riſe near ſo high; the heads of the flowers are alſo ſmaller, and of a purpliſh colour; the ſtamina ſtand out beyond the flower. Leeks are cultivated in the ſame manner as onions, and commonly ſown along with them; their qualities as food are alſo the ſame.

PORT, a harbour, river, or haven, formed either by nature or art, to receive and ſhelter ſhipping from the ſtorms and waves of the open ſea.

Artificial ports are thoſe which are either formed by throwing a ſtrong mound or rampire acroſs the harbour's mouth to ſome iſland or rock, or erecting two long barriers, which ſtretch from the land on each ſide like arms or the horns of a creſcent, and nearly incloſe the haven; the former of theſe are called *mole-heads*, and the latter *piers*.

Port, is alſo a name given on ſome occaſions to the larboard or left ſide of the ſhip, as in the following inſtances. Thus it is ſaid, "the ſhip heels to port," *i.e.* ſtoops or inclines to the larboard ſide. "Top the yard to port!" the order to make the larboard extremity of a yard higher than the other. "Port the helm!" the order to put the helm over to the larboard-ſide of the veſſel. In all theſe ſenſes this phraſe appears intended to prevent any miſtakes happening from the ſimilarity of ſounds in the words *ſtarboard* and *larboard*, particularly when they relate to the helm, where a miſapprehenſion might be attended with very dangerous conſequences.

Ports, the embraſures or openings in the ſide of a ſhip of war, wherein the artillery is ranged in battery upon the decks above and below.

The ports are formed of a ſufficient extent to point and fire the cannon, without injuring the ſhip's ſide by the recoil; and as it ſerves no end to enlarge them beyond what is neceſſary for that purpoſe, the ſhipwrights have eſtabliſhed certain dimenſions, by which they are cut in proportion to the ſize of the cannon.

The ports are ſhut in at ſea by a ſort of hanging-doors, called the *port-lids*; which are faſtened by hinges to their upper-edges, ſo as to let down when the cannon are drawn into the ſhip. By this means the water is prevented from entering the lower-decks in a turbulent ſea. The lower and upper edges of the ports are always parallel to the deck, ſo that the guns, when levelled in their carriages, are all equally high above the the lower extremity of the ports, which is called the *port-cell*.

Port, is alſo a ſtrong wine brought from Port-a-port, and alſo called *Porto* and *Oporto*.

Port *of the Voice*, in muſic, the faculty or habit of making the ſhakes, paſſages, and diminutions, in which the beauty of a ſong or piece of muſic conſiſts.

Port-*Crayon*, a pencil-caſe, which is uſually four or five inches long, and contrived ſo as that the pencil may ſlide up and down. Its inſide is round, and its outſide is ſometimes filed into eight ſides or faces, on which are drawn the ſector-lines; ſometimes it is made round both without-ſide and within, and has its length divided into inches and parts of inches.

PORTCULLICE, in fortification, is an aſſemblage of ſeveral large pieces of wood, joined acroſs one another like a harrow, and each pointed with iron at the bottom. They are ſometimes hung over the gate-way of old fortified towns, ready to let down in caſe of ſurpriſe, when the gates could not be ſhut.

Port-*Fire*, a compoſition for ſetting fire to powder, &c. Port-fires are frequently uſed by artillery people in preference to matches; and they are diſtinguiſhed into wet and dry port-fires. The compoſition of the former is ſalt-petre four, ſulphur one, and mealed powder four. When theſe materials are thoroughly mixed and ſifted, the whole is to be moiſtened with a little linſeed oil, and rubbed between the hands till all the oil is imbibed by the compoſition. The preparation for dry port-fires is ſalt-petre four, ſulphur one, mealed powder two, and antimony one. Theſe compoſitions are driven into ſmall paper caſes, to be uſed whenever neceſſary.

Port-*aux-Prune*, ſo called by the French, is a country on the coaſt of Africa, to the north of the iſland of Madagaſcar. It is a rich country, and fertile in rice and paſtures; it is inhabited only by the Negroes, who are an induſtrious, good ſort of people, but very ſuperſtitious. There are no towns, but ſeveral villages, and they have ſome cuſtoms which ſeem to incline to Judaiſm.

Port-*Royal*, a ſea-port town of America, in the iſland of Jamaica. It was once one of the fineſt ſea-port towns in America, abounding in riches and trade; but

Port || Portico.

but in 1692 it was destroyed by an earthquake, in 1702 by fire, in 1722 by an inundation of the sea, and in 1744 it suffered greatly by a hurricane. It is now but a small place; and yet it consists of three handsome streets, with several cross lanes, and a fine church. Not many years ago there was a yard built here for the king's naval stores, and for workmen employed about men of war. It is built on a small neck of land which jets out several miles into the sea, and is guarded by a very strong fort, which has a line of near 100 pieces of cannon, and a garrison of soldiers. The harbour is one of the best in the world, and 1000 ships may ride therein, secure from every wind that can blow. It is six miles east of Spanish-town, and as much by water south-east of Kingston. W. Long. 77. 0. N. Lat. 17. 30.

PORT-*Royal*, an island in North America, on the coast of South Carolina, which, with the neighbouring continent, forms one of the most commodious harbours in the British plantations. It is 15 miles in length; and the town on the north shore is called *Beaufort*. W. Long, 80. 10. N. Lat. 31. 45.

PORT-*Royal*, the name of two monasteries of Cistertian nuns in the diocese of Paris; the one near Chevreuse, at the distance of five leagues from Paris, called *Port-Royal of the Fields;* and the other in Paris, in the suburbs of St James.

The nuns of the former of these monasteries proving refractory, were dispersed; when many ecclesiastics, and others, who were of the same sentiments as these religious, retired to Port-Royal, took apartments there, and printed many books. Hence the name of *Port-Royalists* was given to all of their party, and their books were called *books of Port-Royal:* from hence we say the writers of Port-Royal, Messieurs de Port-Royal, and the translations and grammars of Port-Royal.

PORTA, or *Vena* PORTA, in anatomy, a large vein distributed through the liver in the manner of an artery. See ANATOMY, n° 357, d.

PORTAL, in architecture, a little gate where there are two gates of a different bigness; also a little square corner of a room cut off from the rest by the wainscot, and forming a short passage into the room. The same name is also sometimes given to a kind of arch of joiners work before a door.

PORTATE, or a *Cross* PORTATE, in heraldry, a cross which does not stand upright, as crosses generally do; but lies across the escutcheon in bend, as if it were carried on a man's shoulder.

PORTER, a kind of malt-liquor which differs from ale and pale beer in its being made with high dried malt. See ALE, BEER, and BREWING.

PORT-GREVE, or PORTGRAVE, was anciently the principal magistrate in ports and other maritime towns. The word is formed from the Saxon *port*, "a port or other town;" add *gerefa* a "governor."—It is sometimes also written *port-reve*.

Camden observes, that the chief magistrate of London was anciently called *port-greve:* instead of whom, Richard I. ordained two bailiffs; and soon afterwards king John granted them a mayor for their yearly magistrate.

PORTICO, in architecture, a kind of gallery on the ground, or a piazza encompassed with arches supported by columns, where people walk under covert. The roof is usually vaulted, sometimes flat. The ancients called it *lacunar*. Though the word *portico* be derived from *porta*, "gate, door;" yet it is applied to any disposition of columns which form a gallery, without any immediate relation to doors or gates. The most celebrated porticos of antiquity were, those of Solomon's temple, which formed the atrium or court, and encompassed the sanctuary: that of Athens, built for the people to divert themselves in, and wherein the philosophers held their disputes and conversations; which occasioned the disciples of Zeno to be called *stoics*, from the Greek στοα, *porticus:* and that of Pompey at Rome, raised merely for magnificence, consisting of several rows of columns supporting a platform of vast extent; a draught whereof, Serlio gives us in his antique buildings. Among the modern porticos, the most celebrated is the piazza of St Peter of the Vatica.—That of Covent-Garden, London, the work of Inigo Jones, is also much admired.

Portici || Porto bello.

PORTICI, a palace of the king of Naples, four miles from that capital. It has a charming situation, on the sea-side, near mount Vesuvius. It is enriched with a vast number of fine statues, and other remains of antiquity, taken out of the ruins of Herculaneum, which is not far from thence, and was swallowed up by an earthquake which attended an irruption of mount Vesuvius in the reign of the emperor Titus.

PORTLAND, a peninsula in Dorsetshire, of great strength both by nature and art, being surrounded with inaccessible rocks, except at the landing-place, where there is a strong castle, called *Portland castle*, built by king Henry VIII. There is but one church in the island; and that stands so near the sea, that it is often in danger from it. But this peninsula is chiefly noted for the free stone which is got here, and greatly employed in London for building the finest structures, and particularly St Paul's church was built therewith. W. Long. 2. 35. N. Lat. 50. 30.

PORTO-BELLO, a town of North America, situated in N. Lat. 9° 34′ 35″, close to the sea, on the declivity of a mountain, which surrounds the whole harbour. This harbour is so large, deep, and safe, that Columbus, who first discovered it, gave it the name of *Porto-Bello*, or the "Fine Harbour," which is now commonly used to denote the town. The number of the houses is about 130; most of them of wood, large and spacious, forming one long street along the strand, with other smaller ones crossing it. The governor of the town is always a gentleman of the army, subordinate to the president of Panama; but having under him the commandants of the forts that defend the harbour. At the east end of the town, on the road to Panama, is a place called *Guinea*, where all the negroes of both sexes, whether slaves or free, have their habitations. This place is very much crowded when the galleons are here: most of the inhabitants of the town quitting their houses entirely, for the sake of letting them; while others content themselves with a small part, in order to make money of the rest. The Mulattoes, and other poor families also, remove either to Guinea, or to cottages already erected near it, or built on the occasion. Great numbers of artificers likewise, who flock to Porto-Bello from Panama to work at their respective callings during the fair, lodge in Guinea for cheapness. Towards the sea, in a large tract between

tween the town and Gloria caſtle, barracks are erected, in moſt of which the ſhips crews keep ſtalls of ſweetmeats, and other kinds of eatables, brought from Spain; but at the concluſion of the fair, when the ſhips put to ſea, all theſe buildings are taken down, and the town returns to its former tranquillity and emptineſs. In 1739, the harbour was defended by a caſtle and two forts; which were all demoliſhed by admiral Vernon, who, with ſix ſhips only, made himſelf maſter of this port. The country about Porto-Bello is over-run with mountains and impenetrable foreſts, except a few valleys, in which are ſome ſcattered farms. Among the mountains that ſurround the harbour, one diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Capiro* and by its ſuperior loftineſs, is a fort of barometer to the country, by foretelling every change of weather. Its top is always covered with clouds, of a denſity and darkneſs ſeldom ſeen in thoſe of the atmoſphere. When theſe clouds thicken, increaſe their blackneſs, and ſink below their uſual ſtation, it is a ſure ſign of a tempeſt; while, on the other hand, their clearneſs and aſcent as certainly indicate the approach of fair weather. Theſe changes are very ſudden and frequent here. The ſummit of the mountain is ſcarce ever clear from clouds; and when it happens, it is only, as it were, for an inſtant. Except in the time of the fair, all the inhabitants of Porto-Bello do not amount to 3000; half of whom are Indians, Mulattoes, or negroes; the Spaniards of any ſubſtance not choofing to reſide in a place ſo extremely unhealthy, and fatal even to the lives of the natives. Ulloa tells us, that the cattle brought hither from Panama or Carthagena, loſe their fleſh ſo faſt in the beſt paſtures, as to become ſcarce eatable: he aſſures us alſo, that neither horſes nor aſſes are bred here. The heat, indeed, is exceſſive; and the torrents of rain are ſo dreadful, ſudden, and impetuous, that one not accuſtomed to them would imagine a ſecond deluge was coming. Theſe torrents are alſo accompanied with frightful tempeſts of thunder and lightning, the awfulneſs of the ſcene being heightened by the repercuſſions from the mountains, and the ſhrieks and howlings of multitudes of monkeys of all kinds which inhabit the ſurrounding woods.

Freſh water pours down in ſtreams from the mountains, ſome running without the town, and others croſſing it. Theſe waters are very light and digeſtive; qualities, which in other countries would be very valuable, but are here pernicious, producing dyſenteries, which the patient ſeldom ſurvives. However, theſe rivulets, formed into reſervoirs, ſerve the purpoſes of bathing, which is here found to be very conducive to health.

As the foreſts almoſt border on the houſes of the ſtreets, tygers often make incurſions into the ſtreets during the night, carrying off fowls, dogs, and other domeſtic animals, and ſometimes even children have fallen a prey to them. Beſides the ſnares uſually laid for them, the negroes and mulattoes, who ſell wood in the foreſts of the mountains, are very dextrous in encountering them; and ſome, for a ſlender reward, even ſeek them in their retreats.

The town of Porto-Bello, which is thinly inhabited by reaſon of its noxious air, the ſcarcity of proviſions, and the barrenneſs of the ſoil, becomes, after the arrival of the galleons, one of the moſt populous towns in the world. He who had ſeen it quite empty, and every place wearing a melancholy aſpect, would be filled with aſtoniſhment, to ſee the buſtling multitudes in the time of the fair, when every houſe is crowded, the ſquares and ſtreets encumbered with bales of merchandize and cheſts of gold and ſilver, the harbour full of ſhips and veſſels, ſome loaded with proviſions from Carthagena, and others with the goods of Peru, as cocoa, Jeſuits bark, Vicuna wool, and bezoar ſtones; and this town, at all other times deteſted for its deleterious qualities, becomes the ſtaple of the riches of the Old and New World, and the ſcene of one of the moſt conſiderable branches of trade in the univerſe. Formerly the fair was limited to no particular time; but as a long ſtay in ſuch a ſickly place extremely affected the health of the traders, his Catholic majeſty tranſmitted an order that the fair ſhould not laſt above 40 days; and that, if in that time the merchants could not agree on their rates, thoſe of Spain ſhould be allowed to carry their goods up the country to Peru; and accordingly, the commodore of the galleons has orders to re-embark them, and return to Carthagena; but otherwiſe, by virtue of a compact between the merchants of both kingdoms, and ratified by the king, no Spaniſh trader is to ſend his goods, on his own account, beyond Porto-Bello. The Engliſh were formerly allowed to ſend a ſhip annually to this fair, which turned to great account; and, whilſt the aſſiento contract ſubſiſted, either with the Engliſh or the French, one of their principal factories was at Porto-Bello.

Porto-*Farralo*, a handſome town of Italy, in the iſle of Elba, with a good citadel. It is very ſtrong, and ſeated on a long, high, ſteep point of land, to the weſt of the bay of the ſame name, which has two forts. It belongs to the great duke of Tuſcany, who always keeps a good garriſon there. E. Long. 10. 37. N. Lat. 48. 55.

Porto-*Longone*, a ſmall but very ſtrong town of Italy, and in the iſle of Elba, with a good harbour, and a fortreſs upon a rock almoſt inacceſſible. The king of Naples has a right to put a garriſon therein, though the place belongs to the prince of Piombino. It is ſeated on the eaſt end of the iſland, eight miles ſouth-weſt of Piombino. E. Long. 10. 40. N. Lat. 42. 45.

Porto-*Santo*, an iſland of the Atlantic Ocean, on the coaſt of Africa, and the leaſt of thoſe called the *Madeiras*. It is about 15 miles in circumference, and produces but little corn; however, there are oxen and wild hogs, and a vaſt number of rabbits. There are trees which produce the gum or roſin called *dragon's blood;* and there is likewiſe a little honey and wax, which are extremely good. It has no harbour, but good mooring in the road. It belongs to the Portugueſe, and is 300 miles weſt of the coaſt of Africa. W. Long. 15. 5. N. Lat. 32. 30.

Porto-*Seguro*, a government of South America, on the eaſtern coaſt of Braſil; bounded on the north by the government of Rio-dos-Hilios, on the eaſt by the North Sea, on the ſouth by the government of Spiritu-Santo, and on the weſt by the Tupicks. It is a very fertile country, and the capital town is of the ſame name. It is built on the top of a rock, at the mouth of a river, on the coaſt of the North Sea, and is inhabited by Portugueſe. W. Long. 35. 50. S. Lat. 17. 0.

PORTRAIT, in painting, the repreſentation of a perſon,

Portsmouth

perſon, and eſpecially of a face, done from the life. In this ſenſe we uſe the term *portrait-painting*, in contradiſtinction to *hiſtory-painting*, where a reſemblance of perſon is uſually diſregarded. Portraits, when as large as the life, are uſually painted in oil-colours; ſometimes they are painted in miniature with water-colours, crayons, paſtils, &c. See PAINTING, n° 39.

PORTSMOUTH, a ſea-port town in Hampſhire, with one of the moſt ſecure and capacious harbours in England, being defended by a numerous artillery, both on the ſea and land-ſide, and very good fortifications. A great part of the royal navy is built here; and here are ſome of the fineſt docks, yards, and magazines of naval ſtores, in Europe. It is ſeated in the iſle of Portſey, being ſurrounded by the ſea except on the north ſide, where there is a river which runs from one arm of it to the other. It is much reſorted to on account of the royal navy, whoſe uſual rendezvous is at Spit-head, which is at the eaſt end of the iſle of Wight, and oppoſite to Portſmouth. There is a draw-bridge over the river, and it has always a good garriſon. It is governed by a mayor, 12 aldermen and burgeſſes, and ſends two members to parliament. It has one church, and two chapels, one in the garriſon, and one in the Common, for the uſe of the dock, and others, beſides ſeveral meeting-houſes of the diſſenters. The houſes of Portſmouth amount to about 2000, and the inhabitants to about 12,000. W. Long. 1. 6. N. Lat. 50. 48.

The town is ſuppoſed to receive its name from Port, a famous Saxon chieftain, who, A. D. 501, landed here with his two ſons. It made a conſiderable figure in the time of the Saxons; and from the utility of its ſituation, was highly favoured by all our monarchs of the Norman line. It was incorporated, and became alſo a parliamentary borough. In the reign of Edward III. it was in a very flouriſhing ſtate; but, A. D. 1338, in the very ſame reign, was burned by the French, when that monarch, which was afterwards ratified by king Richard II. forgave the inhabitants a debt, and remitted their fee-farm for 10 years; within which ſpace they ſo recovered themſelves, as to equip a ſquadron, which ſailed into the mouth of the Sein, ſunk two ſhips, and brought away a great booty. The ſingular excellence of its port, and the convenience of fitting out fleets from thence in the time of a French war, induced Edward IV. to think of fortifying it, as he actually, in ſome meaſure, did; which fortifications were farther carried on by Richard III. But king Henry VII. was the firſt who ſettled a garriſon therein; which was increaſed, and the place made ſtill ſtronger, in the reign of Henry VIII. who had a great dock there, wherein was built the Henry Grace de Dieu, which was the largeſt ſhip in the navy of his time. The ſame monarch, remarkably attentive to the ſecurity of all maritime places, built what is now called *South-Sea Caſtle*, for the protection of this. The improvements made here in the reign of queen Elizabeth, were much ſuperior to all theſe. King Charles II. after his reſtoration, directed great alterations, eſtabliſhed new docks and yards, raiſed ſeveral forts, and fortified them after the modern manner; which works were augmented under his brother's reign. Notwithſtanding this, king William directed likewiſe freſh alterations and additions; and ſucceeding princes, following his example, have, at a large expence, extended theſe fortifications, and taken in a vaſt deal of ground: ſo that it is at preſent, as the importance of the place deſerves, the moſt regular fortreſs in Britain; and, as it cannot be effectually attacked by ſea, may be juſtly eſteemed impregnable.

Campbell's Political Survey.

Portugal.

PORTUGAL, the moſt weſterly kingdom of Europe, bounded on the weſt and ſouth by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the eaſt and north by Spain; extending about 310 miles in length, and 150 in breadth.

1 Boundaries.

By modern writers, we find this country conſtantly ſtyled in Latin, *Luſitania*; and it is certain, that anciently a country of Spain went by that name; but it does not by any means appear that the country called by the ancients *Luſitania*, had the ſame boundaries with the modern kingdom of Portugal. Before Auguſtus Cæſar, Luſitania ſeems to have been bounded on the north by the ocean, and on the ſouth by the river Tagus; by which means it comprehended all Galicia, and excluded two of the ſix provinces of Portugal. But in the more ſtrict and reſtrained ſenſe of the word, it was bounded on the north by the Durius, now the Douro, and on the ſouth by the river Anas, now the Guadiana; in which ſenſe it was not quite ſo long as modern Portugal, but conſiderably broader.

2 Etymology of the name.

The commonly received opinion with regard to the etymology of the word *Portugal* is, that a great number of Gauls landed at Porto, or Oporto, whence it received the name of *Portus Gallorum*, or *the Port of the Gauls*; and in proceſs of time that name gradually extended over the whole country, being ſoftened, or rather ſhortened, into *Portugal*. But the time when this event happened, the reaſon why theſe Gauls came thither, and what became of them afterwards, are all particulars which lie buried in oblivion. It is alleged, however, that, upon an eminence which overlooks the mouth of the river Douro, there ſtood an ancient town called *Cale*, ſtrong and well peopled, but ill ſeated for trade; and this occaſioned the conſtruction of a lower town or hamlet, which was called *Portus Cale*, that is, *the haven of Cale*; and, in proceſs of time, *Portucalia*. At length becoming ſo conſiderable as to merit an epiſcopal chair, theſe biſhops ſubſcribed themſelves, as the records of ancient councils teſtify, *Portucalenſes*, and the name of the city was transferred to the dioceſe. It is true, that theſe biſhops afterwards changed their title, and ſubſcribed themſelves *Portuenſes*, that is, *biſhops of Porto*. But the facts juſt mentioned are actually recorded in authentic hiſtories; and as the dioceſe of Portucalia contained in a great meaſure that little country in which the ſovereignty originally began, the name extended itſelf, together with the acquiſitions of the ſovereigns, and has remained to the kingdom, tho' the dioceſe itſelf has changed its name, and poſſibly on that very account.

3 Originally only a ſmall kingdom.

Portugal, though even yet but a ſmall kingdom, was originally much ſmaller. The Spaniſh and Portugueſe hiſtorians agree, that Don Alonſo, king of Leon and Caſtile, and ſon to Don Ferdinand the Great, beſtowed his daughter Donna Thereſa in marriage upon an illuſtrious ſtranger, Don Henry, and gave him with her the frontier province which he had conquered from the Moors, ſmall indeed in extent, but

Portugal. but excellently situated, and so pleasant and fertile, that it has sometimes been stiled *Medulla Hispanica*, or *the marrow of Spain*. To this territory was added the title of *Count;* but authors are much divided about the time that this stranger came into Spain, and who he was. However, the authors of the Universal History make it pretty evident, that he was a grandson of Robert the first duke of Burgundy. The manner in which he obtained the principality abovementioned is related as follows.

The king, Don Alonso, apprehensive that his success in taking the city of Toledo would bring upon him the whole force of the Moors, sent to demand assistance from Philip I. of France, and the duke of Burgundy, whose daughter he had married. His request was granted by both princes; and a numerous body of troops was speedily collected for his service, at whose head went Raymond count of Burgundy, Henry younger brother of Hugh duke of Burgundy, Raymond count of Tholouse, and many others. They arrived at the court of Don Alonso in the year 1087, where they were received and treated with all possible marks of esteem; and having in the course of two or three years given great proofs of their courage and conduct, the king resolved to bestow his only daughter named *Urraca*, then a mere child, being at most in her ninth year, upon Raymond count of Burgundy, and assigned them the province of Galicia for the support of their dignity. About four years after, Don Alonso being very desirous to express his gratitude to Henry of Burgundy, gave him in marriage a natural daughter of his, born while he remained in exile at Toledo, whose name was *Donna Theresa;* and upon this marriage, he gave up in full property the country which has been already mentioned.

4 Henry of Burgundy the first count of Portugal.

The new sovereign, with his consort, fixed their residence in the town of Guimaraez, pleasantly situated on the banks of the river Ave. The remains of an ancient palace belonging to their successors are still to be seen; and on account of its having been anciently the capital, the king Don Denis granted the inhabitants an immunity from taxes, which they still enjoy.

The Portuguese, now finding themselves independent, immediately began, like other nations, to attempt the subjection of their neighbours. Henry is said to have performed great exploits against the Moors; but the accounts of them are so indistinct, that they cannot be taken notice of here. He died in 1112; and was succeeded by his son Don Alonso, then an infant in the third year of his age. In his minority, the kingdom was governed by his mother Donna Theresa, assisted by two able ministers. During the first nine years of their administration nothing remarkable happened; but after that period, some differences took place between the queen regent (for she had assumed the title of queen after her father's death, and Urraca queen of Castile.) Theresa insisted, that some part of Galicia belonged to her in virtue of her father's will; and therefore seized on Tuy an episcopal town, and a place of some consequence. Urraca, having assembled a numerous army, went in person into Galicia; upon which Theresa was obliged to abandon Tuy, and take shelter in one of her own fortresses. The consequences, in all probability, would have been fatal to the new kingdom, had not the archbishop of Compostella, without whose assistance Urraca could do nothing, demanded leave to retire with his vassals. This offended the queen to such a degree, that she threw him into prison; which act of violence excited such a commotion among her own subjects, that the Portuguese were soon delivered from their apprehensions. Queen Theresa fell immediately after into a similar error, by throwing into prison the archbishop of Braga, who had not espoused her cause so warmly as she had expected. The bishop, however, was quickly delivered by a bull from the pope, who also threatened the kingdom with an interdict; and this was the first remarkable offence which Theresa gave her subjects.

5 Differences with Castile.

Soon after this, queen Urraca died, and all differences were amicably settled at an interview between Theresa and Don Alonso Raymond, who succeeded to the kingdom of Castile. But, in 1126, the king of Castile being obliged to march with the whole strength of his dominions against his father-in-law the king of Navarre and Arragon, Theresa took the opportunity of again seizing upon Tuy; but the king soon returning with a superior army, she was again obliged to abandon her conquest. But the greatest misfortune which befel this princess, was a quarrel with her own son Don Alonso Enriquez. It does not appear indeed that Theresa had given him any just cause of offence; but it is certain that a civil war ensued, in which the queen's forces were totally defeated, and she herself made prisoner, in which situation she continued during the remainder of her life.

6 Don Alonzo's wars with the Moors and king of Castile.

Enriquez having thus attained to the free and full possession of his dominions, made several attempts upon some places in Galicia, but without success; so that he was at last constrained to make peace with Don Alonso king of Castile and Leon, who had assumed the title of *Emperor of the Spains;* the more especially as his dominions happened to be at that time invaded by the Moors. The number of infidels was so great, that the court of Portugal had little hopes of subduing them: but a plague breaking out in the Moorish army, they were obliged to retreat; after which he reduced several places belonging to that nation. But in the mean time the emperor Don Alonso, breaking into the Portuguese territories, destroyed every thing with fire and sword. The king of Portugal surprised and cut off a considerable part of his army; which, however, did not hinder the emperor from marching directly towards him. But, at the intercession of the pope's legate, all differences were accommodated, and a peace concluded; all places and prisoners taken on both sides being delivered up.

In the mean time, the progress of the Christian arms in Spain being reported to Abu-Ali Texefien the miramamolin or chief monarch of the Moors in Barbary, he directed Ismar, or Ismael, his lieutenant in Spain, to assemble all the forces in the southern provinces, and drive the Christians beyond the Douro. Ismael immediately began to prepare for putting these orders in execution; and having added a considerable body of troops brought from Barbary to those whom he had raised in Spain, the whole army was very numerous. He was met by Don Alonso of Portugal in the plains of Ourique on the banks of the river Tayo; and Ish-

7 Victory of Ourique.

Portugal. Ismael took all possible means to prevent the Christians from passing that river, because his own cavalry, in which the strength of his army chiefly consisted, had thus more room to act. The Portuguese forces were very inconsiderable in number in comparison of the Moors; but Ismael, being too confident of victory, divided his army into 12 bodies, and disposed them in such a manner as might best prevent the flight, not sustain the attack, of the Christians. The consequence was, that his army was overthrown with incredible slaughter, and a vast number of prisoners taken, among whom were 1000 Christians, of the sect styled *Mozarabians*, whom, at the request of Theotonus, prior of the Holy Cross, Don Alonso set at liberty with their wives and children, and procured them settlements in his own dominions.

8 Don Alonso assumes the title of king.

After this signal victory, gained in the year 1139, Don Alonso was proclaimed king by his soldiers, and ever after retained that title, renouncing all kind of subjection to the crown of Spain. Being very desirous, however, of bringing down the power of the emperor, he entered into a league with Raymond count of Barcelona and regent of the kingdom of Aragon, against that prince. In consequence of this treaty, he entered Galicia with a considerable force on one side, while Don Raymond did the same on the other. Neither of these enterprizes, however, succeeded. The Portuguese monarch met with a severe check in his expedition into Galicia, where he received a dangerous wound, and had some of the nobility who attended him taken prisoners. At the same time he received intelligence that the Moors had invaded his dominions, so that he was obliged to retire; which, however, was not done in time sufficient to prevent the strong fortress of Leyria from falling into their hands. This fortress they demolished, and put all the garrison to the sword; but the king caused it to be rebuilt stronger than before, and put a more numerous garrison into it; however, he undertook nothing farther this campaign. The war continued with various success till the year 1145, when the king projected an enterprise against Santaren, a strong city about 12 miles from Lisbon. In this he luckily succeeded; and by that means gained a considerable track of country, and a strong barrier to his dominions.

After this success Don Alonso caused himself with much ceremony to be chosen and crowned king of Portugal before an assembly of the states, where he also solemnly renounced all dependence on the crown of Spain, declaring, that if any of his successors should condescend to pay tribute or to do homage to that crown, he was unworthy of enjoying the kingdom of Portugal.

9 Reduces Lisbon and twelve other cities.

The next year the king undertook the recovery of Lisbon out of the hands of the Moors; and concerning this expedition there are such numbers of fables, that it is almost impossible to come at the truth. What can be gathered from these accounts is, that he undertook the siege with a small army, and was able to make but little progress in it, partly from the strength of the place, and partly from the numerous garrison by which it was defended. At length, fortunately for Don Alonso, a fleet of adventurers, French, English, Germans, and Flemings, that were going to the Holy Land, anchored at the mouth of the river Tagus, whose assistance he demanded, as not altogether foreign to their design of making war on the infidels. His request was readily granted; and, with their assistance, Lisbon was speedily reduced; which conquest so much raised the reputation of this monarch, and brought such numbers to recruit his army, that before the end of the year 1147 he had reduced 12 other considerable cities.

10 Has his regal dignity confirmed by the pope.

For many years after this, Don Alonso was successful in all his undertakings. He settled the internal government of his kingdom, procured a bull from pope Alexander III. confirming his regal dignity, undertook many successful expeditions against the Moors, and became master of four of the six provinces which compose the present kingdom of Portugal. In all his undertakings, he was assisted by the counsels of his queen Matilda, who was a woman of great capacity, and sufficient for the government of the kingdom in her husband's absence. By her he had a numerous offspring, particularly three daughters; the eldest of whom, Donna Mafalda, or Mathilda, was married to the king of Aragon; the second, Urraca, to Don Ferdinand king of Leon; and the third, Theresa, to Philip earl of Flanders. In 1166, however, the king thought proper, from what provocation we know not, to invade the dominions of his son-in-law Don Ferdinand; and possessed himself of Limmia and Turon, two cities of Galicia, in which he put strong garrisons. The next year, elated with his success, he marched with a numerous army towards Badajos, which he invested; on the news of which, Don Ferdinand, who had assembled a large army at Ciudad Rodrigo, marched to its relief. Yet before he could come within sight of it, it had surrendered to the king of Portugal: upon which Don Ferdinand came to a resolution of besieging his antagonist in his newly conquered city; which Don Alonso perceiving, endeavoured to draw out his forces into the field. Though he was at that time upwards of 70 years of age, he was himself on horseback, and pushing forwards at the head of his horse to get out at the gate, he struck his leg against one of the bolts with such violence that the bone was shattered to pieces. This accident occasioned such confusion, that the Portuguese troops were easily beaten, and Don Alonso was taken prisoner. He was exceedingly mortified by this disgrace, especially as he had no great reason to expect very kind treatment from his son-in-law. However, the king of Leon behaved towards him with the greatest respect and affection. He desired him to lay aside all thoughts of business, and attend to his cure; but finding him restless and impatient, he assured him that he expected nothing more than to have things put into the same condition as before the war, and that they might live in peace and friendship for the future: to which the king of Portugal most readily assented; but returned to his dominions before his cure was perfected, which was the cause of his being lame all the rest of his life. However, this did not abate his military ardour; for, notwithstanding this inconvenience, his courage transported him into the field wherever he was called by the interest of his subjects. Towards the end of his reign, an opportunity seemed to present itself of obtaining once for all an entire release from the disagreeable pretensions of the king of Leon, who, it seems, had insisted on the king of Portugal's doing homage for his king-

11 His unsuccessful war with Don Ferdinand of Spain.

dom.

Portugal.

dom. The opportunity which now presented itself was a quarrel between the king of Leon and his nephew Don Alonso king of Castile. The latter asked assistance from the king of Portugal, which was readily granted. But Don Ferdinand, having received intelligence that the infant Don Sancho (the king's eldest son) was advancing towards Ciudad Rodrigo, assembled his troops on that frontier with such diligence, that he was enabled to attack him unexpectedly, and entirely defeated him. Understanding, however, that Don Sancho was recruiting his forces with great diligence, he let him know that they might be much better employed against the infidels, who remained careless and unprepared, expecting the issue of the war. Don Sancho made a proper use of this advice; and, after making some motions to amuse the enemy, made a sudden irruption into Andalusia, penetrating as far as Triana, one of the suburbs of Seville. The Moors assembled their forces in order to attack him on his retreat; but Don Sancho having first fatigued them by the celerity of his march, at length chose a strong camp, and, having given his troops time to repose, drew them out and offered the enemy battle. The Moors accepted the challenge, but were entirely defeated; and Don Sancho returned into Portugal with spoils to an immense value. For some years after, the war was continued without any remarkable event; but, in 1184, Joseph king of Morocco, having already transported multitudes of men from Barbary, at length followed in person with a prodigious army, and carried all before him as far as the Tayo. He appeared before the city of Santaren; but having wearied and reduced his army by unsuccessful assaults on that place, he was attacked by the Portuguese forces assisted by Ferdinand of Leon, entirely defeated, and himself killed. By this victory, the Portuguese were left at liberty to improve the interior part of their country, and fortify their frontiers; and during this interval, the king died in the 76th year of his age, in the year 1185.

12 Don Sancho's success against the Moors.

13 His wise administration when king.

Don Alonso was succeeded by his son Don Sancho I. Of this prince it is remarkable, that, before he ascended the throne, he was of a restless and warlike disposition; but no sooner did he come to the possession of the kingdom, than he became a lover of peace, and began with great assiduity to repair the cities that had suffered most by the war, and to repeople the country around them. By his steady attention to this, he in a very short time quite altered the appearance of his territories, and procured to himself the glorious title of *The restorer of cities, and father of his country*. In the year 1189, a fleet composed for the most part of English vessels, but having on board a great number of adventurers of other nations, bound to the Holy Land, entered the river of Lisbon. They were very kindly received, and supplied with all kinds of refreshments by Don Sancho, who took this opportunity of soliciting them to assist him in a design he had formed of attacking the city of Silves in Algarve, to which they readily yielded. Having joined a squadron of his own galleys, and marched a body of troops by land, the place was reduced, and the English, according to agreement, rewarded with the plunder. But, in a short time, the Moors from Africa having again invaded Portugal, the town was several times taken and retaken, till at last, Don Sancho, being sensible of the difficulties that would attend the keeping of it, caused it to be demolished. His last enterprize was the reduction of Elvas; soon after which he died with the reputation of the best œconomist that ever sat on the throne of Portugal. With the character of being rather liberal than avaritious, he had amassed a treasure of more than 700,000 crowns in ready money, besides 1400 merks of silver, and 100 of gold plate, which he disposed of some time before his death. He was interred by his own command with much less pomp than his father, in the cathedral of Coimbra; and when his body was taken up 400 years after by order of the king Don Emanuel that it might be laid in a new tomb, it was found uncorrupted.

14 Differences with Castile.

The history of Portugal affords scarce any event of importance till the year 1289; when, in the reign of Don Denis, a difference commenced with Castile, which subsisted for a long time. Frequent reconciliation took place; but these were either of very short duration, or never sincere. At length, in the reign of John I. Don Juan of Castile, who had also pretensions to the crown of Portugal, invaded that kingdom at the head of the whole force of his dominions, and with the flower of the Castilian nobility entered the province of Alentego. According to the Portuguese historians, he besieged the city of Elvas without effect; which disappointment enraged him to such a degree, that he determined next year to invade Portugal a second time, and ruin all the country before him. Accordingly, having collected an army of 30,000 men, he invaded Portugal, took and ruined several places, while king John lay inactive, with a small army, waiting for some English succours, which he expected. At last he ventured an engagement with the forces which he had; and, notwithstanding the great superiority of the enemy, obtained a complete victory; after which he made an irruption into Castile, and had the good fortune to gain another battle, which fixed him firmly on the throne of Portugal. The Castilians were obliged to consent to a truce of three years, which was soon after improved into a lasting peace.

15 The Castilians entirely defeated.

16 The city of Ceuta taken from the Moors.

In 1414, king John undertook an expedition against the Moors in Barbary, where he commanded in person; but before he set out, his queen (Philippa the daughter of John duke of Lancaster) died of grief at the thoughts of his absence. The expedition, however, proved successful, and the city of Ceuta was taken from the Moors almost at the first assault: but scarce had the king left that country, when the princes of Barbary formed a league for the recovery of it; and though they were defeated by the young princes of Portugal, whom John again sent into Barbary, yet the trouble of keeping it was so great, that some of the king's council were of opinion that the town should be demolished. But John, having considered the arguments on both sides, determined to keep the city; and therefore enlarged and strengthened the fortifications, augmenting his forces there to 6000 foot and 2500 horse, which he hoped would be sufficient for keeping off the attacks of the Moors.

King John died in 1428, and was succeeded by his eldest son Edward. He undertook an expedition against Tangier in Barbary; but the event proved very unfor-

Portugal. unfortunate; the Portuguese being so shut up by the Moors, that they were obliged to offer Ceuta back again, in order to obtain leave to return to Portugal. The king's son, Don Ferdinand, was left as a hostage for the delivery of Ceuta; but was, with the utmost cruelty and injustice, left in the hands of the infidels, by the king and council of Portugal, who constantly refused to deliver up the place. Many preparations indeed were made for recovering the prince by force; but before any thing could be accomplished the king died in 1430, which put an end to all these designs.

17 Passage to the East Indies discovered.

The war with Barbary continued at intervals, but with little success on the part of the Portuguese; and till the year 1497, there is no event of any consequence recorded in the history of Portugal. This year was remarkable for the discovery of the passage to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. The enterprising spirit of the Portuguese had prompted them to undertake voyages along the coast of Africa for a considerable time before; but none of the voyagers had the good fortune to double the Cape of Good Hope, before Vasco de Gama, in the year abovementioned. He performed his voyage in two years, but with a great loss of men; for out of 148 persons whom he took out with him, only 55 returned. The king received him with all possible testimonies of respect and kindness; created him count of Videgueira; and not only declared him admiral of the Indies, but made that office hereditary in his family. This discovery tended greatly to enrich the kingdom; but at the same time it proved detrimental, by inducing the most bold and enterprizing adventurers to leave their country for the Indies, whence very few of them returned. The introduction of foreign luxuries also proved detrimental by corrupting the manners of the people, and producing an effeminacy unknown before. The settlements on the western coasts of Africa, of which there were now a great number, contributed also to produce the same effect. However, the king had the honour of beginning a correspondence with the emperor of Abyssinia, and of gaining some advantages over the Moors in Barbary: but neither of these turned out to be of any service to the kingdom; for jealousy, envy, rapine, and every kind of vice, had diffused itself thro' the whole nation, insomuch that the Portuguese could neither be unanimous among themselves, nor behave with propriety to any other nation.

18 Proves detrimental to the kingdom.

In September 1522, king Emanuel died of an epidemical fever, and was succeeded by his son John III. The most remarkable transaction of this prince's reign was the introduction of the inquisition into his dominions. This happened in the year 1525, or, as some say, in 1535. A famine happening to cease in a short time after it was introduced, the priests persuaded the ignorant multitude that it was a blessing from heaven on account of the erecting such an holy tribunal. However, it was not long before the bulk of the nation perceived what kind of a blessing the inquisition was: but their discernment came too late; for by that time the inquisitors had acquired such power, that it became equally dangerous and ineffectual to attempt disclosing any of their mysteries.

19 Inquisition introduced into Portugal.

In the mean time the Mohammedans, provoked at the continual depredations and arbitary behaviour of the Portuguese in the East Indies, resolved to drive them all out at once. This scheme had been proposed by Campson sultan of the Mamalukes in Egypt, but his affairs not allowing him to put it in execution, Solyman II. emperor of the Turks resolved to take up the quarrel against the Portuguese; and accordingly sent orders to the bashaw of Egypt to employ his whole strength against the Christians in the East Indies. The bashaw, ino bedience to these orders, sailed out from the Red Sea with a greater naval force than ever the Mohammedans had employed before; having 4000 Janissaries, and 16,000 other land troops on board. Yet, by the courage and conduct of the Portuguese officers and soldiers, all this mighty armament was defeated, and their East India possessions saved from the danger which threatened them. In Africa likewise the king of Fez was baffled before the town of Safi, and fresh quarrels breaking out among the princes gave great relief to the Christians, who had long been obliged to carry on a defensive war, and had more than once been on the very brink of ruin. For a long time indeed their safety had been derived only from the qarrels of the Moors among themselves; for such was the envy and jealousy which reigned among the Portuguese, that they could never unite heartly in opposing the common enemy, and therefore had their enemies united against them, they must certainly have been cut off. But whenever the cheriffs quarrelled with each other, one party was sure to have recourse to the Portuguese; who, by sending them a small supply, secured quiet to themselves, and had the pleasure of seeing their enemies destroy one another. Yet in the end even this had bad consequences; for, on one hand, it kept up a martial spirit among the Moors, and on the other it made them acquainted with the Portuguese discipline; so that after every short interval of repose they not only found them as much enemies as before, but much more formidable than ever. The consequence of all was, that king John began to apprehend that the conquest of Barbary was impossible, and therefore began to limit his desires to the keeping of those few fortresses which he had already; which, though a necessary and prudent measure, displeased the generality of his subjects.

20 Solyman attempts to drive the Portuguese from their settlements in India, but in vain.

21 Bad state of affairs in Barbary.

King John exerted himself much in the settlement of Brazil in South America, which he brought into a very good state, caused several strong towns to be erected there, and took all possible methods to encourage the conversion of the natives to Christianity. He also made many regulations for the welfare and happiness of his subjects. The disputes of the nobility about precedency were frequently attended with very disagreeable consequences, which made the king resolve once for all to settle them by established rules, and the rules established by him on this occasion have subsisted ever since, and in a great measure prevent these altercations. He had other great designs in his mind, particularly with regard to the reformation, which he had pushed very far with respect to religious persons of both sexes; but, on a close examination of his affairs, he found his subjects in general to have been so much injured by his leaving their concerns to the inspection of his council, that he was thrown by the grief of it into a kind of apoplexy, from which he never

Portugal. never recovered. His death happened in June 1557; and he was succeeded by his son Don Sebastian III. an infant of three years of age.

After the death of King John, the administration remained in the hands of the queen, grandmother to Sebastian, who behaved with great prudence and circumspection. The Moors, however, supposing that under a minority they might be able to dispossess the Christians of such places as they held in Barbary, laid close siege to Masagnan. But the queen-regent sent such speedy succours, and promised such rewards to those who distinguished themselves, that the Moors, though they brought 80,000 men into the field, were obliged to abandon the enterprise. This was at first magnified as a high instance of the queen's capacity and wisdom; but in a short time the natural aversion which the Portuguese had to the government of women, together with the prejudice they had against her country, as being a Castilian, appeared so plainly, and gave her so much uneasiness, that of her own accord she resigned her authority into the hands of cardinal Don Henry the king's brother. By him Don Alexius de Meneses was appointed the king's governor, and Gonfales de Gomera with two other priests his preceptors. By means of those instructors the king's education was totally marred. His governor assiduously inculcated upon him that the chief virtue of a king was courage; that danger was never to be avoided, but always surmounted, let the occasion be what it would. His other tutors, instead of instructing him in the true religion, only inspired him with an abhorrence of professed infidels: the consequence of all which was, that he became rash, inconsiderate, and obstinate; all which qualities conspired to draw upon him the catastrophe which ruined both him and the kingdom.

22 Preposterous education of the young king Sebastian.

After the king was grown up to man's estate, his desire was to distinguish himself against the infidels. He himself chose an expedition to the East Indies; but the prime minister Alcocova, who did not choose to attend his monarch to such a distance, substituted Africa in its stead. This expedition the king entered into in the most inconsiderate and absurd manner. He first sent over Don Antonio prior of Crato, with some hundreds of soldiers; carried his principal courtiers over with him from a hunting match, and without equipages; he then sent for the duke of Aveyro, with such troops as he could collect on the short warning he had got; and when all these were assembled, the king spent his time in hunting, and slight excursions against the enemy, without doing any thing of consequence, except exposing his person upon all occasions. At length he returned to Portugal in such tempestuous weather, that his subjects had given him up for lost; when they were agreeably surprised by his unexpected arrival in the river of Lisbon, which they celebrated with the greatest rejoicings.

23 He undertakes an expedition into Africa.

The little success which attended the king in this expedition served only to inflame him more with desire for another; so that from the time he returned, he seemed to think on nothing else. He was highly delighted also with an accident which at this time furnished him with a pretence for war, though of that he stood in no great need. Muley Hamet, king of Fez and Morocco, had been dispossessed of his dominions by his uncle Muley Moloch. At the beginning of this war Don Sebastian had offered him his troops in Africa, which offer was rejected with contempt: but now being a fugitive, and having in vain applied for assistance to Philip of Spain, Muley Hamet applied to the king of Portugal; and, that he might the more easily succeed, caused the fortress of Arzila, which his father had recovered, to be restored to the Portuguese. The king was in a rapture at this event, and fancied that his glory would exceed that of all his predecessors. He was advised against this expedition, however, by all his friends. King Philip of Spain having done every thing to dissuade him from it in a personal conference, sent Francisco Aldana, an old and experienced officer, to Morocco; and at his return ordered him to attend Don Sebastian, in order to give him an account of the state of affairs in that country. This he performed with the greatest fidelity, but without any effect. The queen dowager and cardinal united in their endeavours to divert him from this unfortunate enterprise; but he treated them both with so little respect, that his grandmother broke her heart, and the cardinal, to shew his distaste to the measure, retired to Evora without coming either to court or council; which example was followed by many of the nobles. Many of these, however, sent very free remonstrances to the king on the impropriety of his conduct; and king Philip sent to him the duke de Medina Celi, once more to lay before him the reasons why he thought his scheme impracticable, and to put him in mind that he had no hand in pushing him upon his destruction, or of concealing from him the dangers into which he seemed determined to plunge himself and his subjects. Lastly, he received a letter on the subject from Muley Moloch himself, wherein that prince explained to him his own right to the crown of Fez, and shewed that he had only dispossessed a tyrant and a murderer, who had therefore no right to his friendship or assistance. He next assured him that he had no reason to fear either the power or neighbourhood of the Portuguese; as a proof of which, and as a mark of his esteem, he was content to make him a present of ten miles of arable ground round each of the fortresses he possessed in Africa, and which indeed were no more than four, viz. Tangier, Ceuta, Masagan, and Arzila. At the same time he addressed himself to king Philip of Spain, with whom he was on good terms, desiring him to interpose with his nephew Sebastian, that things might be yet adjusted without the effusion of human blood. But the king of Portugal was deaf to all salutary advice; and therefore paid no regard to this letter, nor to the remonstrances of his uncle. On the 24th of June 1577, therefore, he set sail from the bar of Lisbon with a fleet of 50 ships and five gallies, twelve pieces of cannon, and transports and tenders, making up near 1000 sail. His troops consisted of 9000 Portuguese foot; 3000 Germans; 700 Italians commanded by Sir Thomas Stukeley, an English exile, but remarkably brave; 2000 Castilians and 300 volunteers, commanded by Don Christopher de Tuvara master of the horse, a man of courage, but without either conduct or experience. He touched first at Lagos bay in the kingdom of Algarve, where he remained for four days: thence he proceeded to Cadiz; where he was magnificently feasted

24 Undertakes another, in spite of the remonstrances of all his friends.

25 Account of his forces.

Portugal. feasted for a week by the duke de Medina Sidonia, who took the opportunity once more, by order of Philip, of dissuading him from proceeding further in person. But this exhortation proved as fruitless as the rest; and the king having failed with a strong detachment for Tangier, ordered Don Diego de Souza, his commander in chief, to follow with the remaining part of the army.

The troops landed on the coast of Africa without any bad accident, and joined at Arzila. Here the king was met by the cheriff Muley Hamet, on whose account he had undertaken the war, who delivered him his son Muley, a boy of 12 years of age, as a hostage, and brought a reinforcement of 300 Moors. The boy was sent to Masagan under a strong guard; but the father remained in the Portuguese camp. Here it was resolved in a council of war to reduce the town of Larache, but it was disputed whether the troops should proceed thither by land or sea. Don Sebastian, who espoused the former opinion, finding himself opposed by Muley Hamet, gave him such a rude answer, that he left his presence in discontent; after which the king's opinion prevailed, and the army began its march on the 29th of July. As they proceeded, the king received a letter from the duke of Alba, requesting him to attempt nothing beyond the taking of the town of Larache. Along with this letter was sent an helmet which had been worn by Charles V.

26 Movements and disposition of the armies.

On the other hand Muley Moloch, having intelligence of this formidable invasion, took the field, tho' at that time so ill of a fever that he could not sit on horseback, with 40,000 foot and 60,000 horse. He conducted every thing, notwithstanding his distressed situation, with the greatest prudence. Finding some reason to suspect that part of his army were desirous of going over to his rival, he proclaimed that such as inclined to join their old master were at liberty to do it. This at once put a stop to the defection, and only a very few made use of the liberty which was granted them. Standing in doubt likewise of the fidelity of a body of 3000 horse, he sent them to reconnoitre the enemy, by which act of confidence he secured them. Still, however, he feared that his officers might be corrupted by the Portuguese gold; for which reason he changed the disposition of his army entirely, so that none of his officers commanded the corps to which they had been accustomed; and therefore, having new men to deal with, had none whom they could trust.

Having taken these precautions, he advanced against the Portuguese army with such celerity, that he came in sight of them on the 3d of August. On this Don Sebastian called a council of war; in which many who out of complaisance had given their opinions for this march, were now for returning. They were separated from the enemy by a river, and the Moors were masters of the ford, so that it was impossible to force them immediately in their posts; neither was it practicable for them to wait for a more favourable opportunity, because they had no provisions. The foreign officers, on the contrary, were of opinion that fighting was now become necessary, and a retreat dangerous. This, however, was violently opposed by the cheriff, who saw plainly that they ran a great risk of being defeated and of losing all, while at the same time they were not certain of gaining any thing of consequence though they should be victorious: whereas, if they drew down towards the sea, they might entrench themselves till they were relieved by their fleet; during which interval if Muley Moloch should die, he looked upon it as certain that a great part of the army would desert to him, which would render him master not only of the kingdom, but of the fate of the Christians also. When he found that the king was bent on fighting, he only requested that the engagement might be delayed till 4 o'clock in the afternoon, that, in case of a defeat, they might have some chance of escaping: but even in this he could not prevail; for the king having disposed of every thing for a battle the next day, was impatient to begin the onset as soon as it was light.

In the mean time Muley Moloch was so sensible of the advantages of his situation, that he was inclined to take the whole Portuguese army prisoners; but finding his disease increase, so that he had no hopes of recovery, he came to a resolution to fight, that his antagonist might not avail himself of his death. The disposition of the Christian army was very regular and correct, through the care of some old officers in Don Sebastian's service: the infantry were disposed in three lines; the battalion of volunteers made the vanguard; the Germans commanded by colonel Amberg, and the Italians by Sir Thomas Stukeley, were on the right; the Castilian battalions on the left; the Portuguese in the centre and rear; the cavalry, consisting of about 1500 men, partly on the right under the command of the duke d'Avegro, to whom the cheriff joined himself with his horse: on the left was the royal standard, with the rest of the cavalry, under the command of the duke of Barcelos eldest son to the duke of Braganza, Don Antonio prior of Crato, and several other persons of great rank. The king took post at first with the volunteers. Muley Moloch disposed also his troops in three lines: the first consisted of the Andalusian Moors, commanded by three officers who had distinguished themselves in the wars of Granada; the second of renegadoes; and the third of the natives of Africa. They moved in a half moon, with 10,000 horse on each wing, and the rest in the rear, with orders to extend themselves in such a manner as to encompass the Christian army. Muley Moloch, though extremely weak, was taken out of his litter, and set on horseback, that he might see how his commands had been obeyed; and being perfectly satisfied with the situation of his troops, he directed the signal of battle to be given. The Christians advanced with the greatest resolution; broke the first line of the Moorish infantry, and disordered the second. On this Muley Moloch drew his sword, and would have advanced to encourage his troops, but that his guards prevented him; on which his emotion of mind was so great, that he fell from his horse. One of his guards caught him in his arms, and conveyed him to his litter; where he immediately expired, having only time to lay his finger on his lips by way of enjoining them to conceal his death. But by this time the Moorish cavalry had wheeled quite round, and attacked the Christian army in the rear: upon which the cavalry in the left wing made such a vigorous effort that they broke the Portuguese on the right; and at this time the cheriff, in passing a

27 The Portuguese army entirely destroyed.

Portugal. rivulet was drowned. In this emergency, the Germans, Italians, and Castilians, did wonders; but the Portuguese, according to their own historians, behaved indifferently. Attacked on all sides, however, they were unable to resist; and the whole army, except about 50 men, were killed or taken prisoners. The fate of the king is variously related. According to some, he had two horses killed under him, and then mounted a third. His bravest officers were killed in his defence; after which the Moors surrounding him, seized his person, stripped him of his sword and arms, and secured him. They immediately began to quarrel about whose prisoner he was; upon which one of the generals rode in among them, crying, "What, you dogs, when God has given you so glorious a victory, would you cut one anothers throats about a prisoner?" at the same discharging a blow at Sebastian, he brought him to the ground, when the rest of the Moors soon dispatched him. Others affirm, that one Lewis de Brito meeting the king with his standard wrapped round him, Sebastian cried out, "Hold it fast, let us die upon it!" upon which charging the Moors, he was seized, rescued by Brito, who was himself taken with the standard, and carried to Fez. He affirmed, that after he was taken, he saw the king at a distance, and unpursued. Don Lewis de Lima met him afterwards making towards the river, and this is the last account we have of his being seen alive.

Muley Hamet, the brother of Muley Moloch, was proclaimed king by the Moors immediately after the battle. Next day, having ordered all the prisoners to be brought before him, the new sovereign gave orders to search for the body of Don Sebastian. The king's valet-de-chambre brought back a body, which he said was that of his master, but so disfigured with wounds, that it could not well be known; so that notwithstanding the most diligent search, this monarch's death could never be properly authenticated. This body, however, was preserved by Muley Hamet, who delivered it up as the body of Don Sebastian, to king Philip of Spain. By him it was sent to Ceuta, from whence it was transported to Portugal, and buried among his ancestors in the monastery at Belem, with all possible solemnity.

By this terrible disaster, the kingdom of Portugal, from being the most eminent, sunk at once into the lowest rank of the European states. All the young nobility were cut off, or carried into slavery: the kingdom was exhausted of men, money, and reputation; so that Don Henry, who assumed the government after the death of his brother Don Sebastian, found himself in a very disagreeable situation. The transactions of his reign were quite trifling and unimportant; but after his death a great revolution took place. The crown of Portugal was claimed by three different competitors; viz. the prince of Parma, the duchess of Braganza, and king Philip of Spain. Whatever might have been the merits of their respective claims, the power of Philip quickly decided the contest in his favour. He found his schemes facilitated by the treachery of the regents, who took the most scandalous methods of putting the kingdom into his hands. Under pretence of inspecting the magazines, they took out some of the powder, and mixed the rest with sand: they appointed an agent to go to France for succours, from whence they knew that they could not arrive in time; they dissolved the states as soon as they discovered that they were bent on maintaining the freedom of the nation; and, under a show of confidence, sent off to distant places such of the nobility as they suspected.

29 Portugal conquered by Philip of Spain.

King Philip, finding every thing in his favour, commanded the duke of Alva to invade Portugal, at the head of 20,000 men. The people, perceiving that they were betrayed, exclaimed against the governors, and placed on the throne Don Antonio prior of Crato. But his forces being inexperienced, and he himself behaving in a very improper manner, he was quickly defeated by the duke of Alva, and forced to fly out of the kingdom, which he effected with great difficulty. On his flight the whole kingdom submitted; together with the garrisons in Barbary, the settlements on the western coast of Africa, of Brazil, and in the East Indies. All the Madeiras, however, except the isle of St Michael, held out for Don Antonio until they were reduced, and the French navy, who came to their assistance, entirely defeated and destroyed.

29 Terms granted by him to his new subjects.

Philip made his entry into Lisbon as soon as the kingdom was totally reduced, and endeavoured to conciliate the affections of the people by confirming the terms which he had before offered to the states. These terms were, that he would take a solemn oath to maintain the privileges and liberties of the people: that the states should be assembled within the realm, and nothing proposed in any other states that related to Portugal: that the viceroy or chief governor should be a native, unless the king should give that charge to one of the royal family: that the houshold should be kept on the same footing: that the post of first president, and of all offices, civil, military, and judicial, should be filled with Portuguese; all dignities in the church, and in the orders of knighthood confined to the same; the commerce of Ethiopia, Africa, and the Indies, reserved also to them, and to be carried on only by their merchants and vessels: that he would remit all imposts on ecclesiastical revenues: that he would make no grant of any city, town, or jurisdiction royal, to any but Portuguese: that estates resulting from forfeitures should not be united to the domain, but go to the relations of the last possessor, or be given to other Portuguese for recompence of services: that when the king came to Portugal, where he should reside as much as possible, he should not take the houses of private persons for his officers lodging, but keep to the custom of Portugal: that wherever his majesty resided, he should have an ecclesiastic, a treasurer, a chancellor, two masters of requests, with under officers, all of them Portuguese, who should dispatch every thing relating to the kingdom: that Portugal should ever continue a distinct kingdom, and its revenue be consumed within itself: that all matters of justice should be decided within the realm: that the Portuguese should be admitted to charges in the households of the king and queen of Spain: that all duties on the frontiers should be taken away: and lastly, that Philip should give 300,000 ducats to redeem prisoners, repair cities, and relieve the miseries which the plague and other calamities had brought upon the people.

Portugal.

people. All these conditions, formerly offered and rejected by the Portuguese, the king now confirmed: but whereas the duke of Ossuna, by way of security for these conditions, had promised them a law, that if the king did not adhere to them, the states should be freed from their obedience, and might defend their right by the sword, without incurring the reproach of perjury, or the guilt of treason; this he absolutely refused to ratify.

30 Cannot conciliate their affections.

All these concessions, however, did not answer the purpose; nay, though Philip was to the last degree lavish of honours and employments, the Portuguese were still dissatisfied. This had also an effect which was not foreseen: it weakened the power, and absorbed the revenues, of the crown; and, by putting it out of the power of any of his successors to be liberal in the same proportion, it raised only a short-lived gratitude in a few, and left a number of malcontents, to which time was continually adding.

Thus Philip, with all his policy, and endeavours to please, found his new subjects still more and more disgusted with his government, especially when they found their king treating with the utmost severity all those who had supported Don Antonio. The exiled prince, however, still styled himself *king of Portugal*.

31 Is disturbed by Don Antonio.

At first he retired to France, and there demanded succours for the recovery of his dominions. Here he found so much countenance, that with a fleet of near 60 sail, and a good body of troops on board, he made an attempt upon the Terceras, where his fleet was beat by the Spaniards; and a great number of prisoners being taken, all the officers and gentlemen were beheaded, and a great number of meaner people hanged. Don Antonio, notwithstanding, kept possession of some places, coined money, and did many other acts of regal power; but was at length constrained to retire, and it was with some difficulty that he did this, and returned into France. He passed from thence into England, where he was well received; and many fitted out privateers to cruise against the Spaniards under his commission. But after king Philip had ruined the naval power of Portugal as well as Spain, by equipping the armada, Queen Elisabeth made no difficulty of owning and assisting Don Antonio, and even of sending Sir John Norris and Sir Francis Drake with a strong fleet and a great army to restore him. Upon this occasion Don Antonio sent his son Don Christopher a hostage to Muley Hamet king of Fez and Morocco, who was to lend him 200,000 ducats. But king Philip prevented this by surrendering Arzila: and this disappointment, the unseasonable enterprise upon Corunna, and the disputes that arose between Norris and Drake, rendered that expedition abortive; so that, except carrying the plague into England, it was attended with no consequences worthy of notice. He remained some time after in England; but finding himself little regarded, he withdrew once more into France, where he fell into great poverty and distress; and at length dying in the 64th year of his age, his body was buried in the church of the nuns of Ave Maria, with an inscription on his tomb, in which he is styled *king*. He left several children behind him, who, on account of his being a knight of Malta, and having made a vow of virginity at his entrance into the order, were looked upon as illegitimate. He preserved, even to the day of his death, a great interest in Portugal; and had drawn from thence, in the course of his life, immense sums of money; which had been squandered in many fruitless negotiations, and attempts to disturb the possessions of king Philip in almost all parts of his dominions, and particularly in the Indies, where the Portuguese were rather more averse to the Castilian yoke, or at least testified their aversion more openly, than in Europe.

32 Impostors pretending to be Don Sebastian.

But Don Antonio was not the only pretender to the crown of Portugal: for the people, partly thro' the love of their prince, and partly from their hatred to the Castilians, were continually feeding themselves with the hopes that Don Sebastian would appear and deliver them; and in this respect such a spirit of credulity reigned, that it was said proverbially, they would have taken a negro for Don Sebastian. This humour put the son of a tyler at Alcobaza, who had led a profligate life, and at length turned hermit, to give himself out for that prince; and having with him two companions, one of them styled himself *Don Christopher de Tavora*, and the other the *bishop of Guarda*, they began to collect money, and were in a fair way of creating much disturbance, if the cardinal arch-duke had not caused him to be apprehended; and after leading him ignominiously through the streets of Lisbon, he who took the name of *Sebastian* was sent to the galleys for life, and the pretended bishop was hanged. Not long after, Gonsalo Alvarez, the son of a mason, gave himself out for the same king, and having promised marriage to the daughter of Pedro Alonso, a rich yeoman, whom he created earl of Torres Novas, he assembled a body of about 800 men, and some blood was spilt before he was apprehended: at length, being clearly proved to be an impostor, himself and his intended father-in-law were publicly hanged and quartered at Lisbon; which, instead of extinguishing this humour, farther increased it.

33 Account of a remarkable one.

There was, however, a person who appeared, about 20 years after the fatal defeat of Sebastian, at Venice, who created much more trouble. He assumed the name of *Don Sebastian*, and gave a very distinct account of the manner in which he had passed his time from that defeat. He affirmed, that he had preserved his life and liberty by hiding himself amongst the slain: that, after wandering in disguise for some time in Africa, he returned with two of his friends into the kingdom of Algarve: that he gave notice of this to the king Don Henry: that finding his life sought, and being unwilling to disturb the peace of the kingdom, he returned again among the Moors, and passed freely from one place to another in Barbary, in the habit of a penitent: that after this he became a hermit in Sicily; but at length resolved to go to Rome, and discover himself to the pope. On the road he was robbed by his domestics, and came almost naked to Venice, where he was known, and acknowledged by some Portuguese. Complaint being made to the senate, he was obliged to retire to Padua. But the governor of that city ordering him also to depart, he, not knowing what to do, returned again to Venice; where, at the request of the Spanish ambassador, who charged him not only with being an impostor, but also with many black and atrocious crimes, he was seized, and thrown into prison. He underwent 28 examinations before a committee of noble and

Portugal. and impartial perſons; in which he not only acquitted himſelf clearly of all the crimes that had been laid to his charge, but entered alſo into ſo minute a detail of the tranſactions that had paſſed between himſelf and the republic, that the commiſſioners were perfectly aſtoniſhed, and ſhewed no diſpoſition to declare him an impoſtor; moved more eſpecially by the firmneſs of his behaviour, his ſingular modeſty, the ſobriety of his life, his exemplary piety, and his admirable patience under his afflictions. The noiſe of this was diffuſed throughout Europe, and the enemies of Spain endeavoured every where to give it credit.

The ſtate, however, refuſed to diſcuſs the great point, whether he was or was not an impoſtor, unleſs they were requeſted ſo to do by ſome prince or ſtate in alliance with them. Upon this the prince of Orange ſent Don Chriſtopher, the ſon of the late Don Antonio, to make that demand; and at his requeſt an examination was made with great ſolemnity: but no deciſion followed; only the ſenate ſet him at liberty, and ordered him to depart their dominions in three days. He went therefore, by the advice of his friends, to Padua, but in the diſguiſe of a monk, and from thence to Florence; where he was arreſted by the command of the grand duke, who delivered him to the viceroy of Naples. The count de Lemos, then in poſſeſſion of that dignity, died ſoon after, before whom he was firſt brought; this man aſſerted, he muſt know him to be Don Sebaſtian, ſince he had been twice ſent to him from the king of Spain. He remained priſoner ſeveral years in the caſtle del Ovo, where he endured incredible hardſhips. At length he was brought out, led with infamy thro' the ſtreets of the city, and declared to be an impoſtor, who aſſumed the name of *Sebaſtian*: at which words, when proclaimed before him, he ſaid gravely, *And ſo I am*. In the ſame proclamation it was affirmed, that he was in truth a Calabrian; which as ſoon as he heard, he ſaid, *It is falſe*. He was next ſhipped on board a galley as a ſlave; then carried to St Lucar, where he was ſome time confined; from thence he was tranſferred to a caſtle in the heart of Caſtile, and never heard of more. Some perſons were executed at Liſbon for their endeavours to raiſe an inſurrection on his behalf: but it was thought ſtrange policy, or rather a ſtrange want of policy, in the Spaniards, to make this affair ſo public without proofs; and the attempt to ſilence this objection, by affirming him to be a magician, was juſtly looked upon as ridiculous.

34 Bad conſequences of the Spaniſh adminiſtration.

The adminiſtration of affairs in Portugal, during the reign of Philip, was certainly detrimental to the nation; and yet it does not appear that this ſlowed ſo much from any ill intention in that monarch, as from errors in judgment. His prodigious preparations for the invaſion of England impoveriſhed all his European dominions; but it abſolutely exhauſted Portugal. The pretenſions of Don Antonio, and the hopes of deſpoiling their Indian fleets, expoſed the Portugueſe to the reſentment of the Engliſh; from which the king having granted away all his domains, wanted power to defend them. Their clamours were not at all the leſs loud for their being in ſome meaſure without cauſe. The king, to pacify them, borrowed money from the nobility upon the cuſtoms, which were the only ſure remedy he had ſtill left; and this was attended with fatal conſequences. The branches, thus mortgaged, became, and continue to this hour, fixed and hereditary; ſo that the merchant was oppreſſed, and the king received nothing. This expedient failing, a tax of three *per cent.* was impoſed, in the nature of ſhip-money, for the defence of the coaſts and the commerce, which for ſome years was properly applied; but then made a part of the ordinary revenue, and went into the king's exchequer without account. This made way for diverting other appropriated branches; as for inſtance, that for the repair of fortifications, the money being ſtrictly levied, and the works ſuffered to decay and tumble down; and for the maintenance of the conqueſts in Africa, by which the garriſons mouldered away, and the places were loſt. Upon the whole, in the ſpace of 18 years, the nation was viſibly impoveriſhed: and yet the government of Philip was incomparably better than that of his ſucceſſors; ſo that his death was juſtly regretted; and the Portugueſe were taught by experience to confeſs, that of bad maſters he was the beſt.

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35 Great loſſes in Aſia and America.

His ſon Philip, the ſecond of Portugal and the third of Spain, ſat 20 years upon the throne before he made a viſit to Portugal, where the people put themſelves to a moſt enormous expence to receive him; for which they received little more than the compliment, that, before his entry into Liſbon, he knew not how great a king he was. He held an aſſembly of the ſtates, in which his ſon was ſworn ſucceſſor. Having done all that he wanted for himſelf, he acquired a falſe idea of the riches of the nation from an immoderate and fooliſh diſplay of them during his ſhort ſtay at Liſbon; and having ſhown himſelf little, and done leſs, he returned into Spain; where he acted the part of a good king upon his death-bed, in deploring bitterly that he never thought of acting it before. The reign of Philip III. and IV. was a ſeries of worſe meaſures, and worſe fortune: all his dominions ſuffered greatly; Portugal moſt of all. The loſs of Ormus in the Eaſt, of Brazil in the Weſt Indies, together with the ſhipwreck of a fleet ſent to eſcort that from Goa, brought the nation incredibly low, and encouraged the conde duke to hope they might be entirely cruſhed. Theſe are the heads only of the tranſactions for 40 years: to enter in any degree into the particulars, is, in other words, to point out the breaches made by the Spaniſh miniſters on the conditions granted by king Philip; which, with reſpect to them, was the original contract, and unalterable conſtitution of Portugal while ſubject to the monarchs of Caſtile; and which, notwithſtanding, they ſo often and ſo flagrantly violated, that one would have imagined they had ſtudied to provoke the wrath of heaven, and inſult the patience of men, inſtead of availing themſelves, as they might have done, of the riches, power, and martial ſpirit of the Portugueſe people.

36 The Portugueſe oppreſſed by the Spaniards.

It was the very baſis and foundation of their privileges, that the kingdom ſhould remain ſeparate and independent, and conſequently that Liſbon ſhould continue as much its capital as ever, the ſeveral ſupreme councils and courts reſiding; ſo that the natives of this realm might not be obliged to travel in ſearch of juſtice. So little, or at leaſt ſo ſhort a time was this obſerved, that neither promotion nor juſtice was to be obtained without journeys, and Madrid was not more the capital of Caſtile than of Portugal. The general aſſembly of eſtates was to be held frequently, and they were held thrice in the ſpace of 60 years; and of theſe

twice

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twice within the first three. The king was to reside in this realm, as often and as long as possible; in compliance with which, Philip I. was there but once, Philip II. but four months, and Philip III. was never there at all. The household establishment was suppressed through all their reigns. The viceroy was to be a native of Portugal, or a prince or princess of the blood; yet when any of the royal family bore the title, the power was in reality in the hands of a Spaniard. Thus, when the princess of Mantua was vice-queen, the marquis de la Puebla was to assist in council, and in all dispatches; and she was to do nothing without his advice. The council of Portugal, which was to be composed entirely of natives, was filled with Castilians, as the garrisons also were, though the contrary had been promised. The presidents of provinces, or corregidors, were to be natives; but by keeping those offices in his own hands, the king eluded this article. No city, town, or district, were to be given but to Portuguese; yet the duke of Lerma had Beja, Serpa, and other parts of the demesnes of the crown, which were formerly appenages of the princes of the blood. None but natives were capable of offices of justicee, in the revenue, in the fleet, or of any post civil or military; yet these were given promiscuously to foreigners, or sold to the highest bidder; not excepting the governments of castles, cities, and provinces. The natives were so far from having an equal chance in such cases, that no posts in the presidials were ever given to them, and scarce any in garrisons; and whenever it happened, in the case of a person of extraordinary merit, whose pretensions could not be rejected, he was either removed, or not allowed to exercise his charge; as fell out to the marquis of Marialva and others. The forms of proceeding, the jurisdiction, the ministers, the secretaries, were all changed, in the council of Portugal; being reduced from five to three, then two, and at last to a single person.

By reason of these and many orther grievances too tedious to be mentioned here, the detestation of the Spanish government became universal; and in 1640 a revolution took place, in which John duke of Braganza was declared king, by the the title of John IV. This revolution, as being determined by the almost unanimous voice of the nation, was attended with very little effusion of blood; neither were all the efforts of the king of Spain able to regain his authority. Several attempts indeed were made for this purpose. The first battle was fought in the year 1644, between a Portuguese army of 6000 foot and 1100 horse, and a Spanish army of nearly the same number. The latter were entirely defeated; which contributed greatly to establish the affairs of Portugal on a firm basis. The king carried on a defensive war during the remainder of his life; but after his death, which happened in 1655, the war was renewed with great vigour. The marquis of Marialva gained another battle at Elvas; and in 1665 the fortune of the war was finally decided in favour of the Portuguese by the victory of Montesclaros, which entirely broke the power of the Spaniards, and since that time they have never been able to undertake any thing of moment against Portugal. But though the Portugese had recovered their liberty, they have entirely lost their consequence in the political scale of Europe; and had not Britain, for commercial reasons, constantly kept their powerful neighbours in awe, it is more than probably that the country would long since have again become a province of Spain; of which the last invasion of Portugal by the Spaniards affords a convincing proof. See Britain, nº 449.

37 A revolution in favour of the duke of Braganza.

38 Air, climate, &c.

The air of Portugal, in the southern provinces, would be excessive hot, if it were not refreshed by the sea-breezes; but in the northern, it is much cooler, and the weather more subject to rains. The spring is extremely delightful here; and the air, in general, more temperate than in Spain. Lisbon has been much resorted to of late by valetudinarians, and consumptive persons, from Great Britain, on account of its air. The soil is very fruitful in wine, oil, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, raisins, almonds, chestnuts, and other fine fruits; but there is a want of corn, owing, it is said, in a great measure to the neglect of agriculture. There is plenty of excellent honey here; and also of sea and river-fish, and sea-salt. The horses in Portugal are brisk lively animals, as they are in Spain, but of a slight make: but mules being surer-footed, are more used for carriage and draught. By reason of the scarcity of pasture, there are not many herds of cattle or flocks of sheep; and what they have are small and lean, though the flesh is tolerably good: their best meat is said to be that of hogs and kids. The country in many parts is mountainous: but the mountains contain all kinds of ores; particularly of silver, copper, tin and iron, with a variety of gems, beautifully variegated marble, mill-stones, and many curious fossils. Not far from Lisbon is a mine of salt-petre; but none of the metal mines are here worked, the inhabitants being supplied with metals of all kinds from their foreign settlements. The principal rivers are the Minho, in Latin *Minius*; the Limia, anciently the famed Lethe; the Cavado; the Douro; the Guadiana, anciently Anas; and the Tajo, or Tagus, which is the largest river in the kingdom, carrying some gold in its sands, and falling into the sea a little below Lisbon. There are several mineral springs in the kingdom, both hot and cold, which are much frequented.

39 Religion.

The only religion tolerated in Portugal is that of the church of Rome; yet there are many concealed Jews, and those too even among the nobility, bishops, prebends, monks, and nuns, and the very inquisitors themselves. If a Jew pretends to be a Christian and a Roman catholic, while he is really a Jew, by going to mass, confession, &c. or if after being converted, or pretending to be converted and pardoned, he relapses in Judaism and is discovered, the inquisition lays hold of him. In the first case, if they renounce Judaism, they are only condemned to some corporal punishment or public shame, and then ordered to be instructed in the Christian religion. In the second, they are condemned to the flames without mercy. Besides Jews and heretics, who broach or maintain any doctrines contrary to the religion of the country, the inquisition punishes all sodomites, pretenders to sorcery and the black art, apostates, blasphemers, perjured persons, impostors, and hypocrites. The burning of those condemned by the inquisition, is called an *auto da fe*, or "act of faith." There are several tribunals of the inquisition, one of which is at Goa in the East Indies; but there are none in Brasil. The number of convents in

Portugal. in Portugal is said to be 900. The order of Jesuits hath been suppressed in this country, as they have been in others. Here is a patriarch, several archbishops and bishops: the patriarch is always a cardinal, and of the royal family. The archbishops rank with marquisses, and the bishops with counts. The Portuguese have archbishops and bishops in the other quarters of the world, as well as in Europe. The sums raised by the popes here, by virtue of their prerogatives, are thought to exceed the revenues of the crown, and the nuncios never fail of acquiring vast fortunes in a short time. Though there are two universities and several academies, yet while the papal power, and that of the ecclesiastics, continues at such a height, true learning is like to make but a small progress. The language of the Portuguese does not differ much from that of Spain: Latin is the ground-work of both; but the former is more remote from it, and harsher to the ear, than the latter. The Portuguese tongue is spoken on all the coasts of Africa and Asia as far as China, but mixed with the languages of the several nations in those distant regions.

40 Manufactures. With regard to manufactures, there are very few in Portugal, and those chiefly coarse silks, woollen cloths, and some linen; but their foreign trade is very considerable, especially with England, which takes a great deal of their wine, salt, foreign commodities, and fruits, in return for its woollen manufactures, with which the Portuguese furnish their colonies and subjects in Asia, Africa, and America. Their plantations in Brazil are very valuable, yielding gold, diamonds, indigo, copper, tobacco, sugar, ginger, cotton, hides, gums, drugs, dying woods, &c. From their plantations in Africa, they bring gold and ivory, and slaves to cultivate their sugar and tobacco plantations in Brazil. They have still several settlements in the East Indies, but far less considerable than formerly. the Azores or Western Isles, Madeira and the Cape de Verde islands also belong to them; but a great part of the riches and merchandize brought from these distant countries becomes the property of foreigners, for the goods they furnish the Portuguese with to carry thither. The king's fifth of the gold brought from Brazil amounts commonly to about 300,000l. Sterling; so that the whole annual produce of gold in Brazil may be estimated at near 2,000,000 Sterling. Lisbon is the greatest port in Europe next to London and Amsterdam.

41 Constitution and government. As to the constitution of Portugal, it is an absolute hereditary monarchy. Both here and in Spain, there were anciently cortes, states, or parliaments; but they have long since entirely lost their share in the legislature. For the administration of the civil government, there is a council of state, and several secretaries; for military affairs, a council of war; for the finances, a treasury-court; and, for the distribution of justice, several high tribunals, with others subordinate to them, in the several districts into which the kingdom is divided. The cities have their particular magistracy. The proceedings of the courts are regulated by the Roman law, the royal edicts, the canon law, and the pope's mandates. Like the Spaniards, they transact most of their business in the mornings and evenings, and sleep at noon. The nobility are very numerous, and many of them are descended from natural sons of the royal family. They are divided into high and low. The high consists of the dukes, marquisses, counts, viscounts, and barons, who are also grandees, but of different classes, being suffered to be covered in the king's presence, and having the title of *dons*, with a pension from the royal treasury, to enable them the better to support their dignity: the king styles them *illustrious* in his letters, and treats them as princes. A duke's sons are also grandees and his daughters rank as marchionesses. The inferior nobility or gentry are termed *Hidalgos*, i. e. gentlemen: they cannot assume the title of *don*, without the king's licence.

42 Revenues of the king. The revenues of the crown, since the discovery of the Brazil mines are very considerable; but the real amount can only be guessed at. Some have said that it amounts, clear of all salaries and pensions, to upwards of 3,000,000 Sterling: others make it a great deal less. Thus much is certain, that the customs and other taxes run excessively high. Besides the royal demesnes, the hereditary estates of the house of Braganza, the monopoly of Brazil snuff, the coinage, the money arising from the sale of indulgences granted by the pope, the fifth of the gold brought from Brazil, the farm of the Brazil diamonds, the masterships of the orders of knighthood, and other sources, yield very large sums. The forces, notwithstanding, of this nation, both by sea and land, are very inconsiderable; their land-forces being the worst militia in Europe, and their navy of little importance. They would be an easy conquest to the Spaniards if they were not under the protection of Britain.

43 Orders of knighthood. There are several orders of knighthood here, viz. the order of Christ, the badge of which is a red cross within a white one, and the number of the commanderies 454. 2. The order of St James, the badge of which is a red sword in the shape of a cross. A great number of towns and commanderies belong to this order. 3. The order of Aviz, whose badge is a green cross in form of a lily, and the number of its commanderies 49. Though these three orders are religious, yet the knights are at liberty to marry. 4. The order of St John, which has also several commanderies.

44 King's titles. The king's titles are, *King of Portugal and the Algarves, on this side and the other side the sea of Africa; Lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conquests, and commerce, in Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, India, &c.* The king's eldest son is styled *Prince of Brazil*. In the year 1749, pope Benedict XIV. dignified the king with the title of *His most faithful majesty*.

45 Character of the people. The Portuguese are represented as inferior to the Spaniards both in person and genius; as extremely haughty, treacherous, and crafty in their dealings; much given to avarice and usury; and vindictive, malicious, and cruel. The meaner sort are said to be extremely addicted to thieving: notwithstanding, it must be owned, that they have shown themselves on many occasions a brave and warlike people. They are justly famed for their skill in navigation; and for the many discoveries they have made, both in the East and West Indies. The women here, and in other countries of the same degree of heat, are not so prolific as in the colder climates; but they are said to be very beautiful whilst young, though their complexion is

is somewhat upon the olive. Their eyes are very black and sparkling, and retain their brilliancy after all their other charms are gone. It is the fashion here, at present, as in most other countries, for the ladies to spoil and disfigure their skins and complexions with paints and washes: but, though lively and witty, they are said to have a nice sense of female honour. Both men and women make great use of spectacles; often not so much to aid their sight, as to denote their wisdom and gravity. Their dress, like that of the Spaniards, never used to vary till of late, especially among the men; but of late years, both men and women have given much into the French modes. The women, when they go abroad on foot, are wont to use long veils, which cover their heads, but leave their faces bare.

PORTUGALLICA TERRA, earth of Portugal; the name of a fine astringent bole, dug in great plenty in the northern part of Portugal.

PORTULACA, PURSLANE; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the dodecandria class of plants. There are several species, but the two following are the most remarkable. 1. The oleracea, annual or common culinary purslane, rises with herbaceous, low, succulent, branchy stalks, six or eight inches high, garnished with wedge-shaped, thick, succulent leaves, and small close-setting flowers. There are two varieties; one with deep green leaves, the other with yellow leaves; both of which rise from the same seed. 2. The anacampseros, perennial or shrubby cape purslane, rises with a shrubby branchy stalk, about six inches high, with oval, gibbous, succulent leaves, and the stalks terminated by small clusters of red flowers. Both these plants are of a succulent nature: the first is an herbaceous annual, for culinary uses; and the second a shrubby perennial, raised by the curious for variety. They are both exotics of a tender quality, of the temperature of green-house or stove-plants. The common culinary purslane is raised annually from seed for summer use, and is an excellent ingredient in summer salads, but improper for winter on account of its cold moist nature. The plant being tender, must be raised either on a hot-bed, or in a warm border; in which last it will not succeed before April or May. The shrubby sort must be kept in the hot-house, in pots of a dry soil.

POSE, in heraldry, denotes a lion, horse, or other beast, standing still, with all his four feet on the ground.

POSITIVE, a term of relation, opposed to negative. It is also used in opposition to relative or arbitrary: thus we say, Beauty is no positive thing, but depends on the different tastes of people.

POSITIVE *Degree*, in grammar, is the adjective in its simple signification, without any comparison.

POSITIVE *Electricity*. In the Franklinian system all bodies supposed to contain more than their natural quantity of electric matter, are said to be *positively* electrified; and those from whom some part of their electricity is supposed to be taken away, are said to be electrified *negatively*. These two electricities being first produced, one from glass, the other from amber or rosin, the former was called *vitreous*, the latter *resinous* electricity.

POSSE COMITATUS, in law, signifies the power of the county, or the aid and assistance of all the knights, gentlemen, yeomen, labourers, servants, apprentices, &c. and all others within the county that are above the age of 15, except women, ecclesiastical persons, and such as are decrepit and infirm.

This posse comitatus is to be raised where a riot is committed, a possession kept upon a forcible entry, or any force of rescue used contrary to the king's writ, or in opposition to the execution of justice; and it is the duty of all sheriffs to assist justices of the peace in the suppression of riots, &c. and to raise the posse comitatus, or to charge any number of men for that purpose.

POSSESSION, in law, is either actual, where a person actually enters into lands or tenements descended or conveyed to him; or where lands are descended to a person, and he has not yet entered into them. A long possession is much favoured by the law, as an argument of right, even tho' no deed can be shown, and it is more regarded than an ancient deed without possession.

If he that is out of possession of land brings an action, he must prove an undeniable title to it; and when a person would recover any thing of another, it is not sufficient to destroy the title of the person in possession, without he can prove that his own right is better than his.

In order to make possession lawful upon an entry, the former possessor and his servants are to be removed from off the premises entered on: but a person by lease and release, is in possession without making any entry upon the lands.

POSSESSION, in Scots law. See LAW, Part III. N° clxii. 11, &c.

Dæmonaical POSSESSION. See DÆMON, DÆMONIACS, and DÆMONIACAL, in the APPENDIX.

POSSESSIVE, in grammar, a term applied to pronouns, which denote the enjoyment or possession of any thing either in particular, or in common: as *meus*, "mine;" and *tuus*, "thine."

POSSESSORY ACTION, in Scots law. See LAW, N° clxxxiii. 18.

POSSIBILITY, in law, is defined to be any thing that is altogether uncertain, or what may or may not be.

POSSIBILITY, also denotes a non-repugnance to existing, in any thing that does not any way exist.

POSSIBLE, is sometimes opposed to real existence, and is understood of a thing, which, though it actually does not exist, yet may exist; as a new star.

POSSIDONIA, (anc. geog.) See POESTUM.

POST, a courier or letter-carrier; or one who frequently changes horses, posted or placed on the road, for quicker dispatch.

We find mention made of post-horses in the Theodosian Code, *De cursu publico*; but these were very different from the present establishment, and were only public horses first appointed by Trajan, till whose time the messengers seized any horses that came in their way.

Lewis Hornigk has an express treatise on posts, whereof he makes four kinds: viz. on horseback, in chariots, in boats, and on foot; which last kind is in use in Italy, Turky, and Peru.

Herodotus ascribes the origin of posts to Cyrus, or Xerxes;

Post. Xerxes; but the posts instituted by those princes were no more than couriers.

In effect, posts on the present footing are but a modern invention; though some go back as high as Charlemagne.—It is certain it was the policy, or rather the diffidence, of Louis XI. of France that they owed their rise to; that uneasy prince first settling them by an ordonnance of the 19th of June 1464, to be the sooner, and the more surely, advertised of what passed in his own kingdom, and in the neighbouring states. From France, the institution propagated itself, by degrees, through the several other parts of Europe. In Germany, Hornigk observes, posts were first settled by the count de Taxis at his own expence; in acknowledgment whereof, the emperor Matthias, in 1716, gave him, in fief, the charge of post-master under him and his successors.

The duty for the carriage of letters by post in Britain, forms a branch of the Revenue.

This useful invention owes its first legislative establishment in England to the parliament 1643. It is true, there existed post-masters in much earlier times: but their business was confined to the furnishing of post-horses to persons who were desirous to travel expeditiously, and to the dispatching of extraordinary pacquets upon special occasions. King James I. originally erected a post-office under the controul of one Matthew de Quester or de l'Equester for the conveyance of letters to and from foreign parts; which office was afterwards claimed by lord Stanhope, but was confirmed and continued to William Frizell and Thomas Witherings by king Charles I. A. D. 1632, for the better accommodation of the English merchants. In 1635, the same prince erected a letter-office for England and Scotland, under the direction of the same Thomas Witherings, and settled certain rates of postage. But this extended only to a few of the principal roads, the times of carriage were uncertain, and the post-masters on each road were required to furnish him with horses at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. a mile. Witherings was superseded, for abuses in the execution of both his offices, in 1640; and they were sequestrated into the hands of Philip Burlamachy, to be exercised under the care and oversight of the king's principal secretary of state. On the breaking out of the civil war, great confusions and interruptions were necessarily occasioned in the conduct of the letter-office. And, about that time, the outline of the present more extended and regular plan seems to have been conceived by Mr Edmond Prideaux, who was appointed attorney-general to the commonwealth after the murder of king Charles. He was chairman of a committee in 1642, for considering what should be set upon inland letters; and afterwards appointed post-master by an ordonnance of both the houses, in the execution of which office he first established a *weekly* conveyance of letters into *all* parts of the nation; thereby saving to the public the charge of maintaining postmasters, to the amount of 7000 l. *per annum*. And, his own emoluments being probably very considerable, the common council of London endeavoured to erect another post-office in opposition to his; till checked by a resolution of the commons, declaring, that the office of post-master is, and ought to be, in the sole power and disposal of the parliament. This office was afterwards farmed by one Manley in 1654. But, in 1657, a regular post-office was erected by the authority of the protector and his parliament, upon nearly the same model as has been ever since adopted, with the same rates of postage as were continued till the reign of queen Anne. After the restoration, a similar office, with some improvements, was established by statute 12 Car. II. c. 35. but the rates of letters were altered, and some farther regulations added, by the statutes 9 Ann. c. 10. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. 26 Geo. II. c. 12. 5 Geo. III. c. 25. & 7 Geo. III. c. 50. and penalties were enacted, in order to confine the carriage of letters to the public office only, except in some few cases: a provision, which is absolutely necessary; for nothing but an exclusive right can support an office of this sort: many rival independent offices would only serve to ruin one another. Post

Post, in war, any sort of ground, fortified or not, where a body of men can be in a condition of resisting the enemy.

Advanced Post, a spot of ground, seized by a party to secure their front and the posts behind them.

Post *of Honour*. The advanced guard is a post of honour: the right of the two lines is the post of honour, and is always given to the eldest regiment: the left is the next post, and is given to the next eldest, and so on. The centre of the lines is the post the least honourable, and is given to the youngest regiments. A centinel placed before the colours, and at the door of the commanding officer, is a post of honour.

Penny-Post, a post established for the benefit of London and the adjacent parts; by which any letter or parcel not exceeding 16 ounces weight, is speedily conveyed to and from all parts within ten miles of London.

POSTDAM. See Potsdam.

POSTERIOR, a term of relation, implying something behind, or that comes after another. In which sense it is used in opposition to *prior* and *anterior*.

The back and hips are the posterior parts of man. Aristotle has given prior and posterior analytics. A date is posterior to another, when it is later or fresher.

POSTERN, in fortification, a small gate, usually made in the angle of the flank of a bastion, or in that of the curtain, or near the orillon, descending into the ditch; whereby the garrison can march in and out, unperceived by the enemy, either to relieve the works, or to make private sallies, &c.

The word is also used in the general for any private or back-door.

POSTHUMOUS, a child born after the death of his father, or taken out of the body of a dead mother: from whence it is frequently applied to the works of an author not published till after his decease.

POSTIL, a name anciently given to a note in the margin of the bible, and afterwards to one in any other book posterior to the text.

POSTING, among merchants, the putting an account forward from one book to another, particularly from the journal or waste-book to the ledger. See Book-Keeping.

POSTLIMINIUM, among the Romans, the return

Post Postliminium.

turn of one who had gone to sojourn elsewhere, or had been banished, or taken by an enemy to his own country or state.

POSTPONING, putting any thing after or behind another with regard to time.

POSTSCRIPT, an article added to a letter or memoir, containing something learnt or recollected after the piece was written.

POSTULATE, in mathematics, &c. is described to be such an easy and self-evident supposition, as needs no explication or illustration to render it intelligible; as that a right line may be drawn from one point to another.

POSTURE, in painting and sculpture, the situation of a figure with regard to the eye, and of the several principal members thereof with regard to one another, whereby its action is expressed. A considerable part of the art of a painter, consists in adjusting the postures; in giving the most agreeable ones to his figures, in accommodating them to the characters of the respective figures and the part each has in the action, and in conducting and in pursuing them throughout.

Postures are either natural or artificial.

Natural postures are such as nature seems to have had a view to in the mechanism of the body, or rather such as the ordinary actions and occasions of life lead us to exhibit while young, and while the joints, muscles, ligaments, &c. are flexible.

Artificial postures, are those which some extraordinary views, or studies, occasion us to learn; as those of dancing, fencing, &c. Such also are those of our balance and posture-masters.

A painter would be strangely puzzled with the figure of Clark (a late famous posture-master in London) in a history-piece. This man, we are told in the Phil. Trans. had such an absolute command of his muscles, &c. that he could disjoint almost his whole body; so that he imposed on the great surgeon Mullens, who looked upon him as in such a miserable condition, he would not undertake his care. Though a well-made man, he would appear with all the deformities imaginable; hunch-backed, pot-bellied, sharp-breasted, &c. He disjointed his arms, shoulders, legs, and thighs; and rendered himself such an object of pity, that he has frequently extorted money, in quality of a cripple, from the same company in which he had the minute before been in quality of a comrade. He would make his hips stand a considerable way out from his loins, and so high as to invade the place of his back. Yet his face was the most changeable part about him, and showed more postures than all the rest. Of himself he could exhibit all the uncouth odd faces of a Quaker's meeting.

POT-ASH, the lixivious ashes of certain vegetables, used in making of glass, soap, &c. See GLASS, SOAP, &c.

The method of making pot-ash is directed by Dr Shaw, as follows. Burn a quantity of billet-wood to grey ashes; and taking several pounds of these ashes, boil them in water, so as to make a very strong lixivium, or ley. Let this ley be strained through a coarse linen cloth, to keep out any black parts of the half-burnt wood that might happen to remain in the ashes; then evaporate this strained ley in an iron-pan over a quick fire almost to dryness: then taking out the matter remaining at the bottom, and putting it into an iron-crucible, set it in a strong fire till the matter is melted, and then immediately pour it out upon an iron-plate, where it soon cools, and appears in the form of a solid lump of pot-ash. Much after this manner is pot-ash made in the large way of business, for the service of the soap-boiler, glass-maker, fuller, &c. but according to the difference of the wood, or combustible matter employed, with the manner of turning it, and conducting the process, different kinds of pot-ash are prepared. There are certain saline-plants that yield this pot-ash to great advantage, as particularly the plant kali; there are others that afford it in less plenty, and of an inferior quality, as bean-stalks, &c. but in general, all vegetable subjects afford it of one kind or other, and may most of them be made to yield it tolerably perfect after the manner of the process already laid down, even the loppings, roots, and refuse parts of ordinary trees, vine clippings, &c. The fixed salts of all vegetables excepting the kali, and marine plants, when reduced to absolute purity, or entirely separated from the other principles, appear to be one and the same thing: when it should seem, says Dr Shaw, that by a suitable management, good saleable pot-ash might be made in all places where vegetable matters abound. For if by examining Russia pot-ash, for example, we find that its superior excellence depends upon its being clear of earth, or upon its containing a large proportion of oil, or fined salt, these advantages may, by properly regulating the operation, be given to English pot-ashes, so as perhaps to render the latter as good as the former: but where the pot-ash of any remarkable saline vegetable is to be imitated, that of the kali, for example, the doctor recommends a prudent sprinkling of the subject with salt, or sea-water, in the burning; and by these ways, properly diversified, any principle that is naturally wanting, might be artificially introduced so as to perfect the art of pot-ash.

In the 70th volume of the Philosophical Transactions we have an account of a method of procuring this salt from the putrid water which runs from dung-hills. The process is very simple, consisting only in simple evaporation of the fluid, and calcining the impure salt till most of the foulness is burnt out. From 24 wine pipes full of this muck-water were obtained 9 Cwt. 1 q. 12 lb. of saleable pot-ash, valued at 42 s. per Cwt; the expence of manufacturing them being only valued at 4l. 9 s.

The pot-ash thus made is of a greyish white appearance; deliquesces a little in moist air; but if kept in a dry room, near the fire, acquires a powdery surface. It is hard and of a spongy texture when broken, with many small crystals in its substance. The colour of its internal parts is dusky and variegated. To the taste it is acrid, saline, and sulphureous. It emits no smell of volatile alkali, either in a solid form, dissolved, or when added to lime-water; neither does it communicate the sapphire colour to a solution of blue vitriol. Silver is quickly tinged black by it; a proof that it contains much phlogiston. Ten grains of this pot-ash required 11 drops of the weak spirit of vitriol to separate it. The like quantity of salt of tartar required 24 drops: a strong effervescence occurred in both mix-

Pot-ash. mixtures; and a sulphureous vapour exhaled from the former. A tea spoonful of the syrup of violets diluted with an ounce of water, was changed into a bright green colour by five grains of the salt of tartar; but ten grains of this pot-ash were necessary to produce the same hue in a similar mixture. Half an ounce of the salt dissolved entirely in half a pint of hot-water; but when the liquor was cold, a large purple sediment subsided to the bottom; and it was found that this sediment amounted to about two-thirds of the whole quantity of ashes used.

These are the two processes most essentially different from one another which have appeared concerning the manufacture of this useful salt. Some indeed have attempted to compose it on the supposition that alkali consisted of an earth combined in a peculiar manner with a certain acid. But the little success of all these attempts show that they have been built on a false principle. The only method of producing alkaline salts originally is from the ashes of vegetables; and the vegetable substances which yield the largest quantity of them are tartar, and marine plants. From the former the purest and strongest vegetable alkali is obtained, and from the latter the mineral alcali. From other vegetables, as fern, broom, bean-stalks, &c. an alkaline salt is produced, but so impure, and in such small quantity, that no manufacture of it can be established in this country with any reasonable expectations of profit. The pot-ashes of different countries also vary much in quality; and the experiments of Dr Home, in his treatise on Bleaching, seem to set forth their different properties in the clearest point of view. The different kinds tried by him were,

1. *Blue pearl-ashes.* These appear to be a pure alkaline salt, mixed with a small quantity of vitriolated tartar, and earth. Half a pound of this, filtered and evaporated, yielded $5\frac{1}{2}$ ounces of pure salt.—Here, however, we must observe, that though the quantity was so far diminished by this operation, yet we are not to imagine that the whole of this diminution was owing to impurities; for all salts are destroyed in some measure by solution in water and exsiccation. See Chemistry, n° 21.

2. *White pearl-ashes* are nearly of the same quality with the former; half a pound of them giving five ounces and seven drams of pure salt, with some vitriolated Tartar and earth.

3. *Russia* or *Muscovy ashes* have very much the appearance of slaked lime, and are, like it, friable betwixt the fingers. They adhere to the tongue, and their alkaline taste soon goes away, leaving in the mouth a strong taste of lime. Some small bits of charcoal are observable in their composition, and they never turn moist in the air. Half a pound of the salt lixiviated with water and evaporated, gave only 10 drams 15 grains of very caustic salt. These consist therefore of a small quantity of alkaline salt united with a large quantity of lime.

4. *Cashub ashes* are of the colour of iron stone, and extremely hard, with many shining particles of charcoal in them. They have a saline taste with a considerable degree of pungency; feel gritty in the mouth, when broke in pieces by the teeth; and will dissolve in water. To extract the pure salt, half a pound of the ashes were boiled in a pint of water; then that water poured off, and half a pint put on the ashes again; and so on, till the ashes taste no more salt. This boiling took 24 hours, and the last water that came off had a strong taste of sulphur and was blackish. A piece of silver put in the decoction was in a few minutes turned almost black; but though the decoction was evaporated considerably, it did not turn silver black more speedily than before. The whole, when totally evaporated, yielded only 10 drams of a brown salt having a strong caustic alkaline taste. Some Cashub ashes powdered, and often washed in water so that the salts were all carried off, were infused in water. After standing some time, there was a weak lime-water, with something of a saline taste, but no pellicle. Some of this residuum was put into a reverberatory furnace for two hours; after which it afforded good lime-water. Cashub ashes then appear to contain an earth half vitrified, some lime, alkaline salts, and a quantity of sulphur.

5. *Marcoff ashes* are of a paler colour than the former, with some small pieces of charcoal in their composition. They have a strong saline taste; and so great pungency, that they cannot be held long in the mouth. Half a pound dissolved in water, filtered and evaporated, yielded 11 drams one scruple and two grains of alkaline residuum. The decoction blackened silver, but not so strongly as the former, and by evaporation it quickly lost that quality.

Our author next proceeds to consider the probability of manufacturing these ashes in this country; on which subject he has the following observations.——

"The blue and white pearl-ashes we have discovered to be pure alkaline salts, without any considerable mixture of heterogeneous bodies. Their purity shows the lixive to have been strained through some close substance, such as linen or flannel. The blue ashes show, by their colour, that they have sustained the most fire. But both of them are so much alike, that the one may be substituted for the other; and therefore we shall consider them in one view.

"Every one knows, that alkaline salts, such as these, are got from all plants except the alkalescent, and from all trees except the most resinous, which afford them in very small quantity. These plants, or trees, when found, are pulled or felled in the spring, dried, and burnt to ashes. By the affusion of warm water the salts are dissolved, and, by straining, separated from the earth along with the water. This saline liquor, which is called a *lixive*, is evaporated over a fire; and what remains, is an alkaline salt of the same kind with the pearl ashes.

"I was informed by a skilful bleacher in Ireland, that he practised a more expeditious way of extracting the salts. He bought the ashes of different vegetables from the commonalty for 9s. a-bushel. From these a very strong ley was made, into which dry straw was dipped, until it sucked up all the ley. This straw was afterwards dried and burnt, and gave him salts which he showed me, almost as good and pure as the pearl-ashes. This method I have several times tried; but could never burn the straw to white ashes, the salts diminishing the inflammability of the straw. It is a very expeditious method, if it can be practised. But I can see no occasion for bringing the ley into a solid form, as the salts must again be dissolved in water before they can be used. The strength of the ley can easily be determined by the hydrostatical balance.

"Though

Pot-ash.

"Though I make no question, that the quantity of salt, in plants of the same species, will vary in different soils and climates; yet it would be of advantage to have the proportion ascertained in general. Some trials of this kind I have made.

"Two pounds of fern which had been pulled August 16. were dried, and burnt to white ashes. These weighed 7 dr. and tasted very salt. When lixiviated, strained, and evaporated, they gave me 49 gr. of salt, about the eighth part of the ashes. If the fern had been pulled in April, it would have afforded more salt. Why then should we not prepare salts from this vegetable? There is more of it growing on our hills than would serve all our bleachfields. The Irish make great use of it.

"From 11 oz. of tobacco-ashes I had 1 oz. of salt. Two oz. of peat-ashes afforded half a drachm of salt. Nettles, I am informed, afford much salt. Furz and broom, natives of this country, are very fit for this purpose.

"But the kelp, as it grows in such plenty along our shore, and contains more salt than any other vegetable I know, would be the most proper, were it not for a mixture of some substance that renders it unfit for bleaching, at least of fine cloths, after they have obtained a tolerable degree of whiteness. It is observed by bleachers, that, in these circumstances, it leaves a great yellowness in the linen. As these ashes are much used in Ireland, and as it is not uncommon to bleach coarse cloths with them in Scotland, a disquisition into their nature, and some attempts to purify them, may not be improper. There are no ashes sold so cheap as these; for the best gives but 2l. the 2000 weight (A). They may, therefore, allow of more labour to be expended on them, and come cheaper at long-run than the foreign salts.

"I dried some sea-ware, and burnt it, though I found that last operation very difficult. When I had kept them fused in the fire for two hours, they weighed $3\frac{1}{2}$ oz. I poured on the ashes an English pint and a half of cold water, that I might have as little of the sulphur as possible. This ley, after it had stood for some hours, was poured off clear, and had but a slight tendency to a green colour. I made a second infusion with milk-warm water, and poured it off from the sediment. This had a darker colour than the former; was kept separated from it, and evaporated by itself. There was a third infusion made; but having no salt taste, it was thrown away. The second infusion seemed to contain more sulphur than the first; and a piece of white linen kept in it half an hour, while it was boiling, was tinged yellow, and could not be washed white again. The earthy part remaining, weighed, when well dried, 1 oz. 2 dr. The saline decoction, evaporated by degrees, and set at different times in a cellar to crystallize, afforded me 5 dr. 46 gr. The liquor, when entirely evaporated, left $4\frac{1}{2}$ dr. of a yellow salt, which appeared to be a strong alkaline. The salts which crystallised seemed to be mostly sea-salt, with a considerable quantity of sulphur, and some alkaline salt. There appeared no signs of the bittern in these salts, as their solution did not turn turbid with the oil of tartar. Nor was any of the bittern to be expected in kelp ashes, although it probably is to be found in the recent vegetable; because the alkaline salts formed by the fire must have changed it into a neutral. The ley made warm with water, being evaporated, left 4 dr. of a black bitter salt, which, from its quantity of sulphur, appeared unfit for bleaching. These ashes, then, seem to be a composition of somewhat less than the fourth of sulphur, the same quantity of sea-salt, about a fourth of alkaline salt, and somewhat more than a fourth of earth. The alkaline salt contained in kelp ashes, amounts to one penny a pound. This cheapness makes it worth our pains to bestow some labour on them.

"If the bad effects in bleaching with kelp ashes arise from the sea-salt, as some of the most knowing bleachers think, they can be freed from it in an easy manner. Let a lixive of kelp-ashes be made with cold water, for that does not extract so much of the sulphur; it must stand but for a short time, for these salts dissolve easily; decant it, and evaporate the ley. As the boiling continues, the sea-salt will crystallize. When that is all separated, the remaining ley will contain alkaline salt with some sulphur. This operation every master of a bleachfield may learn and oversee, without taking up much of his time. A similar process is carried on by common servants in the alum-works, who have by practice learned it from others.

"I had some hopes that the sulphur might be carried off by long roasting, such as these salts undergo before they are fused in order to be turned into glass; because I had observed, that the longer time they were kept in the fire, the freer were they from this sulphureous part.

"I ordered a quantity of kelp ashes to be kept in the furnace of a glass-house, where the heat was just below the vitrifying point, for 24 hours. During this time they had lost almost four-fifths of their weight. They were now much freer from their sulphur, and were of a light colour; but much of the alkaline salt had been driven off with the oils. If a ley is much impregnated with this sulphureous matter, it appears to be carried off, in a great measure, by long boiling.

"We come now to explain the method of manufacturing the white Muscovy ashes. We have shown, by undoubted experiments, that the greatest part of these ashes consists of lime; and yet we have several acts of parliament which forbid the use of that material under severe penalties. The parliament were in the right to discharge its use, upon the disadvantageous reports which were made to them. We shall immediately see how dangerous a material it is when used improperly, or without the mixture of alkaline salts, which render it safe, and more soluble in water. But I will venture to say, that experiment will not support the prejudice entertained with regard to it, if carried any further.

"Since bleaching, then, cannot be carried on without it; for those ashes which contain it, are quite necessary in that operation; and since we import them from foreign countries; let these prejudices against it cease, and let us only consider how we may render our own lime as safe as the foreign. If we can do that, the wisdom of the legislature will be as ready to abrogate

(A) Since this treatise was written, however, the price of kelp has been advanced to 7l. or upwards the 2000 weight; so that those who would now attempt any thing of this kind, must also manufacture the kelp themselves.

Pot-ash. gate these acts, as they were to make them.

"By my experiments on the white Muscovy ashes, I got about the eighth part of alkaline salts from them. This made me expect, that, by mixing in the same proportion quick-lime and alkaline salts, I should be able to produce Muscovy ashes.

"To an ounce of quick-lime and a drachm of white pearl ashes, I added about a gill of water, and boiled them together till the water was all evaporated. The taste of this substance was little different from lime. To recover the salts again from the lime, I dissolved it in water, strained off the liquor, and evaporated it. Instead of the drachm of salts, I had but 2 gr. of a substance which was more earthy than saline.

"To 3 dr. of quicklime, and as much potashes, I added a mutchkin of water, and kept it boiling for two hours till it was evaporated. I dissolved it again in water, which being filtered and evaporated, gave me $1\frac{1}{2}$ dr. of a caustic salt, that liquefied in the air when it had been but four minutes from the fire. It appears, then, that the alkaline salts are destroyed by lime, and that a great part of them can never be again recovered. From the remaining lime, after the salts were extracted, I got strong lime-water, but without a pellicle. This shows, that a quantity of alkaline salts, equal to the lime, boiled with it for two hours, are not able to fix all the soluble part of the lime.

"From these experiments we may draw some corollaries with regard to the present subject. *1st*, That evaporating the water from the lime and salts by boiling, is a most unfrugal way of preparing these white ashes. *2dly*, That these ashes ought to be kept close shut up in casks; for if exposed to the open air, though in a room, the alternate moisture and drought must fix their most useful parts. This I have found to be fact: for the salts that I made became less pungent by keeping; and I have observed, that the surface of the Muscovy ashes lost all pungency by being exposed to the air, while their internal parts still retained it. *3dly*, That all boiling is prejudicial to these Muscovy ashes, as it fixes, and that quickly, their most subtile, and probably their most serviceable parts.

"Let us now proceed to another method of making these white ashes. I imagined, that if the salts were dissolved in water, and the quick-lime slaked with that, the mass would soon dry without the assistance of fire. In this way I added equal parts of both; but the composition was so strong, that it blistered my tongue if it but touched it. When the fourth part was alkaline salt, it blistered my tongue when kept to it a few seconds. I could taste the salts plainly in the composition, when they made but the thirty-second part of the whole.

"I thought, when composed with the eighteenth part of salt, it had, when fresh made, just the taste and look of the Muscovy ashes; nor could any person have distinguished them. This I once imagined was the proportion; but when I found that the saline pungency soon turned weaker by keeping, and that this composition would not afford the same quantity of salts that the Muscovy ashes did, I saw that a much greater quantity of salts was necessary. The proportion appears to be one of salt to four of lime, prepared in this last way. Three drachms of ashes prepared in this way, and kept for a fortnight, gave me but 15 grains of salt; which is but the half of what the Muscovy would have afforded. I find, if the quick-lime is first quenched, it does not fix the salts so much; and therefore is better and cheaper. One drachm of potashes dissolved in a little water, and added to 3 drachms of quenched lime, gave me 44 grains of a very caustic salt. I prefer this method as the best.

"The manufacturers of this salt probably pour the lixive upon the lime, as they can know by its specific gravity what quantity of salts is in the water, and so save themselves the expence of procuring the salts in a dry form.

"The manufacture of the Marcoft and Cashub ashes remains yet to be explained. We have discovered that both of them contain sulphur, earth, alkaline salts, and lime; and differ in nothing, but in the Cashub's having more sulphur than the Marcoft ashes. We shall therefore consider them together.

"Whether these two species of ashes are of any use in bleaching, may be, and has already been, disputed. I find they contain no other principles, the sulphureous part excepted, than the former ashes combined together. Why then should we expect any other effects from the same ingredients in the Marcoft and Cashub ashes, than what we have from either of the pearl and Muscovy ashes mixed together? The sulphureous principle in the former must have very bad effects; as I find by experiment, that it leaves a yellowness on cloth that is very hard to be washed out. It is owing to this sulphureous principle, that linen, after it has been washed with soap, and is pretty well advanced in whiteness, is apt to be discoloured by ley which is brought to boil: for, by boiling, the sulphureous part is extracted from these ashes, and the ley becomes of a deep brown colour. Daily practice, then, shows the disadvantage of this sulphureous principle. Besides, as sulphur unites itself, quickly and firmly, with alkaline salts, it must weaken, or altogether destroy a great quantity of these in the Marcoft and Cashub ashes, and so render them of no effect in bleaching. These two reasons seem to me sufficient to exclude them from the bleachfield; especially as, by increasing the other materials, we can attain, perhaps more speedily, the same end.

"However, as custom has introduced them into general practice, we shall consider how they are to be manufactured. Dr Mitchell has, in a very ingenious and useful paper, contained in the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1748, delivered an account transmitted to him by Dr Linnæus, of the method of making potashes in Sweden. This account was contained in an academical dissertation of one Lundmark upon this subject at Aboe in Sweden. The substance of this account is, "That birch or alder is burnt by a "slow fire to ashes, and made into a paste with water. "This paste is plastered over a row of green pine or "fir logs. Above that is laid, transversely, another "row of the same; and that likewise is plastered over. "In this way they continue building and plastering, "till the pile be of a considerable height. This pile "is set on fire; and whenever the ashes begin to run, "it is overturned, and the melted ashes are beat with "flexible sticks, so that the ashes incrust the logs of "wood, and become as hard as stone." This, in the Doctor's opinion, is the method of making the potashes that come from Sweden, Russia, and Dantzic: and

and that there is no other difference betwixt the ashes made in those different countries, but that the Russian, containing more salt, must be made into a paste with a strong ley.

"There would appear, by my experiments, a greater difference than this, betwixt the Swedish ashes, if that is the true process, and those I have examined. I had discovered the greatest part of the Muscovy ashes to be lime. I suspected it might enter into the composition of the Marcoft and Cashub; and have accordingly discovered it there. Without the same grounds, none would ever have searched for it. Whence then comes this lime? It must either enter into its composition, or arise from the materials managed according as the process directs.

"I have tried the birch ashes made into a paste with water. I have tried common charcoal, made into a paste with a third part of potashes, and kept them in a strong reverberatory heat for some hours, and yet no such caustic substance appeared. I have kept earth and salts of kelp-ashes fused together for 24 hours in the furnace of a glass-house, where the heat was just below the degree of vitrification; and yet no remarkable causticity appeared, afterwards, in the concreted mass. But supposing that there did, will ever this account for the generation of lime? These chemists do not assert that it is a calcareous causticity. The earth of vegetables kept in fusion with their salts, is so far from turning into a quick-lime, that the mass takes the opposite course, and becomes glass. Bodies that, by the laws of nature, are vitrescible, can never, so far as we know, become calcareous. In one or other of these two substances all bodies terminate, that are changeable by fire; and vegetables are of the former kind. Here it may be asked, Why then, since they endure such a fire, are they not vitrified? The objection would be just, did they contain nothing else but what was found in vegetables. But if we once allow, that lime is one of the materials, the difficulty is easily solved: for lime, we know, in proportion as it is mixed, hinders the vitrification of all bodies. In effect, the earthy part in these ashes is almost vitrified; and I think that I have carried the vitrification yet farther in that part; but I never was able, with the utmost heat of a reverberatory furnace, continued for six hours, to produce any thing like a thorough vitrification in these ashes. The heat of the fire used in the process would seem to be very great; and must, if it were not very difficult, reduce them to glass. The invitrescible nature of these salts, so far from being an objection, becomes a strong proof of my opinion.

"These salts have a remarkable pungency. This we have already seen is the natural effect of quick-lime on salts.

"These salts are found to be the fittest for making soap, and to incorporate soonest and best with oils. Salts, we know, of themselves do not readily unite with oil; but when once mixed with quick-lime, they have a greater tendency to union.

"Again, I find that these ashes are more easily fluxed than charcoal made into a paste with the third part salt; which is much more than the ashes contain. Now, it is observed, that quicklime increases the fluxing power of alkaline salts; for the common caustic made of quicklime and alkaline salts, is sooner fused than the latter alone.

"From these reasons, and the experiments that discover lime in these ashes, I am led to think, that it is not generated by the process, but mixed with the ashes when they are made into a paste. The following experiment is a convincing proof of what I have been endeavouring to make out.

"I boiled some pease-straw in a strong ley of pearl ashes burnt into a black coal, and made it into a paste with water. Another quantity of straw was boiled in a ley made of one part of quick-lime and four parts pearl salts, the ley being poured off turbid from the lime. This straw was likewise burnt when dry, and made into a paste. These two substances were put into separate crucibles, and fluxed in a reverberatory furnace. The latter appeared to resemble the Marcoft and Cashub ashes more than the former, which seemed to want their pungency."

Though the only method of preparing the alkaline salt originally is by the combustion of vegetables, yet there are some neutral salts from which if it were possible to expel the acid, we should have it in our power to procure the finest pearl-ashes in vast quantity. These are vitriolated tartar, nitre, but especially sea-salt, on account of the inexhaustible quantities of it to be met with in the waters of the ocean. Unhappily, however, there are some objections to every one of those. The vitriolated tartar, or any other salt in which the vitriolic acid enters, cannot be decomposed without converting the acid into sulphur by charcoal dust; in which case it is as difficult to get free of the sulphur as of the acid; and if we attempt it by frequent solutions in water, we destroy the phlogiston of the sulphur, and have only vitriolated tartar again instead of alkali. See CHEMISTRY, n° 225, 324.

With respect to nitre, though its acid may be expelled by fire, yet it is too high-priced, and too much used in other manufactures, to be thought of for this purpose. A potash manufacture from sea-salt has indeed been lately erected in England. The principle on which this was established is, that the acid of sea-salt may be extracted by means of lime; and accordingly we find that the saline efflorescence, which frequently appears on walls, consists chiefly of the marine alkali deprived of its acid. But this, tho' delivered on the credit of a very eminent chemist, we can affirm from our own observation to be a mistake. Of the many cases in which we have examined this efflorescence, only one was found to be alkaline; the others uniformly appeared to be true Glauber's salt composed of the vitriolic acid and fossile alkali. Neither did this appear to be formed by any decomposition of salt originally in the plaster, but to be a real generation of both acid and alkali where none of them existed before. See EFFLORESCENCE, in the APPENDIX.

POTAMOGETON, POND-WEED; a genus of the tetragynia order, belonging to the tetrandria class of plants. There are 12 species, all of them floating vegetables on the surfaces of stagnant waters, affording an agreeable shade to fish, and food to cattle.

POTATOE, in botany. See SOLANUM.

These roots came first from Ireland into Lancashire where they are still very much cultivated. It was, however, 40 years after their introduction before they were much cultivated about London; and then they were con-

considered as rarities, without any conception of the utility that might arise from bringing them into common use. At this time they were distinguished from the Spanish by the name of *Virginia potatoes*, or *battatas*, which is the Indian name of the Spanish fort. At a meeting of the Royal Society, March 18th, 1662-3, a letter was read from Mr Buckland, a Somerset gentleman, recommending the planting of potatoes in all parts of the kingdom to prevent famine. This was referred to a committee; and, in consequence of their report, Mr Buckland had the thanks of the society, such members as had lands were intreated to plant them, and Mr Evelyn was desired to mention the proposals at the close of his Sylva. Since that time the plant has been so universally cultivated, that it has become a considerable part of our food; and attempts have even been made to substitute the potatoe instead of bread, or to make bread from it. See the article BREAD.

For the method of cultivating potatoes, see AGRICULTURE, nº 127—129. Besides what is there delivered, there are many curious experiments concerning the culture of potatoes related in the Georgical Essays.

" 1. *On the Howard or large Bedfordshire potatoe.* By all the experiments that have been made, the Howard potatoe is found to produce the largest crop. On that account they are chiefly used in feeding of cattle. In two beds, four feet wide and 200 feet long, I planted in a common field a sufficient number of sets of this kind of patotoe, and managed them by the horse-hoe. The produce was 64 bushels, each bushel up-heaped, weighing about 70 lb. My cattle eat them boiled with as much eagerness as the best sorts, and came on as well with them. I have built a boiling-house, &c. on Mr Young's plan, and during this whole winter have boiled potatoes for my cattle. For the fattening ones, I mix ground oats with them; and for the milk-cows, malt-dust; and dare venture to affirm, that they are much more profitable than either turnips or cabbages. Once, when my potatoes grew low, I desisted giving them to the milking-cows. Immediately, though fed with the best hay, they fell off amazingly in their milk. I therefore began again, and in a week's time they gave better than one-third more butter. I own this accidental discovery gave me much satisfaction, as it confirmed my opinion, that potatoes boiled are an excellent winter food for cattle. Their culture is not so difficult, at least not so precarious, as either turnips or cabbages. Their value is superior, and there is no risk of their giving a disagreeable taste either to butter or milk. Add to this the vast increase of the Howard potatoe, and its equality with the best sorts when used for cattle.

" 2. *On the increase of potatoes.* My gardener cut a large potatoe into nine pieces, which he planted with dibbs, in a drill, in the garden. By earthing up and laying the shoots, he produced 575 sizeable potatoes, which weighed eight stone eight pound. Another of my servants produced, in the field, seven stone of good potatoes from the same number of sets. Tho' this experiment cannot always be executed in its full force in an extensive scale, it ought, notwithstanding, to be imitated as nearly as circumstances will allow. It shows, in the most distinguishing manner, the use of clean and careful husbandry.

" 3. *On the increase of potatoes.* On the 14th of April, I cut a large white potatoe into 17 sets, which were planted in as many hillocks, at the distance of four feet. In the course of growing, the plants were earthed up, and on the 14th of October the crop was taken up: The produce, 10 pecks of sizeable potatoes. At the time that this experiment was made, I had several hillocks, in which I put three and four sets of the same kind of potatoe. But, upon the most careful examination, I could not observe that these hillocks produced a greater crop than the others planted with a single set. Hence it is obvious, that the potatoe spreads its roots most kindly when least crowded.

" 4. *On the method of raising seedling potatoes.* Take a bunch of the apples of any sort of potatoe. Hang it up in a warm room during the winter, and in February separate the seeds from the pulp, by washing the apples in water, and pressing them with the fingers. Then dry the seeds upon paper. In the month of April, sow these seeds, in drills, in a bed of earth well dug, and manured with rotten dung. When the plants are about an inch high, draw a little earth up to them with a hoe, in order to lengthen their main roots. When they are about three inches high, dig them up with a spade, and separate them carefully from each other, in order for planting out in the following manner.

" Prepare a piece of fresh ground by trenching it well. Dig up the seedling plants as before directed; and plant them out in the ground, thus prepared, in such a manner, that there shall be 16 inches between each plant. As they advance in growth, let them receive one or two earthings up, in order to lengthen the main root, and encourage the shoots under ground.

" By this management, the potatoes will, in the course of one season, arrive at the size of hen's eggs, and the haulm will be as vigorous as if sets had been planted. But what proves the luxuriancy, in the most convincing manner, is, that flowers and apples are produced.

" In Lancashire, where the gardeners raise potatoes from seed, they are always two, and sometimes three years in bringing them to full size. By the above method of transplanting, with wide distances, many of the potatoes nearly attain their full size in one season.

" It is observable, that these seedlings produce potatoes of all the different kinds; and sometimes new sorts are procured. We do not find any difference whether the apple comes from one kind or another. It is not so when we use the set, which invariably produces the same kind.

" Potatoes, when propagated from sets, after a number of years, are found to decrease in bearing; for which reason they should be brought back every 14 years to their original.

" From a want of attention to this circumstance, I have known potatoes so run out, that they hardly returned treble seed. The farmer complains that his land is tired of them, but the true cause is the age of the sets.

" The increase of potatoes raised from seed is asto-

Potatoes. aſtoniſhing. They continue in vigour for about 14 years; after which, the produce gradually declines.

" 5. *On the beſt method of raiſing early potatoes.* As the culture of potatoes, and particularly of the early ſorts for the table, has of late become an object of very general attention, I hope the following account of a new method of obtaining theſe (without the help of hot-beds) will be acceptable to the public.

" On the 2d of January 1772, I made a hot-bed for the forward ſort of potatoes, and on the 7th put in the ſets, placing a glaſs and frame over them, and taking every precaution to defend them from the froſt. Of theſe ſmall potatoes, or ſets, there remained about 40 in a baſket, which was accidentally hung up in a warm kitchen, and there remained unnoticed till about the 25th of April. I then accidentally obſerved the baſket, and perceiving ſomething green on the edge of it, took it down, and, to my great ſurpriſe, found that the potatoes had ſprouted half a yard in length, and that there were a great number of very ſmall potatoes formed on the fibrous roots which had grown out. I took them into my garden, and planted them in a rich ſandy ſoil, without any manure. The roots I put into the ground three inches deep, and laid down the ſtems that had ſprouted, horizontally, and covered them with two inches of ſoil, but left the tops uncovered. Without farther attention they grew ſurpriſingly.

" On the 26th of May, I took up the roots planted in the hot-bed on the 7th of January. They by no means anſwered my expectations, or paid for the trouble of their culture: but, at the ſame time, I was aſtoniſhed to find the others, which were put into the ground ſo late, to have produced larger potatoes than the roots in the hot-bed. I took up all the roots, and picked off the large potatoes from them, which amounted to from 4 to 12 on each root, and then ſet the roots again in the ſame ground. This, indeed, I have ſucceſsfully practiſed for many years, ſometimes even twice, and have had a third good crop at Michaelmas. When this method is tried, the roots muſt be watered on the evenings of hot days.

" In January 1773, in order to make a ſecond trial of this experiment with a large quantity, I placed a great many potatoes of the early ſorts on a thick layer of gravelly ſoil, cloſe to each other, over an oven, ſlated over, but open to the ſouth-weſt, and covered them two inches deep with the ſame earth.

" At the end of April I took them up, and found the ſtems about a foot long or more. For fear of injuring the fine and delicate fibres of the roots, I took great care in taking them up, and planting them in the ſoil. This I now manured, but in all other reſpects treated them in the manner above deſcribed, many of the fibrous roots having then potatoes formed upon them, nearly as large as walnuts. For a week, the plants came on ſurpriſingly, when, by one ſharp night's uncommon froſt, they were nearly deſtroyed. However, notwithſtanding this, freſh ſtems grew up in a few days, and I actually gathered from them, on the 3d of June following, finer potatoes than were ſold at that time, at Mancheſter, from 7s. to 1s. 6d. per pound, being the produce of hot-beds.

" After taking off the larger potatoes, I again planted the roots for a ſecond crop, and in September obtained a very large produce. I weighed the increaſe of many ſeparate roots, which amounted from four pound eight ounces to 14 pound 12 ounces, the potatoes being the largeſt of the forward kinds I ever ſaw.

" 6. *On a method of raiſing potatoes in winter.* Make a compoſt of earth, ſand, and coal-aſhes. With this mixture fill a tub about 16 inches deep. Plant this artificial ſoil with ſome ſets of the early round potatoe, and place the tub in a ſtable oppoſite to a window, taking care to water the earth now and then. In all ſeaſons the ſets will ſprout, and give a tolerable increaſe of potatoes. Laſt November I planted ſome ſets in the above manner; and, in February following, I took up a conſiderable number of young potatoes, clean ſkinned and well flavoured.

" 7. *On tranſplanting potatoe tops.* On the 18th of May 1772, finding ſome beds I had ſown very early with onions, to be a miſſing crop, I was induced to make the following experiment. The year before, I had ſet ſome potatoes in another part of my garden, in the common way; and as it is impoſſible but ſome will remain in the ground all winter, ſo I found a number of ſprouts about three inches high, which I nipped off cloſe to the ground, and tranſplanted them into the onion-beds, without any further preparation, about a foot and a half aſunder, in the ſame manner that cabbages and cauliflowers are planted. As the ſeaſon became immediately very dry, I was obliged to give my plants a little water for four or five ſucceſſive nights; after which they began to flouriſh, and had the appearance of a promiſing crop during all the ſummer. At the uſual time, in October, I ordered them to be taken up; and for ſize, quantity, and quality, they exceeded all I ever had in the common way. Had the ground been freſh, properly manured and prepared, and the plants put down at a proper diſtance from each other, I am of opinion that the ſucceſs would have been ſtill greater.

" 8. *On feeding hogs with potatoes.* From an accurate experiment made laſt year, I dare venture to recommend baked potatoes as an excellent food for hogs. The pork produced by this food, was equal to that from barley and beans: but at preſent I cannot exactly aſcertain the comparative experiment with regard to expence; however, I am of opinion, that roaſted potatoes, conſidering the improvement of the hogs, is as cheap a food, if not cheaper, than can be given them. I roaſted my potatoes upon a kiln, ſimilar to what is uſed by oat-meal ſhellers for drying their oats. The difference in expence between boiling and roaſting the potatoes is prodigious, both with regard to the labour and fuel. A kiln that will coſt 3 l. will roaſt potatoes ſufficient for the maintenance of more than 20 hogs; and one man will beſtow all the neceſſary attendance upon them, and do other work beſides. The action of the fire, by diſſipating the crude juices that are contained in raw potatoes, reduces them into a ſtate highly wholeſome and nutritious. Boiling does this in part, but not ſo effectually. A potatoe roaſted in the manner above deſcribed, partakes much of the nature of a chetnut, and perhaps is not greatly inferior to it."

There is one remarkable property of the potatoe, that when planted in water, it ſhoots out a great number

ber of fine white roots like threads into the water; but on none of them is there to be found the least appearance of a bulb; while on the other hand, the potatoes in that case always grow on the top.

POTATOE-*Bread*. See BREAD.

Spanish POTATOE. See CONVOLVULUS.

POTENT, or POTENCE, in heraldry, a term for a kind of cross, whose ends all terminate like the head of a crutch. It is otherwise called the *Jerusalem cross*, and is represented Plate CXLVI. fig. x. 12.

POTENTIA (POWER,) that whereby a thing is capable either of acting, or being acted upon.

POTENTIAL, in the schools, is used to denote and distinguish a kind of qualities, which are supposed to exist in the body *in potentia* only; by which they are capable in some measure of affecting and impressing on us the ideas of such qualities, though not actually inherent in themselves; in which sense we say, potential heat, potential cold, &c.

POTENTIAL *Cautery*, in medicine, denotes the consuming, or reducing to an eschar, any part of the human body by a caustic alkaline or metallic salt, &c. instead of a red-hot iron, which last is called the *actual cautery*.

POTENTIAL, in grammar, an epithet applied to one of the moods of verbs. The potential is the same in form with the subjunctive, and is, according to Ruddiman, implied in that mood, for which reason that grammarian rejects it; but others will have it to differ from the subjunctive in this, that it always implies in it either *possum*, *volo*, or *deleo*. It is sometimes called the *permissive mood*, because it often implies a permission or concession to do a thing. See GRAMMAR, n° 43.

POTENTILLA, SILVER-WEED, *wild tansey*, or *cinque-foil*; a genus of the pentagynia order, belonging to the icosandria class of plants. The species are, 1. The fruticosa, or shrubby potentilla, commonly called *shrub cinquefoil*. This rises with a short shrubby stem, dividing into a branchy full head, three or four feet high; closely garnished with pinnates leaves of five oblong, narrow, acute-pointed, folioles, pale green above, and whitish underneath; and the branches terminated by clusters of large, spreading, yellow flowers. This is a beautiful deciduous flowering shrub, worthy a place in every curious collection. It grows wild in Yorkshire and other northern parts of England, &c. but has been long cultivated in gardens as an ornamental shrub. 2. The reptans, or creeping common five-leaved potentilla, or five-leaved grass, hath a thick fibrey root, slender, trailing, repent stalks, digitated, five-lobed, petiolated leaves, and yellow flowers singly. 3. The rupestris, or mountain upright cinquefoil, hath upright stalks, eight or nine inches high; pinnated five and three-lobed alternate leaves, having oval crenated lobes, and the stalks terminated by small white flowers. 4. The recta, or erect seven-lobed yellow cinquefoil, hath erect stalks, seven-lobed leaves; having three lobes spear-shaped and serrated, green and hairy on both sides, and the stalks terminated by corymbose clusters of yellow flowers. 5. The fragaroides, or strawberry-like trailing potentilla, hath a somewhat tuberous root, furnished with many long fibres, long trailing shoots, rooting at the joints; pinnated, mostly three-lobed leaves, having oval lobes, with the extreme lobe the largest, and clusters of small white flowers. This species bears a great resemblance to the small sterile strawberry plants. 6. The argentea, silvery upright potentilla, hath upright stalks, branching a foot high; and five-lobed leaves, having the lobes wedge-shaped, cut on the edges, hoary and white underneath, and the branches terminated by small yellow flowers.

All these plants flower in June and July; the flowers are composed each of five roundish petals, and about 20 stamina. They are all very hardy, and may be employed in the different compartments of the pleasure ground. Their propagation is very easy. The shrubby potentilla may be propagated abundantly by suckers, layers, and cuttings; all of which will readily grow, and make plants in one year, which after having two or three years growth in the nursery will be fit for any of the shrubbery compartments. All the herbaceous kinds may be propagated by parting the roots in autumn or spring, or by seed in any of those seasons.

POTERIUM, GARDEN BURNET; a genus of the polyandria order, belonging to the monœcia class of plants. The species are, 1. The sanguisorba, or common garden burnet, hath fibry perennial roots, crowned by a large tuft of pinnated leaves, or six or seven pair of sawed lobes, terminated by an odd one; upright angular stalks, dividing, and branching a foot and a half high, terminated by oblong spikes of purplish red flowers. This species grows wild in England, in chalky soils; but has been long cultivated as a choice salad-herb for winter and spring use, it being of a warm nature; the young leaves are the useful parts. It is perennial in root, and retains its radical leaves all the year, but the stalks are annual. 2. The hybridum, hybrid agrimony-leaved Montpelier burnet, rises with upright, taper, closely gathered stalks two feet high; pinnated odoriferous leaves of three or four pair of sawed lobes, terminated by an odd one; and the stalks terminated by long foot-stalks dividing into smaller, each supporting a small roundish spike of flowers. This species often proves biennial; but by cutting down some of the stalks before they flower, it will cause it to multiply at bottom, and become abiding. 3. Poterium spinosum, shrubby spinous burnet of Crete, hath a shrubby stem and branches, rising a yard high, armed with spines; small pinnated evergreen leaves, of six or seven pair of lobes, terminated by an odd one, and the branches termined by small heads of greenish flowers.

All these three species flower in June and July, succeeded by ripe seeds in Autumn. They are all naturally perennial; but the two herbaceous ones are abiding in root only; the other in root, stem, and branches: the two former are hardy, and the third requires shelter in winter. The first sort merits culture in every kitchen-garden for winter and spring salads. Some plants, both of the first and second sorts, may be introduced in the herbaceous collection in the pleasure-garden for variety. The third sort must be kept always in pots to have shelter in winter. They are all easily propagated, the first sort by feed, and by parting the roots. The second sort may also be increased by seeds and slips off the root, as for the for-

former sort. And the propagation of the third is by slips or cuttings of the branches in spring and summer, planted in pots, and placed under glasses, giving shade and water; or might be forwarded more by plunging them in a hot-bed.

Burnet is of a heating drying nature, cordial, and alexipharmic; in summer, the leaves are used for cool tankards, to given the wine an agreeable flavour. The powder of the root of the first species is commended against spitting of blood, bleeding at the nose, dysenteries, and diseases attended with violent secretions. In winter and spring, the young tender leaves are used in salads. For its uses as food for cattle, see AGRICULTURE, n° 47—49.

POTION, a liquid medicine, consisting of as much as can be drunk at one draught.

POTOSI, a city of Peru in South America, situated at the bottom of a mountain of that name, in which is the richest silver mine ever discovered. Situated in W. Long. 67. S. Lat. 22. See the article PERU, p. 5996.

POTTER (Christopher), a learned English divine, was born in 1591, and bred at Oxford. In 1233, he published his "Answer to a late Popish plot," intitled *Charity mistaken*, which he wrote by special order of king Charles I. whose chaplain he was. In 1634, he was promoted to the deanry of Worcester; and, in 1640, was constituted vice-chancellor of the university of Oxford, in the execution of which office he met with some trouble from the members of the long parliament. Upon breaking out of the civil wars, he sent all his plate to the king, declaring, "that he would rather, like Diogenes, drink in the hollow of his hand, than that his majesty should want;" and he afterward suffered much for the royal cause. In consideration of this he was nominated to the deanry of Durham in 1646, but was prevented from being installed by his death, which happened about two months after. He was a person learned and religious, exemplary in his conversation, courteous in his carriage, of a sweet and obliging nature, and of a comely presence. He was remarkable in his charity to the poor.

POTTER (Dr John), archbishop of Canterbury, was the son of a linen-draper at Wakefield in Yorkshire, where he was born about the year 1674. He studied at University college, Oxford; and at 19 published *Variantes lectiones & notæ ad Plutarchi librum de audiendis poetis; & ad Basilii magni orationem ad juvenes, quomodo cum fructu legere possint Græcorum libros*, 8vo. 1693. In 1697, came out his edition of *Lycophron*, in folio; which is reckoned the best of that obscure writer: soon after, he published his *Antiquities of Greece*, 2 vols, 8vo. These works established his literary reputation, and engaged him in a correspondence with Grævius and other learned foreigners. In 1706, he was made chaplain to the queen; in 1715, bishop of Oxford; and in 1737, he succeeded archbishop Wake in the see of Canterbury; which high station he supported with much dignity until his death in 1747. He was a learned and exemplary churchman; but not of an amiable disposition, being strongly tinctured with that sort of pride which usually accompanies rigid orthodoxy; nor is it to his credit that he disinherited his eldest son for marrying below his rank in life. His "Theological works, containing sermons, charges, discourses on church-government, and divinity lectures," were printed at Oxford, in 3 vols, 8vo. 1753.

POTTERY, the manufacture of earthen ware, or the art of making earthen vessels. See DELFT-*Ware*, STONE-*Ware*, and PORCELAIN.

The wheel and lathe are the chief and almost the only instruments in pottery: the first for large works, and the last for small. The potters-wheel consists principally in the nut, which is a beam or axis, whose foot or pivot plays perpendicularly on a free-stone sole or bottom. From the four corners of this beam, which does not exceed two feet in height, arise four iron bars, called the *spokes of the wheel*; which forming diagonal lines with the beam, descend, and are fastened at bottom to the edges of a strong wooden circle, four feet in diameter, perfectly like the felloes of a coach-wheel, except that it has neither axis nor radii, and is only joined to the beam, which serves it as an axis by the iron bars. The top of the nut is flat, of a circular figure, and a foot in diameter: and on this is laid the clay which is to be turned and fashioned. The wheel thus disposed, is encompassed with four sides of four different pieces of wood fastened on a wooden frame; the hind-piece, which is that on which the workman sits, is made a little inclining towards the wheel; on the fore-piece are placed the prepared earth; on the side-pieces he rests his feet, and these are made inclining to give him more or less room. Having prepared the earth, the potter lays a round piece of it on the circular head of the nut, and sitting down turns the wheel with his feet till it has got the proper velocity; then, wetting his hands with water, he presses his fist or his fingers-ends into the middle of the lump, and thus forms the cavity of the vessel, continuing to widen it from the middle; and thus turning the inside into form with one hand, while he proportions the outside with the other, the wheel constantly turning all the while, and he wetting his hands from time to time. When the vessel is too thick, he uses a flat piece of iron, somewhat sharp on the edge, to pare off what is redundant; and when it is finished, it is taken off from the circular head, by a wire passed under the vessel.

The potters-lathe is also a kind of wheel, but more simple and slight than the former; its three chief members are an iron beam or axis three feet and a half high, and two feet and a half diameter, placed horizontally at the top of the beam, and serving to form the vessel upon: and another larger wooden wheel, all of a piece, three inches thick, and two or three feet broad, fastened to the same beam at the bottom, and parallel to the horizon. The beam or axis turns by a pivot at the bottom in an iron stand. The workman gives the motion to the lathe with his feet, by pushing the great wheel alternately with each foot, still giving it a greater or lesser degree of motion as his work requires. They work with the lathe, with the same instruments, and after the same manner, as with the wheel. The mouldings are formed by holding a piece of wood or iron cut in the form of the moulding to the vessel, while the wheel is turning round; but the feet and handles are made by themselves and set on with the hand; and if there be any sculpture in the

work,

work, it is usually done in wooden moulds, and stuck on piece by piece on the outside of the vessel. For the glazing of the work, see GLAZING.

POTTLE, an English measure containing two quarts.

POULTICE, a sort of medicine, called also a *cataplasm*. See CATAPLASM.

POULTRY, all kinds of domestic birds brought up in yards, as cocks, hens, capons, ducks, turkeys, &c.

Almost, if not all the domestic birds of the poultry kind that we maintain in our yards are of foreign extraction; but there are others to be ranked in this class that are as yet in a state of nature, and perhaps only wait till they become sufficiently scarce to be taken under the care of man to multiply their propagation. It will appear remarkable enough, if we consider how much the tame poultry which we have imported from distant climates has increased, and how much those wild birds of the poultry kind that have never yet been taken into keeping have been diminished and destroyed. They are all thinned; and many of the species, especially in the more cultivated and populous parts of the kingdom, are utterly unseen.

Under birds of the poultry kind may be ranked all those that have white flesh, and, comparatively to their head and limbs, have bulky bodies. They are furnished with short strong bills for picking up grain, which is their chief and often their only sustenance. Their wings are short and concave; for which reason they are not able to fly far. They lay a great many eggs; and as they lead their young abroad, the very day they are hatched, in quest of food, which they are shown by the mother, and which they pick up for themselves, they generally make their nests on the ground. The toes of all these are united by a membrane as far as the first articulation, and then are divided as in those of the former class.

Under this class we may therefore render the common cock, the peacock, the turkey, the pintada or Guinea hen, the pheasant, the bustard, the grous, the partridge, and the quail. They all bear a strong similitude to each other, being equally granivorous, fleshy, and delicate to the palate. They are among birds what beasts of pasture are among quadrupeds, peaceable tenants of the field, and shunning the thicker parts of the forest, that abounds with numerous animals who carry on unceasing hostilities against them.

As nature has formed the rapacious class for war, so she seems equally to have fitted these for peace, rest, and society. Their wings are but short, so that they are ill formed for wandering from one region to another: their bills are also short, and incapable of annoying their opposers: their legs are strong indeed; but their toes are made for scratching up their food, and not for holding or tearing it. These are sufficient indications of their harmless nature; while their bodies, which are fat and fleshy, render them unwieldy travellers, and incapable of straying far from each other.

Accordingly, we find them chiefly in society: they live together: and though they may have their disputes, like all other animals, upon some occasions; yet, when kept in the same district, or fed in the same yard, they learn the arts of subordination; and, in proportion as each knows his strength, he seldom tries a second time the combat where he has once been worsted.

In this manner, all of this kind seem to lead an indolent voluptuous life. As they are furnished internally with a very strong stomach, commonly called a gizzard, so their voraciousness scarce knows any bounds. If kept in close captivity, and separated from all their former companions, they have still the pleasure of eating left; and they soon grow fat and unwieldy in their prison. To say this more simply, many of the wilder species of birds, when cooped or caged, pine away, grow gloomy, and some refuse all sustenance whatever; none except those of the poultry kind grow fat, who seem to lose all remembrance of their former liberty, satisfied with indolence and plenty.

POUNCE, gum sandarach pounded and sifted very fine, to rub on paper, in order to preserve it from sinking, and to make it more fit to write upon.

POUNCE, is also a little heap of charcoal dust, inclosed in a piece of muslin or some other open stuff, to be passed over holes pricked in a work, in order to mark the lines or designs thereof on paper, silk, &c. placed underneath; which are to be afterwards finished with a pen and ink, a needle, or the like. This kind of pounce is much used by embroiderers, to transfer their patterns upon stuffs; by lace-makers, and sometimes also by engravers.

POUNCES, in falconry, the talons or claws of a bird of prey.

POUND, a standard-weight; for the proportion and subdivisions of which, see the article WEIGHT.

POUND also denotes a money of account; so called, because the ancient pound of silver weighed a pound troy.

POUND, among lawyers, denotes a place of strength, in which to keep cattle that are distrained, or put in for trespass, until they are replevied or redeemed.

POUNDAGE, a subsidy of 12 d. in the pound, granted to the crown on all goods and merchandizes exported or imported; and if by aliens, one penny more.

POURPRESTURE, in law, is a wrongful inclosure, or incroachment upon another person's property.

POURSUIVANT, or PURSUIVANT, in heraldry, the lowest order of officers at arms.—They are properly attendants on the heralds when they marshal public ceremonies. Of these in England there were formerly many; but at present there are only four, viz. blue-mantle, rouge-cross, rouge dragon, and portcullice. In Scotland, there is only one king at arms, who is styled *Lyon*; and has under him no less than six heralds, as many pursuivants, and a great many messengers at arms. See LYON.

POURVEYANCE, or PURVEYANCE, in law, the providing corn, fuel, victuals, &c. for the king's houshold; and hence the officer who did so was termed *purveyor*. As several offences were committed by these officers, it was enacted by stat. 12. Car. II. that no person, under colour of purveyance, shall take any timber, cattle, corn, &c. from any subject without his free consent, or without a just appraisement and paying for the same.

POUSSIN (Nicholas), an eminent French painter, born

Pouſſin, Powder.

born in 1594 at Andel, a little city in Normandy, where his father was of noble extraction but born to a ſmall eſtate. He was inſtructed for a few months by one Ferdinand Elle a portrait-painter, and afterward ſpent a month with L'Allemant; but finding theſe artiſts not likely to improve him ſuitably to his deſires, he firſt ſtudied the paintings of the beſt maſters, and then haſtened to finiſh a few pieces he was engaged in, and travelled to Italy. Here he devoted almoſt his whole attention to the ſtudy of antique ſtatues and bas reliefs; which was probably the cauſe of his want of knowledge in, and taſte for, the art of colouring. Being invited back to Paris by Lewis XIII. who aſſigned him a penſion with lodgings in the Tuilleries, he painted for prince Juſtiniani an hiſtorical picture repreſenting Herod's cruelty; an admirable compoſition, in which he gave ſuch expreſſion to every character, as could not fail to ſtrike the beholder with terror and pity: he then laboured for ſeveral years on the celebrated pictures of the ſeven ſacraments of the Romiſh church. But none of Pouſſin's deſigns have been more generally admired than that of the death of Germanicus; which would have gained him immortal honour if he had never painted another picture. He began the labours of Hercules in the gallery of the Louvre; but the faction of Vouet's ſchool railing at him and his performances, put him ſo out of humour with his own country, that he returned to Rome, where he died in 1665. He never went beyond eaſel pieces, for which he had a perpetual demand; and his method was to fix the price he expected on the back of the canvas, which was readily paid.

Pouſſin (Gaſpar), this painter, whoſe real name was *Dughet*, was born at Paris in 1600; and was induced to travel to Rome, not only from a love to the art of painting, but alſo to viſit his ſiſter who was married to Nicholas Pouſſin. Sandrart ſays that Gaſpar was employed at firſt only to prepare the pallet, pencils, and colours, for Nicholas; but by the precepts and example of that excellent maſter, gradually roſe to the higheſt reputation, and is undoubtedly one of the beſt landſcape painters that ever appeared. It is generally thought that no painter ever ſtudied nature to better purpoſe, or repreſented the effects of land-ſtorms more happily, than Gaſpar; all his trees ſhew a natural degree of agitation, every leaf being in motion; his ſcenes are all beautifully choſen, as are the ſites of his buildings. He deſigned human figures but very indifferently; for which reaſon he frequently prevailed on Nicholas to paint them for him; and they were always introduced with the utmoſt propriety. While he continued at Rome, he dropped his own name, and aſſumed that of his brother-in-law and benefactor, by which only he is at preſent known. He died in 1662.

POWDER, in pharmacy, a dry medicine well broken, either in a mortar by grinding, or by ſome chemical operation.

Gun-Powder. See Gun-*Powder*.

Powder-*Cheſts*, certain ſmall boxes charged with powder and a quantity of old nails or ſplinters of iron, and faſtened occaſionally on the deck and ſides of a ſhip, in order to be diſcharged on an enemy who attempts to ſeize her by boarding. Theſe caſes are uſually from 12 to 18 inches in length, and about eight or ten in breadth, having their outer or upper part terminating in an edge. They are nailed to ſeveral places of the quarter-deck and bulk-head of the waiſt, having a train of powder, which communicates with the inner apartments of the ſhip, ſo as to be fired at pleaſure to annoy the enemy. They are particularly uſed in merchant-ſhips which are furniſhed with cloſe-quarters to oppoſe the boarders.

Powder *for the Hair*. The beſt ſort is ſtarch well pounded and ſifted, and generally prepared with ſome perfume.

POWER, the faculty of doing or ſuffering any thing. Power therefore is two-fold, *viz.* conſidered as able to make, or able to receive, any change; the former whereof may be called *active power*, and the latter *paſſive power*. See Metaphysics, n° 73—80.

Power, in mechanics, denotes any force, whether of a man, a horſe, a ſpring, the wind, water, &c. which, being applied to a machine, tends to produce motion.

Power, in law, ſignifies in general, a particular authority granted by any perſon to another to repreſent him, or to act in his ſtead.

POWERS, in arithmetic and algebra, are nothing but the products ariſing from the continual multiplications of a number or quantity into itſelf. See Algebra and Arithmetic.

POX, *French* Pox, or *Lues Venerea*. See Medicine, n° 447.

Small-Pox. See Medicine, n° 326—328.

POYNING's law, an act of parliament made in Ireland under Henry VII. whereby all the ſtatutes of force in England were made of force in Ireland; which before that time they were not.—Nor are any now in force there, made in England ſince that time.

The law took its name from Sir Edward Poyning, lord lieutenant of that kingdom at the time of its making.

PRACTICE, in arithmetic. See there, n° 16, &c.

Gun-Practice, in military education. In the ſpring, as ſoon as the weather permits, the exerciſe of the great guns begins, with an intention to ſhow the gentlemen cadets at the royal military academy at Woolwich, and private men, the manner of laying, loading, pointing, and firing the guns. Sometimes inſtruments are uſed to find the centre line, or two points, one at the breech, the other at the muzzle, which are marked with chalk, and whereby the piece is directed to the target: then a quadrant is put into the mouth to give the gun the required elevation, which at firſt is gueſſed at, according to the diſtance the target is from the piece. When the piece has been fired, it is ſponged to clear it from any duſt or ſparks of fire that might remain in the bore, and loaded: then the centre line is found, as before; and if the ſhot went too high or too low, to the right or to the left, the elevation and trail are altered accordingly. This practice continues morning and evening for about ſix weeks, more or leſs, according as there are a greater or leſs number of recruits. In the mean time others are ſhown the motions of quick firing with field-pieces.

Mortar-Practice, generally thus. A line of 1500 or 2000 yards is meaſured in an open ſpot of ground from the place where the mortars ſtand, and a flag fixed at about 300 or 500 yards: this being done, the ground where the mortars are to be placed is prepared and

Powder || Practice.

Pragmatic, Præmunire

and levelled with ſand, ſo that they may lie at an elevation of 45 degrees; then they are loaded with a ſmall quantity of powder at firſt, which is increaſed afterwards by an ounce every time, till they are loaded with a full charge: the times of the flights of the ſhell are obſerved, to determine the length of the fuzes. The intention of this practice is, when a mortar battery is raiſed in a ſiege, to know what quantity of powder is required to throw the ſhells into the works at a given diſtance, and to cut the fuzes of a juſt length that the ſhell may burſt as ſoon as it touches the ground.

PRAGMATIC SANCTION, in the civil law, is defined by Hottoman to be a reſcript or anſwer of the ſovereign, delivered by advice of his council, to ſome college, order, or body of people, upon conſulting him on ſome caſe of their community. The like anſwer given to any particular perſon is called ſimply *reſcript*.

The term *pragmatic ſanction*, is chiefly applied to a ſettlement of Charles VI. emperor of Germany, who, in the year 1722, having no ſons, ſettled his hereditary dominions on his eldeſt daughter the arch-ducheſs Maria Thereſa, which was confirmed by the diet of the empire, and guaranteed by Great Britain, France, the States General, and moſt of the powers in Europe. The word *pragmatic* is derived from the Greek πραγμα, *negotium*, "buſineſs."—It is ſometimes alſo called abſolutely *pragmatic*, το πραγματικον.

PRÆMUNIRE, in law, is taken either for a writ ſo called, or for the offence whereon the writ is granted; the one may be underſtood by the other.—The church of Rome, under pretence of her ſupremacy and the dignity of St Peter's chair, took on her to beſtow moſt of the eccleſiaſtical livings of any worth in England by mandates, before they were void; pretending therein great care to ſee the church provided of a ſucceſſor before it needed. Whence theſe mandates or bulls were called *gratiæ expectativæ*, or *proviſiones*; whereof ſee a learned diſcourſe in *Duarenus de beneficiis*, lib. 3. cap. 1. Theſe proviſions were ſo common, that at laſt Edward III. not digeſting ſo intolerable an encroachment, in the 35th year of his reign made a ſtatute againſt papal proviſions, which, according to Sir Edward Coke, is the foundation of all the ſubſequent ſtatutes of præmunire: which is ranked as an offence immediately againſt the king, becauſe every encouragement of the papal power is a diminution of the authority of the crown.

Blackſt. Comment.

In the weak reign of Edward II. the pope again endeavoured to encroach, but the parliament manfully withſtood him; and it was one of the articles charged againſt that unhappy prince, that he had given allowance to the bulls of the ſee of Rome. But Edw. III. was of a temper extremely different; and, to remedy theſe inconveniences firſt by gentle means, he and his nobility wrote an expoſtulation to the pope: but receiving a menacing and contemptuous anſwer, withal acquainting him, that the emperor (who a few years before at the diet of Nuremberg, A. D. 1323, had eſtabliſhed a law againſt proviſions) and alſo the king of France had lately ſubmitted to the holy ſee; the king replied, that if both the emperor and the French king ſhould take the pope's part, he was ready to give battle to them both, in defence of the liberties of the crown. Hereupon more ſharp and penal laws were devised againſt proviſors, which enact ſeverally, that the court of Rome ſhall preſent or collate to no biſhopric or living in England; and that whoever diſturbs any patron in the preſentation to a living by virtue of a papal proviſion, ſuch proviſor ſhall pay fine and ranſom to the king at his will, and be impriſoned till he renounces ſuch proviſion: and the ſame puniſhment is inflicted on ſuch as cite the king, or any of his ſubjects, to anſwer in the court of Rome. And when the holy ſee reſented theſe proceedings, and pope Urban V. attempted to revive the vaſſalage and annualrent to which king John had ſubjected his kingdom, it was unanimouſly agreed by all the eſtates of the realm in parliament aſſembled, 40 Edw. III. that king John's donation was null and void, being without the concurrence of parliament, and contrary to his coronation-oath; and all the temporal nobility and commons engaged, that if the pope ſhould endeavour by proceſs or otherwiſe to maintain theſe uſurpations, they would reſiſt and withſtand him with all their power.

Præmunire.

In the reign of Richard II. it was found neceſſary to ſharpen and ſtrengthen thoſe laws, and therefore it was enacted by ſtatutes 3 Ric. II. c. 3. and 7 Ric. II. c. 12. firſt, that no alien ſhall be capable of letting his benefice to farm; in order to compel ſuch as had crept in, at leaſt to reſide on their preferments: and afterwards, that no alien ſhould be capable to be preſented to any eccleſiaſtical preferment, under the penalty of the ſtatutes of proviſors. By the ſtatute 12 Rich II. c. 15. all liegemen of the king accepting of a living by any foreign proviſion, are put out of the king's protection, and the benefice made void. To which the ſtatute 13 Rich. II. ſt. 2. c. 2. adds baniſhment and forfeiture of lands and goods: and by c. 3. of the ſame ſtatute, any perſon bringing over any citation or excommunication from beyond ſea, on account of the execution of the foregoing ſtatutes of proviſors, ſhall be impriſoned, forfeit his goods and lands, and moreover ſuffer pain of life and member.

In the writ for the execution of all theſe ſtatutes, the words *præmunire facias*, being uſed to command a citation of the party, have denominated in common ſpeech, not only the writ, but the offence itſelf of maintaining the papal power, by the name of *præmunire*. And accordingly the next ſtatute we ſhall mention, which is generally referred to by all ſubſequent ſtatutes, is uſually called the *ſtatute of præmunire*. It is the ſtatute 16 Rich. II. c. 5. which enacts, that whoever procures at Rome, or elſewhere, any tranſlations, proceſſes, excommunications, bulls, inſtruments, or other things which touch the king, againſt him, his crown, and realm, and all perſons aiding and aſſiſting therein, ſhall be put out of the king's protection, their lands and goods forfeited to the king's uſe, and they ſhall be attached by their bodies to anſwer to the king and his council; or proceſs of *præmunire facias* ſhall be made out againſt them as in other caſes of proviſors.

By the ſtatute 2 Henry IV. c. 3. all perſons who accept any proviſion from the pope, to be exempt from canonical obedience to their proper ordinary, are alſo ſubjected to the penalties of præmunire. And this is the laſt of our ancient ſtatutes touching this offence; the uſurped civil power of the biſhop of Rome being pretty

Præmunire. pretty well broken down by these statutes, as his usurped religious power was in about a century afterwards: the spirit of the nation being so much raised against foreigners, that about this time, in the reign of Hen. V. the alien priories, or abbeys for foreign monks, were suppressed, and their lands given to the crown. And no farther attempts were afterwards made in support of these foreign jurisdictions.

This then is the original meaning of the offence which we call *præmunire*; viz. introducing a foreign power into this land, and creating *imperium in imperio*, by paying that obedience to papal process which constitutionally belonged to the king alone, long before the Reformation in the reign of Henry VIII. at which time the penalties of præmunire were indeed extended to more papal abuses than before; as the kingdom then entirely renounced the authority of the see of Rome, though not all the corrupted doctrines of the Roman church. And therefore by the several statutes of 24 Hen. VIII. c. 12. and 25 Hen. VIII. c. 19. & 21. to appeal to Rome from any of the king's courts, which (though illegal before) had at times been connived at; to sue to Rome for any licence or dispensation, or to obey any process from thence, are made liable to the pains of præmunire. And, in order to restore to the king in effect the nomination of vacant bishoprics, and yet keep up the established forms, it is enacted by statute 25 Hen. VIII. c. 20. that if the dean and chapter refuse to elect the person named by the king, or any archbishop or bishop to confirm or consecrate him, they shall fall within the penalties of the statutes of præmunire. Also by statute 5 Eliz. c. 1. to refuse the oath of supremacy will incur the pains of præmunire; and to defend the pope's jurisdiction in this realm, is a præmunire for the first offence, and high treason for the second. So too, by statute 13 Eliz. c. 2. to import any *agnus Dei*, crosses, beads, or other superstitious things pretended to be hallowed by the bishop of Rome, and tender the same to be used; or to receive the same with such intent, and not discover the offender; or if a justice of the peace, knowing thereof, shall not within 14 days declare it to a privy counsellor, they all incur a præmunire. But importing or selling mass-books, or other Popish books, is by stat. 3 Jac. I. c. 5. § 25. only liable to a penalty of 40s. Lastly, to contribute to the maintenance of a Jesuit's college, or any Popish seminary whatever beyond sea, or any person in the same, or to contribute to the maintenance of any Jesuit or Popish priest in England, is by statute 27 Eliz. c. 2. made liable to the penalties of præmunire.

Thus far the penalties of præmunire seem to have kept within the proper bounds of their original institution, the depressing the power of the pope: but, they being pains of no inconsiderable consequence, it has been thought fit to apply the same to other heinous offences; some of which bear more, and some less relation to this original offence, and some no relation at all.

Thus, 1. By the statute 1 & 2 Ph. and Mar. c. 8. to molest the possessors of abbey-lands granted by parliament to Henry VIII. and Edward VI. is a premunire. 2. So likewise is the offence of acting as a broker or agent in any usurious contract where above 10 *per cent.* interest is taken, by statute 13 Eliz. c. 10. 3. To obtain any stay of proceedings, other than by arrest of judgment or writ of error, in any suit for a monopoly, is likewise a præmunire, by statute 21 Jac. I. c. 3. 4. To obtain an exclusive patent for the sole making or importation of gunpowder or arms, or to hinder others from importing them, is also a præmunire by two statutes; the one 16 Car. I. c. 21. the other 1 Jac. II. c. 8. 5. On the abolition, by stat. 12 Car. II. c. 24. of purveyance, and the prerogative of pre-emption, or taking any victual, beasts, or goods for the king's use, at a stated price, without consent of the proprietor, the exertion of any such power for the future was declared to incur the penalties of præmunire. 6. To assert, maliciously and advisedly, by speaking or writing, that both or either house of parliament have a legislative authority without the king, is declared a præmunire by statute 13 Car. II. c. 1. 7. By the *habeas corpus* act also, 31 Car. II. c. 2. it is a præmunire, and incapable of the king's pardon, besides other heavy penalties, to send any subject of this realm a prisoner into parts beyond the seas. 8. By the statute 1 W. & M. st. 1. c. 8. persons of 18 years of age refusing to take the new oaths of allegiance, as well as supremacy, upon tender by the proper magistrate, are subject to the penalties of a præmunire; and by statute 7 & 8 W. III. c. 24. serjeants, counsellors, proctors, attorneys, and all officers of courts, practising without having taken the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and subscribed the declaration against Popery, are guilty of a præmunire, whether the oaths be tendered or no. 9. By the statute 6 Ann. c. 7. to assert maliciously and directly, by preaching, teaching, or advised speaking, that the then pretended prince of Wales, or any person other than according to the acts of settlement and union, hath any right to the throne of these kingdoms, or that the king and parliament cannot make laws to limit the descent of the crown; such preaching, teaching, or advised speaking, is a præmunire: as writing, printing, or publishing the same doctrines amounted, we may remember, to high treason. 10. By statute 6 Ann. c. 23. if the assembly of peers of Scotland, convened to elect their 16 representatives in the British parliament, shall presume to treat of any other matter save only the election, they incur the penalties of a præmunire. 11. The stat. 6 Geo. I. c. 18. (enacted in the year after the infamous South Sea project had beggared half the nation) makes all unwarrantable undertakings by unlawful subscriptions, then commonly known by the name of *bubbles*, subject to the penalties of a præmunire. 12. The stat. 12 Geo. III. c. 11. subjects to the penalties of the statute of præmunire all such as knowingly and wilfully solemnize, assist, or are present at, any forbidden marriage of such of the descendants of the body of king George II. as are by that act prohibited to contract matrimony without the consent of the crown.

Having thus inquired into the nature and several species of præmunire, its punishment may be gathered from the foregoing statutes, which are thus shortly summed up by Sir Edward Coke: "That, from the conviction, the defendant shall be out of the king's protection, and his lands and tenements, goods and chattels, forfeited to the king; and that his body shall remain in prison at the king's pleasure, or (as other authorities have it) during life; both which amount to the

the ſame thing, as the king by his prerogative may any time remit the whole, or any part of the puniſhment, except in the caſe of tranſgreſſing the ſtatute of *habeas corpus*. Theſe forfeitures here inflicted do not (by the way) bring this offence within our former definition of FELONY; being inflicted by particular ſtatutes, and not by the common law. But ſo odious, Sir Edward Coke adds, was this offence of præmunire, that a man that was attainted of the fame, might have been ſlain by any other man without danger of law; becauſe it was provided by law, that any man might do to him as to the king's enemy; and any man may lawfully kill an enemy. However, the poſition itſelf, that it is at any time lawful to kill an enemy, is by no means tenable: it is only lawful, by the law of nature and nations, to kill him in the heat of battle, or for neceſſary ſelf-defence. And to obviate ſuch ſavage and miſtaken notions, the ſtatute 5 Eliz. c. 1. provides, that it ſhall not be lawful to kill any perſon attainted in a præmunire, any law, ſtatute, opinion, or expoſition of law to the contrary notwithſtanding. But ſtill ſuch delinquent, though protected as a part of the public from public wrongs, can bring no action for any private injury, how atrocious ſoever; being ſo far out of the protection of the law, that it will not guard his civil rights, nor remedy any grievance which he as an individual may ſuffer. And no man, knowing him to to be guilty, can with ſafety give him comfort, aid, or relief.

PRÆNESTE, (anc. geog.) a town of Latium, to the ſouth-eaſt of Rome, towards the territory of the Æqui; a place of great ſtrength. Famous for the temple and oracle of Fortune, called *Sortes Præneſtinæ*, (Strabo); which Tiberius wanted to deſtroy, but was deterred by the awful majeſty of the place. From a colony it was raiſed to a municipium by Tiberius, (Inſcriptions, Florus, A. Gellius), on the conſideration of his recovery from a dangerous illneſs near this place. Thither the Roman emperors uſually retired, on account of the agreeableneſs of the ſituation, (Suetonius). It was a very ancient city, with a territory of large extent, (Livy.) The temple of Fortune was built in the moſt ſumptuous manner by Sylla, and the pavement was Moſaic work, (Pliny). Concerning the Sortes, there is a remarkable paſſage in Cicero; who ſays, that it was all a mere contrivance, in order to deceive, either for the purpoſes of gain or ſuperſtition. The town that has ſucceeded it, ſtands low in a valley, and is called *Paleſtrina*, in the Campania of Rome. E. Long. 13. 30. Lat. 42. 0.

PRÆSIDIUM, (Notitia) a town of the Cornavii in Britain. Now thought to be Warwick, (Camden), —Another of Corſica (Antonine), 30 miles to the ſouth of Aleria.—A third *Præſidium* ſurnamed *Julium*, in Bætica, (Pliny).

PRÆTORIA AUGUSTA (Ptolemy), a town of Dacia. Now called *Braſſow* by the natives, and *Cronſtat* by the Germans, (Baudrand): a town in Tranſylvania. E. Long. 25°. N. Lat. 47°.—Another of the Salaſſii, near the two gates or deſiles of the Alps, the Grajæ and Penninæ, (Pliny); a Roman colony, ſettled by Auguſtus after the defeat of the Salaſſii by Terentius Varro, on the ſpot where he encamped, (Strabo, Dio Caſſius, Ptolemy), ſituated on the river Duria Major. The town is now called *Aoſta* or *Acuſt*, in Piedmount. E. Long. 7. 14. N. Lat. 45. 19.

PRÆTORIUM (Antonine, Notitia Imperii), a town of the Brigantes. New *Paterington* (Camden), near the mouth of the Humber in Yorkſhire. *Coventry*, (Talbot.)

PRAGUE, a city of Bohemia, and capital of the whole kingdom, is ſituated 14° 40′ of long. and 50° 5′ of lat. It ſtands on both ſides the Mulda, over which there is a ſtone bridge; but the river, though of great breadth here, is neverthelefs ſhallow, and not navigable. On both ſides the bridge are ſeveral ſtatues, and, among others, that of St John of Nepomuck, whom king Wenzel cauſed to be thrown from the bridge into the river, for venturing to reprove him upon ſome occaſion; but in 1720 he was canonized as a ſaint, and is at preſent held in ſuch veneration in Bohemia, that all other ſaints ſeem, on his account, to be foregotten. The houſes of this city are wholly built of ſtone, and conſiſt for the moſt of three ſtories. Here are near 100 churches and chapels, and about 40 cloiſters. The number of its Chriſtian inhabitants is ſaid to be 70,000, and of Jews about 12,000. The principal branch of its trade conſiſts in brewing of beer. It is divided into the Old and the New Towns, and that called the *Small ſide;* the former lying on the eaſt ſide of the Mulda, and the latter on the weſt. The whole is about 12 miles in circumference, and but thinly inhabited. The fortifications are not of great importance, as it may be flanked and raked on all ſides. However, the king of Pruſſia was not able to make himſelf maſter of it in the late war, though he almoſt deſtroyed it with his bombs, &c. It ſtands in a pleaſant and fruitful country, in the midſt of gardens, fine fields, palaces, and pleaſure-houſes. It hath ſuffered greatly by ſieges, and hath been often taken and plundered. The univerſity was founded by Charles IV. in the year 1347. In 1409, when John Huſs was rector of the univerſity, there were no leſs than 44,000 ſtudents; and when the emperor Charles V. would have retrenched their privileges, 24,000 are ſaid to have left it in one week, and 16,000 in a ſhort time after. The Jews have the trade of this city almoſt entirely in their own hands. They deal in all ſorts of commodities, eſpecially the precious ſtones found in the Bohemian mines, and, by receiving all old-faſhioned things in payment, quite ruin the Chriſtian handicraftſmen. In 1744 they narrowly eſcaped being expelled the kingdom, having been ſuſpected of correſponding with the Pruſſians, when they made themſelves maſters of the city. The grand prior of the order of Malta, for Bohemia, Moravia, and Sileſia, reſides here; and the church and hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt is the ſeat of the general and grand-maſters of the holy order of knights of the croſs with the red ſtar, reſiding in the above-mentioned countries, and in Poland and Hungary. The cathedral is dedicated to St Veit, and adorned with many magnificent tombs of great perſonages. On Ratſchin-hill, in Upper-Prague, moſt of the nobility have houſes, and the emperor a very magnificent palace, and a ſummer-houſe, commanding one of the fineſt proſpects in the world. Here the tribunals of the regency meet; and the halls, galleries, and other apartments, are adorned with a multitude of noble pictures. The great hall, where

Prague || Pratique.

where the coronation-feast is kept, is said to be the largest of the kind in Europe next to that of Westminster. The castle stands on the above-mentioned mountain, called *Ratschin* or the *White Mountain*, and is very strong. From a window of this castle the emperor's counsellors were thrown in 1618; but though they fell from a great height, yet they were not killed, nor indeed much hurt. On the same mountain stands also the archiepiscopal palace. In the New Town is an arsenal, and a religious foundation for ladies, called the *Free Temporal English foundation*, over which an abbess presides. In the Lesser Side or Town, the counts Colloredo and Wallenstein have very magnificent palaces and gardens. The stables of the latter are very grand; the racks being of steel, and the mangers of marble, and a marble pillar betwixt each horse; over each horse also is placed his picture, as big as life. Though the inhabitants of Prague in general are poor, and their shops but meanly furnished; yet, it is said, there are few cities where the nobility and gentry are more wealthy, and live in greater state. Here is much gaming, masquerading, feasting, and very splendid public balls, with an Italian opera, and assemblies in the houses of the quality every night. On the White Mountain, near the town, was fought the battle, in which the Protestants, with the elector Palatine Frederic their king, were defeated. The lustres and drinking glasses made here of Bohemian crystal are much esteemed, and vended all over Europe. These crystals are also polished by the Jews, and set in rings, ear-pendants, and shirts-buttons. The chief tribunal consists of twelve stadtholders, at the head of whom is the great burgrave, governor of the kingdom and city, immediately under the emperor, and the chancery of Bohemia.

PRAM, or Prame, a kind of lighter used in Holland and the ports of the Baltic Sea, to carry the cargo of a merchant-ship *along-side* in order to lade, or to bring it to shore to be lodged in the storehouses after being discharged out of the vessel.

Prame, in military affairs, a kind of floating battery, being a flat-bottomed vessel, which draws little water, mounts several guns, and is very useful in covering the disembarkation of troops. They are generally made use of in transplanting the troops over the lakes in America.

PRAMNION, in natural history, the name of a semi-pellucid gem.—This is a very singular stone, and of a very great concealed beauty. Our lapidaries, when they meet with it, call it by the name of the *black agate*. It is of an extremely close, compact, and firm texture, of a smooth and equal surface, and in shape very irregular, being sometimes round, sometimes oblong, and often flat; in size it seldom exceeds two inches. It appears, on a common inspection, to be of a fine deep black; but held up against the sun, or the light of a candle, it is an elegant red clouded by a quantity of subtile black earth. We have it from the East Indies.

PRATIQUE, or Prattic, in commerce, a negotiation or communication of commerce which a merchant vessel obtains in the port it arrives in and the countries it discovers; hence to obtain a pratique, is to obtain liberty to frequent a port, to go ashore, to buy and sell, &c.

Praxagoras || Precedence.

PRAXAGORAS, a native of Athens, at 19 years of age composed the History of the Kings of Athens, in two books: and at 22 the Life of Constantine the Great, in which, though a pagan, he speaks very advantageously of that prince. He also wrote the History of Alexander the Great. He lived under Constantius, about the year 345.

PRAXITELES, a very famous Greek sculptor, who lived 330 years before Christ, at the time of the reign of Alexander the Great. All the ancient writers mention his statues with a high commendation, especially a Venus executed by him for the city of Cnidos, which was so admirable a piece, that king Nicomedes offered to release the inhabitants from their tribute as the purchase of it; but they refused to part with it. He was one of the gallants of the celebrated courtesan Phryne.

PREACHING. See Declamation, Art. I.—The word is derived from the Hebrew *parasch*, *exposuit*, "he expounded."

PREADAMITE, a denomination given to the inhabitants of the earth, conceived, by some people, to have lived before Adam.

Isaac de la Pereyra, in 1655, published a book to evince the reality of Preadamites, by which he gained a considerable number of proselytes to the opinion: but the answer of Demarets, professor of theology at Groningen, published the year following, put a stop to its progress; though Pereyra made a reply.

His system was this: The Jews he calls *Adamites*, and supposes them to have issued from Adam; and gives the title *Preadamites*, to the Gentiles, whom he supposes to have been a long time before Adam. But this being expressly contrary to the first words of Genesis, Pereyra had recourse to the fabulous antiquities of the Egyptians and Chaldeans, and to some idle rabbins, who imagined there had been another world before that described by Moses. He was apprehended by the inquisition in Flanders, and very roughly used, though in the service of the dauphin. But he appealed from their sentence to Rome; whither he went in the time of Alexander VII. and where he printed a retractation of his book of Preadamites.

PREAMBLE, in law, the beginning of an act of parliament, &c. which serves to open the intent of the act, and the mischiefs intended to be remedied by it.

PREBEND, the maintenance a prebendary receives out of the estate of a cathedral or collegiate church. Prebends are distinguished into simple and dignitary: a simple prebend has no more than the revenue for its support; but a prebend with dignity, has always a jurisdiction annexed to it.

PREBENDARY, an ecclesiastic who enjoys a prebend.

The difference between a prebendary and a canon is, that the former receives his prebend in consideration of his officiating in the church, but the latter merely by his being received into the cathedral or college.

PRECARIUM, in Scots law. See Law, N° clxxiii. 9.

PRECEDENCE, a place of honour to which a person is entitled. This is either of courtesy or of right. The former is that which is due to age, estate, &c. which is regulated by custom and civility: the latter

Precedent || Predestination.

latter is settled by authority; and, when broken in upon, gives an action at law. For the rules of precedence in Britain, see HERALDRY, p. 3612.

PRECEDENT, in law, a case which has been determined, and which serves as a rule for all of the same nature.

PRECENTOR, a dignity in cathedrals, popularly called the *chantor*, or *master of the choir*.

PRECEPT, in law, a command in writing sent by a chief justice or justice of the peace, for bringing a person, record, or other matter before him.

PRECEPT *of Clare Constat*, in Scots law. See LAW, Part II. N° clxxx. 28.

PRECEPT *of Seisin*, in Scots law. See LAW, Part III. N° clxiv. 16.

PRECIÆ, (*precius*, "early,") the name of the 21 order in Linnæus's fragments of a natural method; consisting of primrose, an early flowering plant, and a few genera which agree with it in habit and structure, tho' not always in the character or circumstance expressed in the title.

PRECEPTIVE, any thing which gives or contains precepts.

PRECEPTIVE *Poetry*. See POETRY, n° 69, &c.

PRECIPITANT, in chemistry, is applied to any liquor, which, when poured on a solution, separates what is dissolved, and makes it precipitate, or fall to the bottom of the vessel.

PRECIPATE, in chemistry, a substance which, having been dissolved in a proper menstruum, is again separated from its solvent, and throw down to the bottom of the vessel, by pouring some other liquor upon it.

PRECIPITATION. See CHEMISTRY, n° 71.

PRECOGNITION, in Scots law. See LAW, Part III. N° clxxxvi. 43.

PRECORDIA, in anatomy, a general name for the parts situated about the heart, in the forepart of the thorax: as the diaphragm, pericardium, and even the heart itself, with the spleen, lungs, &c.

PREDECESSOR, properly signifies a person who has preceded or gone before another in the same office or employment, in which sense it is distinguished from ancestor.

PREDESTINATION, in general, signifies a decree of God, whereby, from all eternity, he ordained such a concatenation of causes as must produce every event by a kind of fatal necessity, and maugre all opposition.

In this sense, the Turks are great predestinarians; and on this account are much more daring in battle, and willingly encounter greater dangers that they would otherwise do.

Predestination, among Christians, is used, in a more limited sense, for a judgment or decree of God, whereby he has resolved, from all eternity, to save a certain number of persons, from thence called *elect*; so that the rest of mankind, being left in a state of impenitence, are said to be reprobated.

Nothing has occasioned more disputes than this thorny subject of predestination; the Lutherans speak of it with horror, while the Calvinists contend for it with great zeal; the Molinists and Jesuits preach it down as a most dangerous doctrine, whilst the Jansenists affert it as an article of faith: the Arminians, Remonstrants, and Pelagians, are all avowed enemies to predestination.

Predial || Pre-existence.

PREDIAL TITHES, are those that are paid of things arising and growing from the ground only; as corn, hay, fruit, &c.

PREDICABLE, among logicians, denotes a general quality which may be predicated, or asserted of several things: thus animal is predicable of mankind, beasts, birds, fishes, &c.

PREDICAMENT, among logicians, the same with category. See CATEGORY.

PREDICATE, in logic, that part of a proposition which affirms or denies something of the subject: in these propositions, *snow is white*, *ink is not white*, whiteness is the predicate which is affirmed of snow, and denied of ink.

PRE-EMPTION, a privilege anciently allowed the king's purveyor, of having the choice and first buying of corn and other provisions for the king's house; but taken away by the statute 19, Car. II.

PREENING, in natural history, the action of birds cleaning, composing, and dressing their feathers, to enable them to glide more easily through the air. For this purpose, they have two peculiar glands on their rump, which secrete an unctuous matter into a bag that is perforated, out of which the bird occasionally draws it with its bill.

PRE-EXISTENCE, a priority of being, or the being of one thing before another. Thus a cause, if not in time, is yet in nature pre-existent to its effect. Thus God is pre-existent to the universe. Thus a human father is pre-existent to his son. The Peripatetics, though they maintained the eternity of the world, were likewise dogmatical in their opinion, that the universe was produced, actuated, and governed, by a sovereign intelligence *. Embarrassed, however, with the difficulty, that causation seemed to imply previous existence, as no being could operate either production or change upon another till its own existence and powers of operation had first been realized, these profound and accurate philosophers exerted all their subtilty and learning to obviate an objection so formidable. Thus, in order to extricate their system, they had recourse to a distinction which equally showed the extent of their genius and the depth of their erudition. They distinguished between priority in nature and priority in time. It is impossible, say they, to conceive the existence of the sun, for one indivisible instant prior to his emission of rays.

1 The Peripatetics maintain the world eternal.

* See *Aristotle on the Soul.*

When a seal is stamped upon wax, the impression must be strictly and absolutely coexistent with the impulse; thus the emanent act or exertion of Deity in producing, moving, and superintending the universe, must be one continued and unsuccessive energy. It is unnecessary to enter into the depth or minutiæ of this controversy, since we are assured by the best of all authorities, that the world was created in time; from whence it follows, that even in the course of duration the existence of God must have been anterior to that of his works. The difficulty urged by them, and by other sceptical philosophers, that at whatever period of duration creative power began to be exerted, it must have passed an eternity prior to that point in supine indolence and inactivity; though not to be solved by human divine activity.

2 The world, though created in time, consistent with

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man reason, is yet less formidable, because more easily conceivable, than the eternal coexistence of an effect with its cause. Previous to that distinguished æra in endless duration, when nature at the Almighty *fiat* emerged from nothing, we are entirely ignorant of the motives (if it may be so expressed) which might predispose infinite wisdom, power, and goodness, then, and not till then, to exert themselves in creating. But since, from all that we see of the divine energy and administration, nothing appears to be done without a sufficient reason, we have the best grounds to conclude, that the same conduct prevails in those divine exertions, whose nature, manner, and adjuncts, are absolutely incomprehensible by our limited powers.

It is evident, that the Divine Nature, rich in its eternal and independent all-sufficiency, could never feel any necessity which might be redressed or gratified by the existence or homage of external nature. The universe therefore must be formed for itself alone; and could only be the glorious result of unconstrained wisdom and voluntary goodness. Besides, there is no series of deductions more natural and congenial to the human mind, than to conclude, that what is eternal must be unproduced: That if it was produced, there must have been a period when it did not exist: if it was not produced, it must be independent; if independent, it must be self-existent; and if self-existent, it must from eternity to eternity be invested with powers sufficient for the maintenance and regulation of its own existence; so that not only the necessity, but perhaps even the possibility of a supreme Agent and wise Superintendant, acting upon nature, and animating or controlling her operations, is upon this hypothesis entirely superseded.

3 Self-existence implied in eternal being.

But from the beauty, symmetry, and order, of nature, and from the number of final causes pursued in her progress and accomplished in its results, Aristotle and his followers were too wise not to perceive, and too ingenuous not to acknowledge, the sacred vestiges, the conspicuous interpositions, of infinite wisdom, power, and goodness; hence his notion of an eternal world, though generally admitted among the sages of antiquity, was an incompatible or self-destructive opinion. The objections which have already been mentioned against a temporary creation, might perhaps be obviated, if not annihilated, were it our present business to enter deeply into the nature of space and time.

But this disquisition requires a boldness and abstraction of thought, in which we might probably be followed by few, and relished by fewer readers. Such, however, as have courage, sagacity, and perseverance, to penetrate and pursue these intricacies to their ultimate conclusions, will find their investigation cheered and enlightened by the philosophical essays of Dr Isaac Watts, and by the chevalier Ramsay's principles of natural and revealed religion. Veracity likewise obliges us to add, that the speculations of Mr Hume on this abstruse and arduous subject, had a greater tendency to dissipate its gloom than that philosopher himself could imagine.

4 The pre-existence of the soul taught by Asiatic sages.

The pre-existence of the human soul to its corporeal vehicle had been from time immemorial a prevailing opinion among the Asiatic sages, and from them was perhaps transferred by Pythagoras to the philosophy of the Greeks; but his metempsychosis, or transmigration of souls, is too trivial either to be seriously proposed or refuted. Nevertheless, from the sentiments of Socrates concerning the immortality of the soul, delivered in his last interview with his friends, it is obvious that the tenet of pre-existence was a doctrine of the Platonic school. If at any period of life, say these philosophers, you should examine a boy, of how many ideas, of what a number of principles, of what an extent of knowledge, will you find him possessed! these, without doubt, could neither be self-derived nor recently acquired. With what avidity and promptitude does he attain the knowledge of arts and sciences, which appear entirely new to him! these rapid and successful advances in knowledge can only be the effects of reminiscence, or of a fainter and more indistinct species of recollection. But in all the other operations of memory, we find retrospective impressions attending every object or idea which enterges to her view; nor does she ever suggest any thought, word, or action, without informing us, in a manner equally clear and evident, that those impressions have been made upon our senses, mind, or intellect, on some former occasion. Whoever contemplates her progress, will easily discover, that association is her most faithful and efficacious auxiliary; and that by joining impression with impression, idea with idea, circumstance with circumstance, in the order of time, of place, of similarity or dissimilarity, she is capacited to accumulate her treasures and enlarge her province even to an indefinite extent. But when intuitive principles, or simple conclusions, are elicited from the puerile understanding, by a train of easy questions properly arranged; where is the retrospective act of memory, by which the boy recognises those truths as having formerly been perceived in his mind? Where are the crowds of concomitant, antecedent, or subsequent ideas, with which those recollections ought naturally to have been attended? In a word, where is the sense of personal identity, which seems absolutely inseparable from every act of memory? This hypothesis, therefore, will not support pre-existence. After the Christian religion had been considerably diffused, and warmly combated by its philosophical antagonists, the same doctrine was resumed and taught at Alexandria, by Platonic proselytes, not only as a topic constituent of their master's philosophy, but as an answer to those formidable objections which had been deduced from the doctrine of original sin, and from the vices which stain, and from the calamities which disturb, human life: hence they strenuously asserted, that all the human race were either introduced to being prior to Adam, or pre-existent in his person; that they were not therefore represented by our first parents, but actually concurred in their crime, and participated their ruin.

5 The Socratic argument for pre-existence refuted.

6 Pre-existence revived by modern Platonists.

7 Pre-existence no solution of original sin.

The followers of Origen, and such as entertained the notion of pre-Adamites, might argue from the doctrine of pre-existence with some degree of plausibility. For the human beings introduced by them to the theatre of probation had already attained the capacity or dignity of moral agents; as their crime therefore was voluntary, their punishment might be just. But those who believe the whole human race created in Adam to be only pre-existent in their germs or stamina, were even deprived of this miserable subterfuge; for in these homunculi we can neither suppose the moral nor rational constitution unfolded. Since, therefore, their degeneracy

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racy was not ſpontaneous, neither could their ſufferings be equitable. Should it be ſaid that the evil of original ſin was penal, as it extended to our firſt parents alone, and merely conſequential as felt by their poſterity, it will be admitted that the diſtinction between penal and conſequential evil may be intelligible in human affairs, where other laws, aſſortments, and combinations than thoſe which are ſimply and purely moral, take place. But that a moral government, at one of the moſt cardinal periods of its adminiſtration, ſhould admit gratuitous or conſequential evil, ſeems to us irreconcileable with the attributes and conduct of a wiſe and juſt legiſlator. Conſequential evil taken as ſuch, is miſery ſuſtained without demerit; and cannot reſult from the procedure of wiſdom, benignity, and juſtice; but muſt flow from neceſſity, from ignorance, from cruelty, or from caprice, as its only poſſible ſources. But even upon the ſuppoſition of thoſe who pretend that man was mature in all his faculties before the commiſſion of original ſin, the objections againſt it will ſtill remain in full force. For it is admitted by all except the Samian ſage, that the conſciouſneſs of perſonal identity which was felt in pre-exiſtence, is obliterated in a ſubſequent ſtate of being.

Now it may be demanded, whether agents thus reſuſcited for puniſhment, have not the ſame right to murmur and complain as if they had been perfectly innocent, and only created for that dreadful cataſtrophe? It is upon this principle alone that the effects of puniſhment can be either exemplary or diſciplinary; for how is it poſſible, that the puniſhment of beings unconſcious of a crime, ſhould ever be reconciled either to the juſtice or beneficence of that intention with which their ſufferings are inflicted? or how can others be ſuppoſed to become wiſe and virtuous by the example of thoſe who are neither acquainted with the origin nor the tendency of their miſeries, but have every reaſon to think themſelves afflicted merely for the ſake of afflicting. To us it ſeems clear, that the nature and rationale of original ſin lie inſcrutibly retired in the boſom of Providence; nor can we, without unpardonable preſumption and arrogance, form the moſt ſimple concluſion, or attempt the minuteſt diſcovery, either different from or extraneous to the clear and obvious ſenſe of revelation. This ſenſe indeed may with propriety be extracted from the whole, or from one paſſage collated with another; but independent of it, as reaſon has no premiſſes, ſhe can form no deductions. The boldneſs and temerity of philoſophy, not ſatisfied with contemplating pre-exiſtence as merely relative to human nature, has dared to try how far it was compatible with the glorious Perſons of the ſacred Trinity. The Arians, who allowed the ſubordinate divinity of our Saviour, believed him pre-exiſtent to all time, and before all worlds; but the Socinians, who eſteemed his nature as well as his perſon merely human, inſiſted that before his incarnation he was only pre-exiſtent in the divine idea, not in nature or perſon. But when it is conſidered, that children do not begin to deduce inſtructions from nature and experience, at a period ſo late as we are apt to imagine; when it is admitted, that their progreſs, tho' inſenſible, may be much more rapid than we apprehend; when the opportunities of ſenſe, the ardour of curioſity, the avidity of memory, and the activity of underſtanding, are remarked; we need not have recourſe to a pre-exiſtent ſtate for our account of the knowledge which young minds diſcover. It may likewiſe be added, that moral agents can only be improved and cultivated by moral diſcipline. Such effects therefore of any ſtate, whether happy or miſerable, as are merely mechanical, may be noxious or ſalutary to the patient, but can never enter into any moral œconomy as parts of its own adminiſtration. Pre-exiſtence, therefore, whether rewarded or puniſhed, without the continued impreſſion of perſonal identity, affords no ſolution of original ſin.

Preface || Premium.

PREFACE, ſomething introductory to a book, to inform the reader of the deſign, method, &c. obſerved therein, and generally whatever is neceſſary to the underſtanding of a book.

PREFECT, in ancient Rome, one of the chief magiſtrates who governed in the abſence of the kings, conſuls, and emperors.

This power was greateſt under the emperors. His chief care was the government of the city, taking cognizance of all crimes committed therein and within 100 miles. He judged capitally and finally, and even preſided in the ſenate. He had the ſuperintendance of the proviſions, building, and navigation.

The prefect of modern Rome differs little from the ancient *præfectus*, his authority only extending to 40 miles round the city.

Prefect *of the Prætorium*, the leader of the prætorian bands deſtined for the emperor's guards, conſiſting, according to Dion, of 10,000 men. This officer, according to Suetonius, was inſtituted by Auguſtus, and uſually taken from among the knights.

By the favour of the emperors his power grew very conſiderable; to reduce which, Conſtantine divided the præfecture of the prætorium into four prefectures, and each of theſe again he ſubdivided into civil and military departments, though the name was only reſerved to him who was inveſted with the civil authority, and that of *comes belli* given him who commanded the cohorts.

PREGNANCY, the ſtate of a woman who has conceived, or is with child. See Midwifery.

PREJUDICE, does not mean a judgment merely as prior to another in reſpect of time, but as being paſſed before the things were duly conſidered and fully underſtood. Hence prejudice is ſometimes called *anticipation*, and a *preconceived opinion*.

PRELATE, an eccleſiaſtic raiſed to ſome eminent and ſuperior dignity in the church; as biſhops, archbiſhops, patriarchs, &c.

PRELIMINARY, in general, denotes ſomething to be examined and determined before an affair can be treated of to the purpoſe.

PRELUDE, in muſic, is uſually a flouriſh or irregular air, which a muſician plays off-hand, to try if his inſtrument be in tune, and ſo lead him into the piece to be played.

PREMISSES, in logic, an appellation given to the two firſt propoſitions of a ſyllogiſm. See Logic.

Premisses, in law, properly ſignifies the land, &c. mentioned in the beginning of a deed.

PREMIUM, or Præmium, properly ſignifies a reward or recompence; but it is chiefly uſed in a mercantile ſenſe for the ſum of money given to an inſurer whether of ſhips, houſes, lives, &c. See Insurance.

PRENOMEN,

Prenomen, Preparation

PRENOMEN, Prænomen, among the ancient Romans, a name prefixed to their family name, and answering to our Christian name: such are Caius, Lucius, Marcus, &c.

PREPARATION, in a general sense, the act of disposing things in such a manner as to render any foreseen event more advantageous or less hurtful according to its nature.

Preparation *of Dissonances*, in music, is their disposition in harmony in such a manner, that, by something congenial in what precedes, they may be rendered less harsh to the ear than they would be without that precaution: according to this definition, every discord ought to be prepared. But when, in order to prepare a dissonance, it is exacted that the sound which forms it should before have formed a consonance, then there is fundamentally but one single dissonance which is prepared, viz. the seventh. Nor is even this preparation necessary in the chord which contains the sensible note, because then the dissonance being characteristical, both in its chord and in its mode, the ear has sufficient reason to expect it: it accordingly does expect it, and recognise it; nor is either deceived with respect to its chord, nor its natural progress. But when the seventh is heard upon a fundamental sound which is not essential to the mode, it ought then to be prepared, in order to prevent all ambiguity; to prevent the ear, whilst listening to this note, from losing its train: and as this chord of the seventh may be inverted and combined in several different manners, from this arise likewise a number of different ways by which it may seem to be prepared, which, in the main, always issue however in the same thing.

In making use of dissonances three things are to be considered; viz. the chord which precedes the dissonance, that in which it is found, and that which is immediately subsequent to it. Preparation only respects the two first; for the third, see Resolution.

When we would regularly prepare a discord in order to arrive at its chord, we must choose such a career of the fundamental bass, that the sound which forms the dissonance may be a protraction into the perfect time of the same note which formed a consonance formerly struck in the imperfect in the preceding chord; this is what we call *syncopation*. See Sincopation.

From this preparation two advantages result; viz. 1. That there is necessarily an harmonical connection between the two chords, since that connection is formed by the dissonance itself; and, 2. That this dissonance, as it is nothing else but the continuation of the same sound which had formed a consonance, becomes much less harsh to the ear than it would have been with any sound recently struck. Now this is all that we expect to gain by preparation. See Cadence, Discord, and Harmony.

By what has been just said, it will appear that there is no other part peculiarly destined for preparing the dissonance, except that in which it is heard: so that if the treble shall exhibit a dissonance, that must be sincopated; but if the dissonance is in the bass, the bass must be sincopated. Though there is nothing here but what is quite simple, yet have masters of music miserably embroiled the whole matter.

Some dissonances may be found which are never prepared; such is the sixth superadded: some which are very unfrequently prepared; such is the diminished seventh.

Preparations, in pharmacy, the medicines when mixed togeiher in such a manner as to be fit for the use of the patient. See Pharmacy, Part II. chap. i.

Preparations, in anatomy, the parts of animal-bodies prepared and preserved for anatomical uses.

The manner of preserving anatomical preparations, is either by drying them thoroughly in the air, or putting them into a proper liquor.

In drying parts which are thick, when the weather is warm, care must be taken to prevent putrefaction, fly-blows, insects, &c. This is easily done by the use of a solution of corrosive sublimate in spirit of wine, in the proportion of two drams of sublimate to a pound of spirit: the part should be moistened with this liquor as it dries, and by this method the body of a child may be kept safe even in summer. Dried preparations are apt to crack and moulder away in keeping; to prevent this their surface should be covered with a thick varnish, repeated as often as occasion requires. *Edin. Med. Essays*, vol. ii. p. 8.

Though several parts prepared dry are useful, yet others must be so managed as to be always flexible, and nearer a natural state. The difficulty has been to find a proper liquor for this purpose. Dr Monro says, the best he knows is a well rectified colourless spirit of wine, to which is added a small quantity of the spirit of vitriol or nitre. When these are properly mixed, they neither change their colour nor the consistence of the parts, except where there are serous or mucous liquors contained in them. The brain, even of a young child, in this mixture grows so firm as to admit of gentle handling, as do also the vitreous and crystalline humours of the eye. The liquor of the sebaceous glands and the semen are coagulated by this spirituous mixture; and it heightens the red colour of the injection of the blood-vessels, so that after the part has been in it a little time, several vessels appear which were before invisible. If you will compare these effects with what Ruysch has said of his balsam, you will find the liquor above-mentioned to come very near to it.

The proportion of the two spirits must be changed according to the part prepared. For the brain and humours of the eye, you must put two drams of spirit of nitre to one pound of spirit of wine. In preserving other parts which are harder, 30 or 40 drops of the acid will be sufficient; a larger quantity will make bones flexible, and even dissolve them. The part thus preserved should be always kept covered with the liquor: therefore great care should be taken to stop the mouth of the glass with a waxed cork and a bladder tied over it, to prevent the evaporation of the spirit; some of which, notwithstanding all this care, will fly off; therefore fresh must be added as there is occasion. When the spirits change to a dark tincture, which will sometimes happen, they should be poured off, and fresh put in their room; but with somewhat less acid than at first.

The glasses which contain the preparations should be of the finest sort, and pretty thick; for through such the parts may be seen very distinctly, and of a true colour, and the object will be so magnified as to show vessels in the glass which out of it were not to be seen.

As the glafs when filled with the liquor has a certain focus, it is neceffary to keep the preparation at a proper diftance from the fides of it, which is eafily done by little ticks fuitably placed, or by fufpending it by a thread in a proper fituation. The operator fhould be cautious of putting his fingers in this liquor oftener than is abfolutely neceffary; becaufe it brings on a numbnefs on the fkin, which makes the fingers unfit for any nice operation. The beft remedy for this is to wafh them in water mixed with a few drops of oil of tartar per deliquium.

Dr Chirift. Jac. Trew prefers the rectified fpirit of grain for preferving antomical preparations to fpirit of wine, or to compofitions of alcohol, amber, camphor, &c. becaufe thefe foon change into a brown colour, whereas the fpirit from malt preferves its limpid appearance. When any part is to be preferved wet, wafh it with water till it is no more tinctured. The water is next to be wafhed away with fpirits, and then the preparation is to be put among fpirits in a glafs, the mouth of which is to be clofely covered with a glafs head, over which a wet bladder and leaf-tin are to be tied. *Com. Lit. Norimb.* 1731, *femeft.* 1. *fpecim.* 9.

PREPOSITION, in grammar, one of the parts of fpeech, being an indeclinable particle which yet ferves to govern the nouns that follow it; fuch as *per*, *pro*, *propter;* and through, for, with, &c.

F. Buffier allows it to be only a modificative of a part of fpeech, ferving to circumftantiate a noun.

PREPUCE, in anatomy, the forefkin; being a prolongation of the cutis of the penis, covering the glans. See ANATOMY, n° 371, q.

PREROGATIVE, an exclufive or peculiar privilege.

Royal PREROGATIVE, that fpecial pre-eminence which the king hath over and above all other perfons, and out of the ordinary courfe of the common law, in right of his regal dignity. It fignifies in its etymology (from *præ* and *rogo*) fomething that is required or demanded before, or in preference to, all others. And hence it follows, that it muft be in its nature fingular and eccentrical; that it can only be applied to thofe rights and capacities which the king enjoys alone in contradiftinction to others, and not to thofe which he enjoys in common with any of his fubjects: for if once any one prerogative of the crown could be held in common with the fubject, it would ceafe to be prerogative any longer. And therefore Finch lays it down as a maxim, that the prerogative is that law in cafe of the king, which is law in no cafe of the fubject.

Prerogatives are either *direct* or *incidental*. The *direct* are fuch pofitive fubftantial parts of the royal character and authority, as are rooted in, and fpring from, the king's political perfon, confidered merely by itfelf, without reference to any other extrinfic circumftance; as, the right of fending ambaffadors, of creating peers, and of making war or peace. But fuch prerogatives as are *incidental* bear always a relation to fomething elfe, diftinct from the king's perfon; and are indeed only exceptions, in favour of the crown, to thofe general rules that are eftablifhed for the reft of the community: fuch as, that no cofts fhall be recovered againft the king; that the king can never be a joint-tenant; and that his debt fhall be preferred before a debt to any of his fubjects.

Thefe fubftantive or direct prerogatives may again be divided into three kinds: being fuch as regard, firft, the king's royal *character*, or *dignity;* fecondly, his royal *authority* or *power;* and, laftly, his royal *income*. Thefe are neceffary, to fecure reverence to his perfon, obedience to his commands, and an affluent fupply for the ordinary expences of government; without all of which it is impoffible to maintain the executive power in due independence and vigour. Yet, in every branch of this large and extenfive dominion, our free conftitution has interpofed fuch feafonable checks and reftrictions, as may curb it from trampling on thofe liberties, which it was meant to fecure and eftablifh. The enormous weight of prerogative, if left to itfelf (as in arbitrary governments it is), fpreads havoc and deftruction among all the inferior movements: but, when balanced and bridled (as with us) by its proper counterpoife timely and judiciouffy applied, its operations are then equable and regular; it invigorates the whole machine, and enables every part to anfwer the end of its conftruction.

I. Of the royal *dignity*. Under every monarchical eftablifhment, it is neceffary to diftinguifh the prince from his fubjects, not only by the outward pomp and decorations of majefty, but alfo by afcribing to him certain qualities as inherent in his royal capacity, diftinct from and fuperior to thofe of any other individual in the nation. For though a philofophical mind will (fays Sir William Blackftone) confider the royal perfon merely as one man appointed by mutual confent to prefide over many others, and will pay him that reverence and duty which the principles of fociety demand; yet the mafs of mankind will be apt to grow infolent and refractory, if taught to confider their prince as a man of no greater perfection than themfelves. The law therefore afcribes to the king, in his high political character, not only large powers and emoluments, which form his prerogative and revenue, but likewife certain attributes of a great and tranfcendant nature; by which the people are led to confider him in the light of a fuperior being, and to pay him that awful refpect which may enable him with greater eafe to carry on the bufinefs of government. This is what we underftand by the royal dignity, the feveral branches of which we will now proceed to enumerate.

1. And, firft, the law afcribes to the king the attribute of *fovereignty*, or pre-eminency. See SOVEREIGNTY.

2. "The law alfo, (according to Sir William Blackftone) afcribes to the king, in his political capacity, abfolute *perfection*. 'The king can do no wrong.' Which ancient and fundamental maxim (fays he) is not to be underftood as if every thing tranfacted by the government was of courfe juft and lawful; but means only two things. Firft, that whatever is exceptionable in the conduct of public affairs is not to be imputed to the king, nor is he anfwerable for it perfonally to his people: for this doctrine would totally deftroy that conftitutional independence of the crown, which is neceffary for the balance of power, in our free and active, and therefore compounded, conftitution. And, fecondly, it means that the prerogative of the crown extends not to do any injury; it is created for the benefit of the people, and therefore can-

cannot be exerted to their prejudice.—" The king, moreover, (he obſerves), is not only incapable of *doing* wrong, but even of *thinking* wrong: he can never mean to do an improper thing: in him is no folly or weakneſs. And, therefore, if the crown ſhould be induced to grant any franchiſe or privilege to a ſubject contrary to reaſon, or in any wiſe prejudicial to the commonwealth or a private perſon, the law will not ſuppoſe the king to have meant either an unwiſe or an injurious action, but declares that the king was deceived in his grant; and thereupon ſuch grant is rendered void, merely upon the foundation of fraud and deception, either by or upon thoſe agents whom the crown has thought proper to employ. For the law will not caſt an imputation on that magiſtrate whom it entruſts with the executive power, as if he was capable of intentionally diſregarding his truſt: but attributes to mere impoſition (to which the moſt perfect of ſublunary beings muſt ſtill continue liable) thoſe little inadvertencies, which, if charged on the will of the prince, might leſſen him in the eyes of his ſubjects."

But this doctrine has been expoſed as ridiculous and abſurd, by Lord Abingdon, in his late *Dedication to the collective body of the people of England.* " Let us ſee (ſays he) how theſe maxims and their comments agree with the conſtitution, with nature, with reaſon, with common ſenſe, with experience, with fact, with precedent, and with Sir William Blackſtone himſelf; and whether, by the application of theſe rules of evidence thereto, it will not be found, that (from the want of attention to that important line of diſtinction which the conſtitution has drawn between the *king* of England and the *crown* of England) what was attributed to the *monarchy* has not been given to the *monarch*, what meant for the *kingſhip* conveyed to the *king*, what deſigned for the *thing* transferred to the *perſon*, what intended for *theory* applied to *practice;* and ſo in conſequence, that whilſt the premiſſes (of the perfection of the monarchy) be true, the concluſion (that the king can do no wrong) be not falſe.

" And firſt, in reference to the conſtitution: to which if this matter be applied (meaning what it expreſſes, and if it do not it is unworthy of notice), it is ſubverſive of a principle in the conſtitution, upon which the preſervation of the conſtitution depends; I mean the principle of *reſiſtance:* a principle which, whilſt no man will now venture to gainſay, Sir William Blackſtone himſelf admits, " *is juſtifiable to the perſon of the prince,* when the being of the ſtate is endangered, and the public voice proclaims ſuch reſiſtance neceſſary;" and thus, by ſuch admiſſion, both diſproves the maxim, and overſets his own comment thereupon: for to ſay that " the king can do no wrong," and that " he is incapable even of thinking wrong," and then to admit that " reſiſtance to his perſon is juſtifiable," are ſuch jarring contradictions in themſelves, that, until reconciled, the neceſſity of argument is ſuſpended.

" With reſpect then, in the next place, to the agreement of this maxim, and its comment, with nature, with reaſon, and with common ſenſe, I ſhould have thought myſelf ſufficiently juſtified in appealing to every man's own reflection for deciſion, if I had not been made to underſtand that nature, reaſon, and common ſenſe, had had nothing to do with either. Sir William Blackſtone ſays, ' That though a philoſophical mind will conſider the royal perſon merely as one man appointed by mutual conſent to preſide over others, and will pay him that reverence and duty which the principles of ſociety demand, yet the maſs of mankind will be apt to grow inſolent and refractory if taught to conſider their prince as a man of no greater perfection than themſelves; and therefore the law aſcribes to the king, in his high political character, certain attributes of a great and tranſcendent nature, by which the people are led to conſider him in the light of a ſuperior being, and to pay him that awful reſpect which may enable him with greater eaſe to carry on the buſineſs of government.' So that, in order to govern with greater eaſe, (which by the bye is mere aſſertion without any proof), it is neceſſary to deceive the maſs of mankind, by making them believe, not only what a philoſophical mind cannot believe, but what it is impoſſible for any mind to believe; and therefore, in the inveſtigation of this ſubject, according to Sir William, neither nature, reaſon, nor common ſenſe, can have any concern.——

" It remains to examine in how much this maxim and its comment agree with experience, with fact, with precedent, and with Sir William Blackſtone himſelf. And here it is matter of moſt curious ſpeculation, to obſerve a maxim laid down, and which is intended for a rule of government, not only without a ſingle caſe in ſupport of it, but with a ſtring of caſes, that may be carried back to Egbert the firſt monarch of England, in direct oppoſition to the doctrine. Who is the man, that, reading the paſt hiſtory of this country, will ſhow us any king that has done no wrong? Who is the reader that will not find, that all the wrongs and injuries which the free conſtitution of this country has hitherto ſuffered, have been ſolely derived from the arbitrary meaſures of our kings? And yet the maſs of mankind are to look upon the king as a ſuperior being; and the maxim, that " the king can do no wrong," is to remain as an article of belief. But, without puſhing this inquiry any further, let us ſee what encouragement Sir William Blackſtone himſelf has given us for our credulity. After ſtating the maxim, and preſenting us with a moſt lively picture, ' of our ſovereign lord thus *all perfect* and *immortal,*' what does he make this all-perfection and immortality in the end to come to? His words are theſe: " For when king Charles's deluded brother attempted *to enſlave* the nation,' *(no wrong this, to be ſure),* ' he found it was beyond his power: the people both *could,* and *did* reſiſt him; and in conſequence of ſuch reſiſtance obliged him to quit his enterprize and his throne together *."

The ſum of all is this: That the Crown of England and the King of England are diſtinguiſhable, and not ſynonymous terms: that allegiance is due *to the crown,* and through the crown *to the king:* that the attributes of the crown are ſovereignty, perfection, and perpetuity; but that it does not therefore follow, that the king can do no wrong. It is indeed to be admitted, that in high reſpect for the crown, high reſpect is alſo due to the wearer of that crown; that is, to the king: but the crown is to be preferred to the king, for the firſt veneration is due to the conſtitution. It is likewiſe *to be ſuppoſed,* that the king *will* do no wrong: and as, to prevent this, a privy council is appointed

* Comments vol. iv. p. 433.

Prerogative

pointed by the constitution to assist the king in the execution of the government; so if any wrong be done, 'these men,' as Montesquieu expresses it, 'may be examined and punished (A).'

"But if any future king shall think to screen these evil counsellors, from the just vengeance of the people, by becoming *his own minister*; and, in so doing, shall take for his sanction *the attribute of perfection*, shall trust to the deception of his being *a superior being*, and cloak himself under the maxim that *the king can do no wrong*; I say, in such a case, let the appeal already made to the constitution, to nature, to reason, to common sense, to experience, to fact, to precedent, and to Sir William Blackstone himself, suffice; and preclude the necessity of any further remarks from me (B)."

To proceed now to other particulars: The law determines, that in the king can be no negligence, or LACHES; and therefore no delay will bar his right. *Nullum tempus occurrit regi*, is the standing maxim upon all occasions: for the law intends that the king is always busied for the public good, and therefore has not leisure to assert his right within the times limited to subjects. In the king also can be no stain or corruption of blood: for if the heir to the crown were attainted of treason or felony, and afterwards the crown should descend to him, this would purge the attainder *ipso facto*. And therefore, when Henry VII. who as earl of Richmond stood attainted, came to the crown, it was not thought necessary to pass an act of parliament to reverse this attainder; because, as lord Bacon in his history of that prince informs us, it was agreed that the assumption of the crown had at once purged all attainders. Neither can the king in judgment of law, as king, ever be a minor or under age; and therefore his royal grants and assents to acts of parliament are good, though he has not in his natural capacity attained the legal age of 21. By a statute indeed, 28 Hen. VIII. c. 17. power was given to future kings to rescind and revoke all acts of parliament that should be made while they were under the age of 24: but this was repealed by the statute 1 Edw. VI. c. 11. so far as related to that prince, and both statutes are declared to be determined by 24 Geo. II. c. 24. It hath also been usually thought prudent, when the heir apparent has been very young, to appoint a protector, guardian, or regent, for a limited time: but the very necessity of such extraordinary provision is sufficient to demonstrate the truth of that maxim of common law, that in the king is no minority; and therefore he hath no legal guardian. See REGENT.

Blackst. Comment.

3. A third attribute of the king's majesty is his *perpetuity*. The law ascribes to him, in his political capacity, an absolute immortality. The king never dies. Henry, Edward, or George, may die; but the king survives them all. For, immediately upon the decease of the reigning prince in his natural capacity, his kingship or imperial dignity, by act of law, without any *interregnum* or interval, is vested at once in his heir; who is, *eo instanti*, king to all intents and purposes. And so tender is the law of supposing even a possibility of his death, that his natural dissolution is generally called his *demise*; *dimissio regis vel coronæ*: an expression which signifies merely a transfer of property; for, as is observed in Plowden, when we say the demise of the crown, we mean only, that, in consequence of the disunion of the king's body-natural from his body-politic, the kingdom is transferred or demised to his successor, and so the royal dignity remains perpetual. Thus too, when Edward the fourth, in the tenth year of his reign, was driven from his throne for a few months by the house of Lancaster, this temporary transfer of his dignity was denominated his *demise*; and all process was held to be discontinued, as upon a natural death of the king.

Prerogative

II. We are next to consider those branches of the royal prerogative, which invest this our sovereign lord with a number of *authorities* and *powers*; in the exertion whereof consists the executive part of government. This is wisely placed in a single hand by the British constitution, for the sake of unanimity, strength, and dispatch. Were it placed in many hands, it would be subject to many wills: many wills, if disunited and drawing different ways, create weakness in a government; and to unite those several wills, and reduce them to one, is a work of more time and delay than the exigencies of state will afford. The king of England is therefore not only the chief, but properly the sole, magistrate of the nation; all others acting by commission from, and in due subordination to, him: in like manner as, upon the great revolution in the Roman state, all the powers of the ancient magistracy of the commonwealth were concentred in the new emperor; so that, as Gravina expresses it, *in ejus unius persona veteris rei publicæ vis atque majestas per cumulatas magistratuum potestates exprimebatur*.

In the exertion of lawful prerogative the king is held to be absolute; that is, so far absolute, that there is no legal authority that can either delay or resist him. He may reject what bills, may make what treaties, may coin what money, may create what peers, may pardon what offences, he pleases: unless where

(A) Except the parliament, which is the great council of the nation, the judges, and the peers, who, being the hereditary counsellors of the crown, have not only a right, but are bound *in foro conscientiæ*, to advise the king for the public good, the constitution knows of no other counsel than the privy council. Any other council, like Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, Lauderdale, and, as the initial letters of these names express, is a CABAL, and as such should be suppressed. Nat. Bacon, speaking of the loss of power in the grand council of lords, says, "The sense of state once contracted into a privy-council, is soon recontracted into a cabinet-council, and last of all into a *favourite* or two; which many times brings damage to the public, and both *themselves* and *kings* into extreme *precipices*; partly for want of maturity, but principally through the providence of God over-ruling irregular courses to the hurt of such as walk in them." Pol. Disc. part 2. pag. 201.

(B) For experience, fact, and precedent, see the reigns of king John, Henry III. Edward II. Richard II. Char. I. and James II. See also *Mirror of Justices*; where it is said, "that this grand assembly (meaning the now parliament, or then Wittena-gemotte) is to confer the government of God's people, how they may be kept from sin, live in quiet, and have right done them, according to the customs and laws; and more especially *of wrong done by the king*, queen, or their children:" to which Nat. Bacon adds this note; "At this time *the king might do wrong*, &c. and so say Bracton and Fleta of the *kings* in their time." Disc. part 1. pag. 37. Lond. 1739.

Prerogative where the conſtitution hath expreſsly, or by evident conſequence, laid down ſome exception or boundary; declaring, that thus far the prerogative ſhall go and no farther. For otherwiſe the power of the crown would indeed be but a name and a ſhadow, inſufficient for the ends of government, if, where its juriſdiction is clearly eſtabliſhed and allowed, any man or body of men were permitted to diſobey it, in the ordinary courſe of law: we do not now ſpeak of thoſe *extraordinary* recourſes to the firſt principles, which are neceſſary when the contracts of ſociety are in danger of diſſolution, and the law proves too weak a defence againſt the violence of fraud or oppreſſion. And yet the want of attending to this obvious diſtinction has occaſioned theſe doctrines, of abſolute power in the prince and of national reſiſtance by the people, to be much miſunderſtood and perverted, by the advocates for ſlavery on the one hand, the demagogues of faction on the other. The former, obſerving the abſolute ſovereignty and tranſcendent dominion of the crown laid down (as it certainly is) moſt ſtrongly and emphatically in our law-books as well as our homilies, have denied that any caſe can be excepted from ſo general and poſitive a rule; forgetting how impoſſible it is, in any practical ſyſtem of laws, to point out beforehand thoſe eccentrical remedies, which the ſudden emergence of national diſtreſs may dictate, and which that alone can juſtify. On the other hand, over-zealous republicans, feeling the abſurdity of unlimited paſſive obedience, have fancifully (or ſometimes factiouſly) gone over to the other extreme: and, becauſe reſiſtance is juſtifiable to the perſon of the prince when the being of the ſtate is endangered, and the public voice proclaims ſuch reſiſtance neceſſary, they have therefore allowed to every individual the right of determining this expedience, and of employing private force to reſiſt even private oppreſſion. A doctrine productive of anarchy, and (in conſequence) equally fatal to civil liberty as tyranny itſelf. For civil liberty, rightly underſtood, conſiſts in protecting the rights of individuals by the united force of ſociety: ſociety cannot be maintained, and of courſe can exert no protection, without obedience to ſome ſovereign power; and obedience is an empty name, if every individual has a right to decide how far he himſelf ſhall obey.

Blackſt. Comment.

In the exertion, therefore, of thoſe prerogatives which the law has given him, the king is irreſiſtible and abſolute, according to the forms of the conſtitution. And yet, if the conſequence of that exertion be manifeſtly to the grievance or diſhonour of the kingdom, the parliament will call his adviſers to a juſt and ſevere account. For prerogative conſiſting (as Mr Locke has well defined it) in the diſcretionary power of acting for the public good where the poſitive laws are ſilent, if that diſcretionary power be abuſed to the public detriment, ſuch prerogative is exerted in an unconſtitutional manner. Thus the king may make a treaty with a foreign ſtate, which ſhall irrevocably bind the nation; and yet, when ſuch treaties have been judged pernicious, impeachments have purſued thoſe miniſters by whoſe agency or advice they were concluded.

The prerogatives of the crown (in the ſenſe under which we are now conſidering them) reſpect either this nation's intercourſe with foreign nations, or its own domeſtic government and civil polity.

With regard to *foreign concerns*, the king is the delegate or repreſentative of his people. It is impoſſible that the individuals of a ſtate, in their collective capacity, can tranſact the affairs of that ſtate with another community equally numerous as themſelves. Unanimity muſt be wanting to their meaſures, and ſtrength to the execution of their counſels. In the king therefore, as in a centre, all the rays of his people are united, and form by that union a conſiſtency, ſplendour, and power, that make him feared and reſpected by foreign potentates; who would ſcruple to enter into any engagement, that muſt afterwards be reviſed and ratified by a popular aſſembly. What is done by the royal authority, with regard to foreign powers, is the act of the whole nation: what is done without the king's concurrence, is the act only of private men. And ſo far is this point carried by our law, that it hath been held, that ſhould all the ſubjects of England make war with a king in league with the king of England, without the royal aſſent, ſuch war is no breach of the league. And, by the ſtatute 2 Hen. V. c. 6. any ſubject committing acts of hoſtility upon any nation in league with the king was declared to be guilty of high treaſon: and, though that act was repealed by the ſtatute 20 Hen. VI. c. 11. ſo far as relates to the making this offence high treaſon, yet ſtill it remains a very great offence againſt the law of nations, and puniſhable by our laws, either capitally or otherwiſe, according to the circumſtances of the caſe.

1. The king therefore, conſidered as the repreſentative of his people, has the ſole power of ſending ambaſſadors to foreign ſtates, and receiving ambaſſadors at home.

2. It is alſo the king's prerogative to make treaties, leagues, and alliances, with foreign ſtates and princes. For it is, by the law of nations, eſſential to the goodneſs of a league, that it be made by the ſovereign power; and then it is binding upon the whole community: and in Britain the ſovereign power *quoad hoc*, is veſted in the perſon of the king. Whatever contracts therefore he engages in, no other power in the kingdom can legally delay, reſiſt, or annul. And yet, leſt this plenitude of authority ſhould be abuſed to the detriment of the public, the conſtitution (as was hinted before) hath here interpoſed a check, by the means of parliamentary impeachment, for the puniſhment of ſuch miniſters as from criminal motives adviſe or conclude any treaty, which ſhall afterwards be judged to derogate from the honour and intereſt of the nation.

3. Upon the ſame principle the king has alſo the ſole prerogative of making war and peace. For it is held by all the writers on the law of nature and nations, that the right of making war, which by nature ſubſiſted in every individual, is given up by all private perſons that enter into ſociety, and is veſted in the ſovereign power: and this right is given up, not only by individuals, but even by the entire body of people that are under the dominion of a ſovereign. It would indeed be extremely improper, that any number of ſubjects ſhould have the power of binding the ſupreme magiſtrate, and putting him againſt his will in a ſtate of war. Whatever hoſtilities, therefore, may be com-

mitted by private citizens, the ſtate ought not to be affected thereby; unleſs that ſhould juſtify their proceedings, and thereby become partner in the guilt. And the reaſon which is given by Grotius, why, according to the law of nations, a denunciation of war ought always to precede the actual commencement of hoſtilities, is not ſo much that the enemy may be put upon his guard (which is matter rather of magnanimity than right), but that it may be certainly clear that the war is not undertaken by private perſons, but by the will of the whole community; whoſe right of willing is in this caſe transferred to the ſupreme magiſtrate by the fundamental laws of ſociety. So that, in order to make a war completely effectual, it is neceſſary with us in England that it be publicly declared and duly proclaimed by the king's authority; and then, all parts of both the contending nations, from the higheſt to the loweſt, are bound by it. And wherever the right reſides of beginning a national war, there alſo muſt reſide the right of ending it, or the power of making peace. And the ſame check of parliamentary impeachment, for improper or inglorious conduct, in beginning, conducting, or concluding a national war, is in general ſufficient to reſtrain the miniſters of the crown from a wanton or injurious exertion of this great prerogative.

4. But, as the delay of making war may ſometimes be detrimental to individuals who have ſuffered by depredations from foreign potentates, our laws have in ſome reſpects armed the ſubject with powers to impel the prerogative; by directing the miniſters of the crown to iſſue letters of marque and repriſal upon due demand: the prerogative of granting which is nearly related to, and plainly derived from, that other of making war; this being indeed only an incomplete ſtate of hoſtilities, and generally ending in a formal denunciation of war. Theſe letters are grantable, by the law of nations, whenever the ſubjects of one ſtate are oppreſſed and injured by thoſe of another, and juſtice is denied by that ſtate to which the oppreſſor belongs. In this caſe, letters of marque and repriſal (words in themſelves ſynonymous, and ſignifying a taking in return) may be obtained, in order to ſeize the bodies or goods of the ſubjects of the offending ſtate, until ſatisfaction be made, wherever they happen to be found. And indeed this cuſtom of repriſals ſeems dictated by nature herſelf; for which reaſon we find in the moſt ancient times very notable inſtances of it. But here the neceſſity is obvious of calling in the ſovereign power, to determine when repriſals may be made; elſe every private ſufferer would be a judge in his own cauſe. In purſuance of which principle, it is with us declared by the ſtatute 4 Hen. V. c. 7. that, if any ſubjects of the realm are oppreſſed in time of truce by any foreigners, the king will grant marque in due form to all that feel themſelves grieved. See MARQUE.

5. Upon exactly the ſame reaſon ſtands the prerogative of granting ſafe-conducts; without which, by the law of nations, no member of one ſociety has a right to intrude into another. And therefore Puffendorf very juſtly reſolves, that it is left in the power of all ſtates, to take ſuch meaſures about the admiſſion of ſtrangers as they think convenient; thoſe being ever excepted who are driven on the coaſts by neceſſity, or by any cauſe that deſerves pity or compaſſion. Great tenderneſs is ſhown by our laws, not only to foreigners in diſtreſs, (ſee WRECK), but with regard alſo to the admiſſion of ſtrangers who come ſpontaneouſly: for ſo long as their nation continues at peace with ours, and they themſelves behave peaceably, they are under the king's protection; though liable to be ſent home whenever the king ſees occaſion. But no ſubject of a nation at war with us can, by the law of nations, come into the realm, nor can travel himſelf upon the high ſeas, or ſend his goods and merchandize from one place to another, without danger of being ſeized by our ſubjects, unleſs he has letters of ſafe-conduct; which, by divers ancient ſtatutes, muſt be granted under the king's great ſeal and inrolled in chancery, or elſe are of no effect; the king being ſuppoſed the beſt judge of ſuch emergencies, as may deſerve exception from the general law of arms. But paſſports under the king's ſign-manual, or licences from his ambaſſadors abroad, are now more uſually obtained, and are allowed to be of equal validity.

Theſe are the principal prerogatives of the king reſpecting this nation's intercourſe with foreign nations; in all of which he is conſidered as the delegate or repreſentative of his people. But in domeſtic affairs, he is conſidered in a great variety of characters, and from thence there ariſes an abundant number of other prerogatives.

1°. He is a conſtituent part of the ſupreme legiſlative power; and, as ſuch, has the prerogative of rejecting ſuch proviſions in parliament, as he judges improper to be paſſed. The expediency of which conſtitution has before been evinced at large under the article PARLIAMENT. We ſhall only farther remark, that the king is not bound by any act of parliament, unleſs he be named therein by ſpecial and particular words. The moſt general words that can be deviſed ("any perſon or perſons, bodies politic, or corporate, &c.") affect not him in the leaſt, if they may tend to reſtrain or diminiſh any of his rights or intereſts. For it would be of moſt miſchievous conſequence to the public, if the ſtrength of the executive power were liable to be curtailed, without its own expreſs conſent, by conſtructions and implications of the ſubject. Yet, where an act of parliament is expreſsly made for the preſervation of public rights and the ſuppreſſion of public wrongs, and does not interfere with the eſtabliſhed rights of the crown, it is ſaid to be binding as well upon the king as upon the ſubject: and, likewiſe, the king may take the benefit of any particular act, though he be not eſpecially named.

2. The king is conſidered, in the next place, as the generaliſſimo, or the firſt in military command, within the kingdom. The great end of ſociety is to protect the weakneſs of individuals by the united ſtrength of the community; and the principal uſe of government is to direct that united ſtrength in the beſt and moſt effectual manner, to anſwer the end propoſed. Monarchical government is allowed to be the fitteſt of any for this purpoſe: it follows therefore, from the very end of its inſtitution, that in a monarchy the military power muſt be truſted in the hands of the prince.

In this capacity, therefore, of general of the kingdom, the king has the ſole power of raiſing and regula-

gulating fleets and armies. The manner in which they are raised and regulated, is explained under the article MILITARY *State*. We are now only to consider the prerogative of enlisting and of governing them: which indeed was disputed and claimed, contrary to all reason and precedent, by the long parliament of king Charles I.; but, upon the restoration of his son, was folemnly declared by the statute 13 Car. II. c. 6. to be in the king alone: for that the sole supreme government and command of the militia within all his majesty's realms and dominions, and of all forces by sea and land, and of all forts and places of strength, ever was and is the undoubted right of his majesty, and his royal predecessors, kings and queens of England; and that both or either house of parliament cannot, nor ought to, pretend to the same.

This statute, it is obvious to observe, extends not only to fleets and armies, but also to forts and other places of strength within the realm; the sole prerogative, as well of erecting, as manning and governing of which, belongs to the king in his capacity of general of the kingdom: and all lands were formerly subject to a tax, for building of castles wherever the king thought proper. This was one of the three things, from contributing to the performance of which no lands were exempted, and therefore called called by the Anglo-Saxons the *trinoda necessitas; sc. pontis reparatio, arcis constructio, et expeditio contra hostem.* And this they were called upon to do so often, that, as Sir Edward Coke from M. Paris assures us, there were in the time of Henry II. 1115 castles subsisting in England. The inconveniencies of which, when granted out to private subjects, the lordly barons of those times, were severely felt by the whole kingdom; for, as William of Newburgh remarks in the reign of king Stephen, *erant in Anglia quodammodo tot reges, vel potius tyranni, quot domini castellorum:* but it was felt by none more sensibly than by two succeeding princes, king John and king Henry III. And therefore, the greatest part of them being demolished in the barons' wars, the kings of after times have been very cautious of suffering them to be rebuilt in a fortified manner: and Sir Edward Coke lays it down, that no subject can build a castle, or house of strength imbattled, or other fortress defensible, without the licence of the king; for the danger which might ensue, if every man at his pleasure might do it.

It is partly upon the same, and partly upon a fiscal foundation, to secure his marine revenue, that the king has the prerogative of appointing *ports* and *havens*, or such places only, for persons and merchandize to pass into and out of the realm, as he in his wisdom sees proper. By the feodal law, all navigable rivers and havens were computed among the regalia, and were subject to the sovereign of the state. And in England it hath always been held, that the king is lord of the whole shore, and particularly is the guardian of the ports and havens, which are the inlets and gates of the realm: and therefore, so early as the reign of king John, we find ships seized by the king's officers for putting in at a place that was not a legal port. These legal ports were undoubtedly at first assigned by the crown; since to each of them a court of portmote is incident, the jurisdiction of which must flow from the royal authority: the *great ports* of the sea are also referred to, as well known and established, by statute 4 Hen. IV. c. 20. which prohibits the landing elsewhere under pain of confiscation: and the statute 1 Eliz. c. 11. recites, that the franchise of lading and discharging had been frequently granted by the crown.

But though the king had a power of granting the franchise of havens and ports, yet he had not the power of resumption, or of narrowing and confining their limits when once established; but any person had a right to load or discharge his merchandize in any part of the haven: whereby the revenue of the custom, was much impaired and diminished, by fraudulent landings in obscure and private corners. This occasioned the statutes of 1 Eliz. c. 11. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 14. which enable the crown by commission, to ascertain the limits of all ports, and to assign proper wharfs and quays in each port, for the exclusive landing and loading of merchandise.

The erection of beacons, light-houses, and sea-marks, is also a branch of the royal prerogative: whereof the first was anciently used in order to alarm the country, in case of the approach of an enemy; and all of them are signally useful in guiding and preserving vessels at sea by night as well as by day. See BEACON.

3°. Another capacity in which the king is considered in domestic affairs, is as the fountain of justice and general conservator of the peace of the kingdom. See the article JUSTICE.

4°. The king is likewise the fountain of honour, of office, and of privilege: and this in a different sense from that wherein he is stiled the *fountain of justice;* for here he is really the parent of them. See the articles JUSTICE and HONOUR.

5°. Another light, in which the laws of England consider the king with regard to domestic concerns, is as the arbiter of commerce. By commerce, we at present mean domestic commerce only; the king's prerogative with regard to which, will fall principally under the articles MARTS, WEIGHTS *and Measures*, and MONEY.

6°. The king is, lastly, considered by the laws of England as the head and supreme governor of the national church.

To enter into the reasons upon which this prerogative is founded is matter rather of divinity than of law. We shall therefore only observe, that by statute 26 Hen. VIII. c. 1. (reciting that the king's majesty justly and rightfully is and ought to be the supreme head of the church of England; and so had been recognised by the clergy of that kingdom in their convocation) it is enacted, that the king shall be reputed the only supreme head in earth of the church of England; and shall have, annexed to the imperial crown of this realm, as well the title and stile thereof, as all jurisdictions, authorities, and commodities, to the said dignity of supreme head of the church appertaining. And another statute to the same purport was made, 1 Eliz. c. 1.

In virtue of this authority the king convenes, prorogues, restrains, regulates, and dissolves, all ecclesiastical synods or convocations. This was an inherent prerogative of the crown long before the time of H. VIII. as appears by the statute 8 Hen. VI. c. 1. and the

Prerogative || Presburg.

many authors, both lawyers and historians, vouched by Sir Edward Coke. So that the stat. 25 Hen. VIII. c. 19. which restrains the convocation from making or putting in execution any canons repugnant to the king's prerogative, or the laws, customs, and statutes of the realm, was merely declaratory of the old common law: that part of it only being new, which makes the king's royal assent actually necessary to the validity of every canon. The convocation or ecclesiastical synod, in England, differs considerably in its constitution from the synods of other Christian kingdoms: those consisting wholly of bishops; whereas in England the convocation is the miniature of a parliament, wherein the archbishop presides with regal state; the upper house of bishops represents the house of lords; and the lower house, composed of representatives of the several dioceses at large, and of each particular chapter therein, resembles the house of commons with its knights of the shire and burgesses. This constitution is said to be owing to the policy of Edward I. who thereby at one and the same time let in the inferior clergy to the privileges of forming ecclesiastical canons (which before they had not), and also introduced a method of taxing ecclesiastical benefices, by consent of convocation.

From this prerogative also, of being the head of the church, arises the king's right of nomination to vacant bishoprics, and certain other ecclesiastical preferments.

As head of the church, the king is likewise the *dernier resort* in all ecclesiastical causes; an appeal lying ultimately to him in chancery from the sentence of every ecclesiastical judge: which right was restored to the crown by statute 25 Hen. VIII. c. 19.

III. The king's fiscal prerogatives, or such as regard his revenue. See the article REVENUE.

PREROGATIVE-*Court*, an English court established for the trial of all testamentary causes, where the deceased hath left *bona notabilia* within two different dioceses. In which case the probate of wills belongs to the archbishop of the province, by way of special prerogative. And all causes relating to the wills, administrations, or legacies of such persons, are originally cognizable herein, before a judge appointed by the archbishop, called the *judge of the prerogative court*; from whom an appeal lies by statute 25 Hen. VIII. c. 19. to the king in chancery, instead of the pope as formerly.

PRESAGE, in antiquity, denotes an augury, or sign of some future event; which was chiefly taken from the flight of birds, the entrails of victims, &c. See AUGURY and ARUSPICES.

PRESBURG, the capital of the kingdom of Lower Hungary, called by the inhabitants *Posony* and *Presporen*, situated on the Danube, about 46 miles east from Vienna, and 75 from Buda. The castle, in which the regalia are kept, stands on a hill above the town. Here the states assemble; and in the cathedral, dedicated to St Martin, the king is crowned. The town is not very large, nor well built; but is very ancient, pleasantly situated, and enjoys a good air. Its fortifications are only a double wall and ditch. In the lower suburbs is a hill, where the king, after his coronation, goes on horseback, and brandishes St Stephen's sword towards the four cardinal points, intimating, that he will defend his country against all its enemies. Besides the cathedral, there are several other Popish and one Lutheran church, with a Jesuits college, three convents, and two hospitals. It gives name to a county; and is the residence of the archbishop of Gran, who is primate, chief secretary, and chancellor of the kingdom, *legatus natus* of the Papal see, and prince of the holy Roman empire. E. Long. 17. 30. N. Lat. 48 20.

Presbytæ || Presbyterians.

PRESBYTÆ, persons whose eyes are too flat to refract the rays sufficiently, so that unless the object is at some distance, the rays coming from it will pass through the retina before their union, consequently vision is confused; old people are usually the subjects of this disease. In order to remedy, or at least to palliate this defect, the person should first use glasses which do not magnify, and from them pass gradually to more convex spectacles, which shorten the focus.

PRESBYTER, in the primitive Christian church, an elder, one of the second order of ecclesiastics; the other two being bishops and deacons. See the articles BISHOP and DEACON.

Presbyter, or elder, is a word borrowed from the Greek translation of the Old Testament, where it commonly signifies ruler or governor; it being a note of office and dignity, not of age, and in this sense bishops are sometimes called *presbyters* in the New Testament. The presbyters might baptize, preach, consecrate, and administer the eucharist in the bishop's absence, or in his presence if he authorised and deputed them; and the bishops did scarce any thing in the government of the church without their advice, consent, and amicable concurrence.

The grand difpute between the followers of the Geneva and Roman discipline, is about the sameness and difference of presbyters and bishops at the time of the apostles.

PRESBYTERIANS, a sect of Protestants, so called from their maintaining that the government of the church appointed in the New Testament was by presbyteries; that is, by ministers and ruling-elders, associated for its government and discipline.

The presbyterians affirm, that there is no order in the church as established by Christ and his apostles, superior to that of presbyters; that all ministers being ambassadors of Christ, are equal by their commission; and that elder or presbyter, and bishop, are the same in name and office: for which they allege, Acts xx. 28, &c.

The only difference between them and the church of England, relates to discipline and church-government. Their highest assembly is a synod, which may be provincial, national, or œcumenical: and they allow of appeals from inferior to superior assemblies, according to Acts xv. 2, 6, 22, 23. The next assembly is composed of a number of ministers and elders, associated for governing the churches within certain bounds. This authority they found upon Acts xi. 30. Acts xv. 4, 6, &c. The lowest of their assemblies or presbyteries, consists of the minister and elders of a congregation, who have power to cite before them any member, and to admonish, instruct, rebuke, and suspend him from the eucharist. They have also a deacon, whose office is to take care of the poor.

The ordination of their ministers is by prayer, fasting, and imposition of the hands of the presbytery. This is

Prescience || Presentation.

is now the discipline of the church of Scotland.

PRESCIENCE, in theology, provision, or foreknowledge; that knowledge which God has of things to come.—The doctrine of predestination is founded on the prescience of God, and on the supposition of all futurity's being present to him.

PRESCRIPTION, in medicine, is the assigning a proper and adequate remedy to the disease, from an examination of its symptoms, and an acquaintance with the virtues and effects of the materia medica.

Prescription, in law, is a title acquired by use and time, and allowed by law; as when a man claims any thing, because he, his ancestors, or they whose estate he hath, have had or used it all the time, whereof no memory is to the contrary: or it is where for continuance of time, *ultra memoriam hominis*, a particular person hath a particular right against another.

There is a difference between prescription, custom, and usage.

Prescription hath respect to a certain person, who *by intendment* may have continuance *for ever;* as for instance, he and all they *whose estate he hath* in such a thing, this is a prescription: but,

Custom is *local*, and always applied to a *certain* place; as, *time out of mind there has been such a custom in such a place*, &c. And *prescription* belongeth to *one* or a *few* only; but *custom* is common to *all*.

Usage differs from both, for it may be either to *persons* or *places;* as to *inhabitants of a town to have a way*, &c.

A custom and prescription are in the *right;* usage is in the *possession;* and a prescription that is good for the matter and substance, may be bad by the manner of setting it forth; but where that which is claimed *as a custom*, in or for many, will be good, *that* regularly will be so when claimed by *prescription* for one.

Prescription is to be *time out of mind;* though it is not the length of time that begets the right of prescription, nothing being done by time, although every thing is done in time; *but it is a presumption in law, that a thing cannot continue so long quiet, if it was against right, or injurious to another.*

PRESENCE, a term of relation, used in opposition to absence, and signifying the existence of a person in a certain place.

Present *Tense*, in grammar, the first tense of a verb, expressing the present time, or that something is now performing; as *scribo*, I write, or am writing.

PRESENTATION, in ecclesiastical law. See Patronage.

PRESENTMENT, in law. See Prosecution.

A presentment, generally taken, is a very comprehensive term; including not only *presentments* properly so called, but also inquisitions of office, and indictments by a grand jury. A presentment, properly speaking, is the notice taken by a grand jury of any offence from their own knowledge or observation, without any bill of indictment laid before them at the suit of the king: As the presentment of a nusance, a libel, and the like; upon which the officer of the court must afterwards frame an indictment, before the party presented can be put to answer it. An inquisition of office is the act of a jury, summoned by the proper officer to inquire of matters relating to the crown, upon evidence laid before them. Some of these are in themselves convictions, and cannot afterwards be traversed or denied; and therefore the inquest, or jury, ought to hear all that can be alleged on both sides. Of this nature are all inquisitions of *felo de se;* of flight in persons accused of felony; of deodands, and the like; and presentments of petty offences in the sheriff's tourn or court-leet, whereupon the presiding officer may set a fine. Other inquisitions may be afterwards traversed and examined; as particularly the coroner's inquisition of the death of a man, when it finds any one guilty of homicide; for in such cases the offender so presented must be arraigned upon this inquisition, and may dispute the truth of it; which brings it to a kind of indictment, the most usual and effectual means of prosecution. See Indictment.

Press, Pressing.

PRESS, in the mechanic arts, a machine of wood or iron, serving to squeeze any body very close, generally by means of a screw.

Presses usually consist of six pieces; two flat smooth planks, between which the things to be pressed are laid; two screws or worms fastened to the lower plank, and passing through two holes in the upper; and two nuts in form of an S, that serve to drive the upper plank, which is moveable, against the lower which is fixed.

Presses used for expressing liquors are in most respects the same with the common presses, only the under plank is perforated with a great number of holes for the juice to run through. Others have only one screw or arbor, passing through the middle of the moveable plank, which descends into a kind of square box, full of holes, through which the juices flow as the arbor is turned.

Printing-Press. } See Printing.
Rolling-Press. }

Liberty of the Press. See Liberty *of the Press*.

PRESSING, in the manufactures, is the violently squeezing a cloth, stuff, &c. to render it smooth and glossy.

There are two methods of pressing, viz. cold or hot.

As to the former, or cold pressing: After the stuff has been scoured, fulled, and shorn, it is folded square in equal plaits, and a skin of vellum or pasteboard put between each plait. Over the whole is laid a square wooden plank, and so put into the press; which is screwed down tight by means of a lever. After it has lain a sufficient time in the press, they take it out, removing the pasteboards, and lay it up to keep. Some only lay the stuff on a firm table after plaiting and pasteboarding, cover the whole with a wooden plank, and load it with a proper weight.

The method of pressing hot is this: When the stuff has received the above preparations, it is sprinkled a little with water, sometimes gum-water; then plaited equally, and between each two plaits are put leaves of pasteboard; and between every sixth and seventh plait, as well as over the whole, an iron or brass plate well heated in a kind of furnace. This done, it is laid upon the press, and forcibly screwed down. Under this press are laid five, six, &c. pieces at the same time, all furnished with their pasteboards and iron-plates. When the plates are well cooled, the stuffs are taken out and stitched a little together to keep them in the plaits. This manner of pressing was only invented to cover the defects of the stuffs; and, accordingly, it has been frequently

quently prohibited.

PRESSING, or *Impressing*. See IMPRESSING.

PREST, is used for a duty in money, to be paid by the sheriff on his account, in the exchequer, or for money left or remaining in his hands: 2 & 3 Edw. VI. c. 4.

PREST-*Money*, is so called from the French word *prest*, that is, *promptus, expeditus;* for that it binds those who receive it, to be ready at all times appointed, being commonly meant of soldiers.

PRESTER JOHN, or *Jean*, an appellation formerly given to an emperor of the Tartars who was overcome and killed by Jenghiz Khan. Since that time it has been given to the emperor of Abyssinia or Ethiopia; however, in Ethiopia itself this name is utterly unknown, the emperor being there called the *grand negus*.

PRESTO, in the Italian music, intimates to perform quick; as *prestissimo* does extremely quick.

PRESTON, a town of Lancashire in England, seated on the river Ribble, over which there is a handsome stone bridge. Here is held a court of chancery, and other offices of justice for the county palatine of Lancaster. It is noted for the defeat of the rebels here in 1715, when they were all made prisoners, and sent up to London. W. Long. 2. 26. N. Lat. 53. 45.

PRETERITE, in grammar, a tense which expresses the time past, or an action completely finished; as, *scripsi*, "I have written."

PRETEXT, a colour or motive, whether real or feigned, for doing something.

TOGA PRETEXTA, among the ancient Romans, a long white gown, with a border of purple round the edges, and worn by children of quality till the age of puberty, *viz.* by the boys till 17, when they changed it for the *toga virilis;* and by the girls till marriage.

PRETOR, a magistrate among the ancient Romans, not unlike our lord chief justices, or lord chancellor, or both in one; as being vested with the power of distributing justice among the citizens. At first there was only one pretor; but afterwards, another being created, the first or chief one had the title of *pretor urbanus*, or the "city pretor:" the other was called *peregrinus*, as being judge in all matters relating to foreigners. But, besides these, there were afterwards created many provincial pretors; who were not only judges, but also assisted the consuls in the government of the provinces, and even were invested with the government of provinces themselves.

PRETORIAN GUARDS, in Roman antiquity, were the emperor's guards, who at length were increased to 10,000: they had this denomination, according to some, from their being stationed at a place called *pretorium:* their commander was styled *præfectus prætorii*.

PRETORIUM, among the Romans, denoted the hall or court wherein the pretor lived, and wherein he administered justice.

It likewise denoted the tent of the Roman general, wherein councils of war, &c. were held: also a place in Rome, where the Pretorian guards were lodged.

PREVARICATION, in the civil law, is where the informer colludes with the defendants, and so makes only a sham prosecution.

PREVARICATION, in our laws, is when a man falsely seems to undertake a thing, with intention that he may destroy it; where a lawyer pleads booty, or acts by collusion, &c.

It also denotes a secret abuse committed in the exercise of a public office, or of a commission given by a private person.

PREVARICATOR, at Cambridge, is a master of arts, chosen at a commencement, to make an ingenious satirical speech reflecting on the misdemeanours of the principal members.

PRIAM, king of Troy, was the son of Laomedon. He was carried into Greece after the taking of that city by Hercules; but was afterwards randsomed, on which he obtained the name of *Priam*, a Greek word signifying "ransomed." At his return he rebuilt Ilium, and extended the bounds of the kingdom of Troy, which became very flourishing under his reign. He married Hecuba, the daughter of Cisseus king of Thrace, by whom he had 19 children; and among the rest Paris, who carried off Helen, and occasioned the ruin of Troy, which is supposed to have been sacked by the Greeks about 1184 B.C. when Priam was killed by Pyrrhus the son of Achilles at the foot of an altar where he had taken refuge, after a reign of 52 years.

PRIAPISMUS, a PRIAPISM, is an erection of the penis without any concomitant pain, or the consent of other parts. It is thus called, because the person in this state resembles the lewd god Priapus. Cœlius Aurelianus says it is a palsy of the seminal vessels, and other nerves distributed to the parts about the penis, by the distension of which this disorder is produced. It is of the same nature as the SATYRIASIS, which see.

PRIAPUS, in pagan worship, the son of Bacchus and Venus, who presided over gardens and the most indecent actions. He was particularly adored at Lampsacus, a city at mouth of the Hellespont, said to be the place of his birth; and his image was placed in gardens to defend them from thieves and birds destructive to fruit. He was usually represented naked, with a stern countenance, matted hair, and holding either a wooden sword or sickle in his hand, and with a monstrous privity; from whence downward his body ended in a shapeless trunk. The sacrifice offered to this obscene deity was the ass; either on account of the natural uncomeliness of this animal, and its propensity to venery, or from the disappointment which Priapus met with on his attempting the chastity of Vesta, while that goddess was asleep, when she escaped the injury designed her by her being awaked by the braying of old Silenus's ass.

PRIDEAUX (Humphrey), was born at Padstow in Cornwall in 1648, and was honourably descended by both parents. Three years he studied at Westminster under Dr Busby; and then was removed to Christchurch, Oxford. Here he published, in 1676, his *Marmora Oxoniensia ex Arundelianis, Seldenianis, aliisque conflata, cum perpetuo Commentario*. This introduced him to the Lord chancellor Finch, afterward Earl of Nottingham, who in 1679 presented him to the rectory of St Clements near Oxford, and in 1681 bestowed on him a prebend of Norwich. Some years after he was engaged in a controversy with the Papists at Norwich, concerning the validity of the orders of the church of England, which produced his book upon that subject. In 1688 he was installed in the archdeaconry of Suffolk;

folk; to which he was collated by Dr Lloyd, then bishop of Norwich. In 1691, upon the death of Dr Edward Pocock, the Hebrew professorship at Oxford, being vacant, was offered to Dr Prideaux, but he refused it. In 1697, he published his Life of Mahomet; and in 1702, was installed dean of Norwich. In 1710 he was cut for the stone, which interrupted his studies for more than a year. Some time after his return to London, he proceeded with his Connexion of the History of the Old and New Testament; which he had begun when he laid aside the design of writing the History of Appropriations. He died in 1724.

PRIEST, a person set apart for the performing of sacrifice and other offices of religion.

Priest, in the Christian church, is a person invested with holy orders; in virtue whereof he has a power to preach, pray, administer the sacraments, &c.

PRIMÆ viæ, among physicians, denote the whole alimentary duct; including the œsophagus, stomach, and intestines with their appendages.

PRIMAGE, in commerce, a small duty at the water-side, usually about 12d. *per* ton, or 6d. *per* bale, due to the master and mariners of a ship.

PRIMARY, first in dignity, chief, or principal.

Primary *Qualities of Bodies*. See Metaphysics, n° 31, 33, 34.

PRIMATE, in church-polity, an archbishop, who is invested with a jurisdiction over other bishops.

PRIMATICCIO (Francesco), an excellent Italian painter, descended from a noble family in Bologna. His friends perceiving his fondness for drawing, allowed him to go to Mantua, where he was six years the disciple of Julio Romano; in which time he acquired such skill, that he formed battles in stucco and basso relievo better than any other of his master's pupils in that city. When Francis I. king of France, sending to Rome for a person that understood painting and stucco, Primaticcio was chosen for this service: and the king had such confidence in him, that in 1540 he sent him to Rome to buy antiques; on which he brought back 180 statues, with a great number of busts. Upon the death of Rosso, he succeeded him in the post of superintendant of the public buildings; and in a short time finished the gallery begun by his predecessor. He brought so many statues of marble and brass to Fontainbleau, that it seemed another Rome, as well from the number of the antiques as from his own works in painting and stucco; and he was so esteemed in France, that nothing of any consequence was done without him, that had any relation to painting or building. He likewise directed the preparations for all festivals, tournaments, and masquerades; and lived in such splendor, that he was respected as a courtier, as well as a painter. Rosso and he first taught the French a good gusto. Primaticcio died in an advanced age, after being favoured and caressed in four reigns.

PRIME, primus, an appellation given to whatever is first in order, degree, or dignity, among several things of the same or like kind; thus we say, the prime minister, prime cost, &c.

Prime is sometimes used to denote the same with decimal, or the tenth part of an unit.

Prime-*Figure*, in geometry, one which cannot be divided into any other figures more simple than itself, as a triangle among planes, and the pyramid among solids.

For prime numbers, in arithmetic, see the article Number.

Prime *of the Moon*, is the new moon when she first appears, which is about three days after the change.

Prime *Vertical*, is that vertical circle which passes through the poles of the meridian, or the east and west points of the horizon; whence dials projected on the plane of this circle, are called *prime vertical*, or *north-and-south dials*.

Prime, in the Romish church, is the first of the canonical hours, succeeding to lauds.

Prime, in fencing, is the first of the chief guards. See Guard.

PRIMER seasin, in feodal law, was a feodal burden, only incident to the king's tenants *in capite*, and not to those who held of inferior or mesne lords. It was a right which the king had, when any of his tenants *in capite* died seized of a knight's fee, to receive of the heir (provided he were of full age) one whole year's profits of the lands if they were in immediate possession, and half a year's profits if the lands were in reversion expectant on an estate for life. This seems to be little more than an additional relief, (see Relief;) but grounded upon this feodal reason, That, by the ancient law of feuds, immediately upon the death of a vassal the superior was entitled to enter and take seisin or possession of the land, by way of protection against intruders, till the heir appeared to claim it, and receive investiture: and for the time the lord so held it, he was entitled to take the profits; and unless the heir claimed within a year and day, it was by the strict law a forfeiture. This practice however seems not to have long obtained in England, if ever, with regard to tenures under inferior lords; but, as to the king's tenures *in capite*, this *prima seisina* was expressly declared, under Hen. III. and Ed. II. to belong to the king by prerogative, in contradistinction to other lords. And the king was entitled to enter and receive the whole profits of the land, till livery was sued; which suit being commonly within a year and day next after the death of the tenant, therefore the king used to take at an average the *first-fruits*, that is to say, one year's profits of the land. And this afterwards gave a handle to the popes, who claimed to be feodal lords of the church, to claim in like manner from every clergyman in England the first year's profits of his benefice, by way of *primitiæ*, or first-fruits.—All the charges arising by primer seisin were taken away by 12 Car. II. c. 24.

PRIMING, in gunnery, the train of powder that is laid, from the opening of the vent, along the gutter or channel on the upper part of the breech of the gun; which, when fired, conveys the flame to the vent, by which it is further communicated to the charge, in order to fire the piece. This operation is only used on shipboard at the proof, and sometimes in garrison; for, on all other occasions, tubes are used for that purpose.

Priming-*Wire*, in gunnery, a sort of iron needle employed to penetrate the vent or touch-hole of a piece of ordnance, when it is loaded; in order to discover whether the powder contained therein is thoroughly

thoroughly dry and fit for immediate service; as likewise to search the vent and penetrate the cartridge, when the guns are not loaded with the loose powder.

PRIMING, among painters, signifies the laying on of the first colour.

PRIMOGENITURE, the right of the first-born. This right seems to be an unjust prerogative, and contrary to the natural right: for since it is birth alone that gives children a title to the paternal succession, the chance of primogeniture should not throw any inequality among them. It was not till the race of Hugh Capet, that the prerogative to the succession of the crown was appropriated to the first born. By the ancient custom of gavel-kind, still preserved in some parts of our island, primogeniture is of no account, the paternal estate being equally shared among the sons.

PRIMIPILUS, in antiquity, the centurion of the first cohort of a legion, who had the charge of the Roman eagle.

PRIMITIÆ, the first-fruits gathered of the earth, whereof the ancients made presents to the gods.

PRIMITIVE, in grammar, is a root or original word in a language, in contradistinction to *derivative*: thus, *God* is a primitive; *godly*, a derivative; and *god-like*, a compound.

PRIMULA, the PRIMROSE; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. This genus, including also the polyanthus and auricula, furnishes an excellent collection of low, fibrous-rooted, herbaceous flowery perennials.

1. The primula veris, or spring primrose, has thick, and very fibrous roots, crowned by a cluster of large oblong indented rough leaves, and numerous flower-stalks, from about three or four, to five or six inches high; each terminated commonly by one flower.—The varieties are, common yellow-flowered primrose of the woods—white primrose—paper-white—red—double red—double yellow, and double white.—All these flower abundantly in March and April, and continue for a month or six weeks.

The cowslip primrose, or cowslip, has very thick fibrous roots, crowned by a cluster of oblong, indented round leaves, and upright, firm, flower-stalks five or six inches high; terminated each by a cluster of small flowers. The varieties are, Common single yellow cowslip of the meadows—double yellow cowslip—scarlet cowslip—hose-and-hose cowslip; one flower growing out of the bosom of another, the lowermost serving as a calix; all of which varieties have the flower-stalks crowned by many flowers in branches.—They flower in April and May, continuing in succession a month or six weeks.

2. The polyanthus has thick fibrous roots, increasing into large bunches, crowned with a cluster of large oblong indented rough leaves; amidst them upright flower-stalks six or eight inches high, terminated mostly by a cluster of several spreading flowers of many different colours in the varieties. The principal are, purple, red, gold, orange-coloured, &c. They all flower beautifully in April and May, and frequently again in autumn; and sometimes even in winter, if the season is mild. The polyanthus is one of the noted prize-flowers among the florists; many of whom are remarkably industrious in raising a considerable variety of different sorts, as well as in using every art to blow them with all requisite perfection; for, among the virtuosi, a polyanthus must possess several peculiar properties in order to be admitted in their collections. The chief properties required in a florist's polyanthus are, 1. The stem or flower-stalk shall be upright, moderately tall, with strength in proportion, and crowned by a good regular bunch of flowers on short pedicles, strong enough to support them nearly in an upright position. 2. The florets of each branch should be equally large, spreading open flat, with the colours exquisite, and the stripes and variegations lively and regular. 3. The eye in the centre of each floret should be large, regular, and bright; and the antheræ, by the florists called the *thrum*, should rise high enough to cover the mouth of the tube or hollow part in the middle of the florets, and render them what they call *thrum-eyed*: but when the style elevates the stigma above the antheræ, the eye of the tube generally appears hollow, showing the stigma in the middle, like the head of a pin, and is rejected as an incomplete flower, though its other properties should be ever so perfect. This pin-eyed polyanthus, however, though rejected by the florists, is the flower in its most perfect state, and great numbers of them are of as beautiful forms and colours as the thrum-eyed varieties.

3. The auricula has a thick fibrous root, crowned by a cluster of oblong, fleshy, broad, serrated, smooth leaves, resembling the shape of a bear's ear; and amidst them upright flower-stalks from about three or four to six or eight inches high, terminated by an umbellate cluster of beautiful flowers, of many different colours in the varieties. All of these have a circular eye in the middle of each flower, and of which there are different colours, whence the auriculas are distinguished into yellow-eyed, white-eyed, &c. The petals of most of the kinds are powdered with an exceeding fine farina or mealy powder, which contributes greatly to the beauty of the flower. They all flower in April or May, continuing a month or six weeks in beauty, and ripening plenty of seeds in June.

Culture. All the varieties of the common spring primrose multiply so fast by the roots, that it is scarce worth while to raise them from seeds. However, tho' many single kinds may be raised from seed, yet parting the roots is the only method by which the double kind can be preserved; and the same thing is to be observed of all the rest,

PRIMUM MOBILE, in the Ptolemaic astronomy, the ninth or highest sphere of the heavens, whose centre is that of the world, and in comparison of which the earth is but a point. This they will have to contain all other spheres within it, and to give motion to them, turning itself, and all them, quite round in 24 hours.

PRINCE, PRINCEPS, in polity, a person invested with the supreme command of a state, independent of any superior.

PRINCE also denotes a person who is a sovereign in his own territories, yet holds of some other as his superior; such are the princes of Germany, who, tho' absolute in their respective principalities, are bound to the emperor in certain services.

PRINCE also denotes the issue of princes, or those of the royal family. In France, they are called *princes of*

Prince || Printing.

of the blood. In England the king's children are called *sons and daughters of England;* the eldest son is created prince of Wales; the cadets are created dukes or earls as the king pleases; and the title of all the children is *royal highness:* all subjects are to kneel, when admitted to kiss their hand, and at table out of the king's presence they are served on the knee. See ROYAL *Family.*

PRINCE *of the Senate*, in old Rome, the person who was called over first in the roll of senators, whenever it was renewed by the censors: he was always of consular and censorian dignity. See the article SENATE.

PRINCE'*s Metal*, a mixture of copper and zinc, in imitation of gold. See CHEMISTRY, nº 378.

PRINCIPAL, the chief and most necessary part of a thing.

In commerce, principal is the capital of a sum due or lent; so called in opposition to interest. See INTEREST.

It also denotes the first fund put by partners into a common stock, by which it is distinguished from the calls or accessions afterwards required.

PRINCIPAL, in music. See FUNDAMENTAL and GENERATOR.

PRINCIPATO, the name of a province of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, which is divided into two parts, called by the Italians the *Principato Ultra* and the *Principato Citra*, that is, the the Hither and Farther Principato. The Hither Principato is bounded on the north by the Farther Principato and part of the Terra-di-Lavoro, on the west and south by the Tuscan Sea, and on the east by the Basilicata. It is about 60 miles in length, and 30 in breadth; the soil is fertile in wine, corn, oil, and saffron; and they have a great deal of silk, besides several mineral springs. The capital town is Salerno. The Farther Principato is bounded on the north by the county of Molese and the Terra-di-Lavoro, on the west by the Tuscan Sea, on the south by the Hither Principato, and on the east by the Capitanata. It is about 37 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The Appennine mountains render the air cold; and the soil is not very fertile either in corn or wine, but it produces chesnuts, and pastures in great plenty. Benevento is the capital town.

PRINCIPLE, PRINCIPIUM, in general, is used for the cause, source, or origin of any thing.

PRINCIPLE, in human nature. See DISPOSITION.

PRINCIPLES, in physics, are often confounded with elements, or the first and simplest parts whereof natural bodies are compounded, and into which they are again resolvable by the force of fire.

PRINT, the impression taken from a copperplate. See *Rolling-press* PRINTING.

PRINTER, a person who composes and takes impressions from moveable characters ranged in order, by means of ink, and a press.

PRINTING, the art of taking impressions from characters or figures, moveable and immoveable, on paper, linen, silk, &c. There are three kinds of printing: the one from moveable letters, for books; another from copper-plates, for pictures; and the last from blocks, in which the representation of birds, flowers, &c. are cut, for printing calicoes, linen, &c. The first is called *common* or *letter-press* printing; the second, *rolling-press* printing; and the last, *calico*, &c. printing. The principal difference between the three consists in this, that the first is cast in relievo, in distinct pieces; the second engraven in creux; and the third cut in relievo, and generally stamped, by placing the block upon the materials to be printed, and striking upon the back of it. Printing.

LETTER-PRESS PRINTING. Of the above branches, this is the most curious, and deserves the most particular notice: for to it are owing chiefly our deliverance from ignorance and error, the progress of learning, the revival of the sciences, and numberless improvements in arts, which, without this noble invention, would have been either lost to mankind, or confined to the knowledge of a few.

History of PRINTING. Some writers have ascribed the origin of this art to the East, and affixed a very early period to its invention; particularly P. Jovius, (*Hist. lib.* xiv. *p.* 226. ed. Florent. 1550,) from whom Osorius and many others have embraced the same opinion. But these have evidently confounded the European mode of printing, with the *engraved tablets* which to this day are used in China. The invention of these tablets has been ascribed by many writers even to an earlier period than the commencement of the Christian æra; but is with more probability assigned, by the very accurate Phil. Couplet, to the year 930. The *Historia Sinensis* of Abdalla, written in Persic in 1317, speaks of it as an art in very common use. MEERMAN, vol. i. p. 16. 218, 219. vol. ii. p. 186. N.

The honour of having given rise to the European method has been claimed by the cities of Haerleim, Mentz, and Strasburg. And to each of these it may be ascribed in a qualified sense, as they made improvements upon one another.

I. The first testimony of the inventor is that recorded by Hadrian Junius, in his *Batavia*, p. 253, ed. Lugd. Bat. 1588; which, though it hath been rejected by many, is of undoubted authority. Junius had the relation from two reputable men; Nicolaus Galius (A), who was his schoolmaster; and Quirinius Talesius, his intimate and correspondent. He ascribes it to LAURENTIUS, the son of John (Ædituus, or Custos, of the cathedral at HARLEIM, at that time a respectable office), upon the testimony of Cornelius, some time a servant to Laurentius, and afterwards bookbinder to the cathedral, an office which had before been performed by Franciscan friars. His narrative was thus: "That, walking in a wood near the city (as the citizens of opulence use to do), he began at first to cut some letters upon the rind of a beach-tree; which, for fancy's sake, being impressed on paper, he printed one or two lines, as a specimen for his grand-children (the sons of his daughter) to follow. This having hap-

(A) Galius seems to be the same who is called *Claes Lottynsz. Gael*, Scabinus Harlemi, as it is in the Fasti of that city, in the years 1531, 1533, and 1535. Quirinius in the same Fasti is called *Mr Quiryn Dirkszoon.* He was many years amanuensis to the great Erasmus, as appears from his epistle, 23d July 1529. tom. iii. Oper. p. 1222. He was afterwards Scabinus in 1537 & seq. and Consul in 1552 & seq. But in the troubles of Holland he was cruelly killed by the Spanish soldiers, May 23, 1573. There are some letters of Hadrian Junius to this Talesius, in the *Epistolæ Junianæ*, p. 198.

Printing. happily succeeded, he meditated greater things (as he was a man of ingenuity and judgment); and first of all, with his son-in-law Thomas Peter (who, by the way, left three sons, who all attained the consular dignity), invented a more glutinous writing-ink, because he found the common ink sunk and spread; and then formed whole pages of wood, with letters cut upon them; of which fort I have seen some essays, in an anonymous work, printed only on one side, intituled, *Speculum nostræ salutis*; in which it is remarkable, that in the infancy of printing (as nothing is complete at its first invention) the back sides of the pages were pasted together, that they might not by their nakedness betray their deformity. These beachen letters he afterwards changed for leaden ones, and these again for a mixture of tin and lead [*stanneas*] as a less flexible and more solid and durable substance. Of the remains of which types, when they were turned to waste metal, those old wine-pots were cast, that are still preserved in the family-house, which looks into the market-place, inhabited afterwards by his great grandson Gerard Thomas, a gentleman of reputation; whom I mention for the honour of the family, and who died old a few years since. A new invention never fails to engage curiosity. And when a commodity never before seen excited purchasers, to the advantage of the inventor; the admiration of the art increased, dependents were enlarged, and workmen multiplied, the first calamitous incident! Among these was one John, whether, as we suspect, he had ominously the name of *Faustus* (B), unfaithful and unlucky to his master, or whether it was really a person of that name, I shall not much inquire; being unwilling to molest the silent shades, who suffer from a consciousness of their past actions in this life. This man, bound by oath to keep the secret of printing, when he thought he had learned the art of joining the letters, the method of casting the types, and other things of that nature, taking the most convenient time that was possible, on Christmas-eve, when every one was customarily employed in lustral sacrifices, seizes the collection of types, and all the implements his master had got together, and, with one accomplice, marches off to Amsterdam, thence to Cologn, and at last settled at Mentz, as at an asylum of security, where he might go to work with the tools he had stolen. It is certain, that in a year's time, viz. in 1442, the *Doctrinale* of Alexander Gallus, which was a grammar much used at that time, together with the *Tracts* of Peter of Spain, came forth there, from the same types as Laurentius had made use of at Harleim."

Thus far the narrative of Junius, which he had frequently heard from Nicolaus Galius; to whom it was related by Cornelius himself, who lived to a great age, and used to burst into tears upon reflecting on the less his master had sustained, not only in his substance, but in his honour, by the roguery of his servant, his former associate and bedfellow. Cornelius, as appears by the registers of Harleim cathedral, died either in 1515, or the beginning of the following year; so that he might very well give this information to Nicolaus Galius, who was school-master to Hadrian Junius. Printing.

Though this circumstance is probable as to the main fact, yet we must set aside the evidence of it in some particulars. 1. The first obvious difficulty is noticed by Scriverius; "that the types are said to be made of the *rind* of beach, which could not be strong enough to bear the impression of the press." Though this is removed, if, instead of the *bark*, we substitute a *bough* of the beach. The idea of the *bark*, when Junius wrote this, was perhaps strong in his mind, from what Virgil tells us (Ecl. v. 13.) of its being usual to cut words on the *bark* of a beach; and thence he was easily led to make a wrong application of it here. *Bowyer and Nichols's Origin of Printing.*

2. The letters were at first *wooden*, and are said to be afterwards exchanged for *metal* types; from which the wine-pots were formed, remaining in the time of Junius. According to tradition, printing was carried on in the same house long after the time of Laurentius: those pots might therefore be formed from the waste metal of the printing-house, after the use of *fusile types* became universal.—But Laurentius seems to have carried the art no farther than *separate wooden types*. What is a remarkable confirmation of this, Henry Spiechel, who wrote, in the 16th century, a Dutch poem intituled *Hertspiegel*, expresses himself thus: "Thou first, Laurentius, to supply the defect of wooden tablets, adapted*st wooden types*, and afterwards dist connect them with a thread, to imitate writing. A treacherous servant surreptitiously obtained the honour of the discovery. But truth itself, though destitute of common and wide-spread fame; Truth, I say, still remains." No mention in the poem of *metal types*; a circumstance which, had he been robbed of such, as well as of *wooden* ones, would scarcely have been passed over in silence.

When Laurentius first devised his rough specimen of the art, can only be guessed at. He died in 1440, after having published the *Speculum Belgicum*, and two editions of *Donatus*, all with different *wooden types*; which it is probable (considering the difficulties he had to encounter, and the many artists whom he must necessarily have had occasion to consult) cost him some years to execute; so that the first essay might be about 1430, which nearly agrees with Petrus Scriverius, who says the invention was about 10 or 12 years before 1440. See LAURENTIUS.

3. What was the specimen he first diverted himself with in cutting, at the distance of three centuries, one would think impossible to be discovered. And yet Joh. Enschedius, a printer, thinks he was so happy as to find it, being an old parchment *Horarium*, printed on both sides, in eight pages, containing the Letters of the Alphabet, the Lord's Prayer, the Apostles Creed, and three short prayers. And Mr Meerman having shown this to proper artists who were judges of these matters, they gave it as their opinion that it agreed exactly with the description of Junius. It is conformable to the first edition of the Dutch *Speculum Salvationis*, and the fragments of both *Donatus's* of Holland, both which are the works of the same Laurentius

(B) *John Faust*, or *Fust*, is by many supposed to have derived his name from *faustus*, "happy;" and Dr Faustus seems to carry an air of grandeur in the appellation: but very erroneously. *John Faust*, or *Fust*, is no more than *John Hand*, whence our name *Fist*,

Printing. rentius, and were preceded by this. In these types, which are certainly moveable, cut, and uneven, there is a rudeness which Mr Meerman has not observed in any other instances. There are no numbers to the pages, no signatures, no *direction-words*, no divisions at the end of the lines; on the contrary, a syllable divided in the middle is seen, thus, *Sp iritũ*, in p. 8. l. 2, 3. There are neither distinctions nor points, which are seen in the other works of Laurentius; and the letter *i* is not marked with an accent, but with a dot at the top. The lines throughout are uneven. The shape of the pages not always the same; not (as they should be) rectangular, but sometimes rhomb-like, sometimes an *isoscele trapezium*; and the performance seems to be left as a specimen both of his piety, and of his ingenuity in this essay of a new invented art. Mr Meerman has given an exact engraving of this singular curiosity.

But, whatever else may appear doubtful in the narrative of Junius, it is very clear, that the first essays of the art are to be attributed to Laurentius, who used only *separate wooden types*. See the article LAURENTIUS.

II. Some of Laurentius's types were stolen from him by one of his servants (c), *John* GEINSFLEICH *senior*; who fled therewith to MENTZ. Having introduced the art from Harleim into this his native city, he set with all diligence to carry it on; and published in 1442, ALEXANDRI GALLI *Doctrinale*, and PETRI HISPANI *Tractatus*; two works, which, being small, best suited his circumstances; and for which, being much used in the schools, he might reasonably expect a profitable sale. They were executed with *wooden types*, cut after the model of those he had stolen. Printing.

In 1443 he hired the house ZUM JUNGEN; and was assisted with money by FUST, a wealthy person, who in return had a share of the business: and about the same time *John Meidenbachius* was admitted a partner, as were some others whose names are not transmitted to our times; and in 1444 they were joined by GUTENBERG, who for that purpose quitted Strasburg. Wooden types being found not sufficiently durable, and not answering expectation in other respects, the two brothers first invented *cut metal types*. But while these were preparing, which must have been a work of time, several works were printed, both on *wooden separate*

(c) Authors differ as to the person who committed this robbery. It is clear from all accounts that his name was *John*; but what his surname was is the disputed point. Junius, after some hesitation, ascribes it to John Fust; but with injustice: for he was a wealthy man, who assisted the first printers at Mentz with money; and though he afterwards was proprietor of a printing-office, yet he never, as far as appears, performed any part of the business with his own hands, and consequently he could never have been a servant to Laurentius. Nor is the conjecture of Scriverius better founded, which fixes it upon John Gutenberg, who (as appears by authentic testimonies) resided at Strasburg from 1436 to 1444, and during all that period employed much fruitless labour and expence in endeavouring to attain this art. Mr Meerman once thought, "it might be either John Meidenbachius, (who, we are told by Seb. Munster and the author of *Chronographia Moguntinensis*, was an assistant to the first Mentz printers); or John Petersheimius (who was some time a servant to Fust and Schoeffer, and set up a printing-house at Francfort in 1459); or, lastly, some other person, who, being unable through poverty to carry on the business, discovered it to *Geinsfleich* at Mentz." But more authentic intelligence afterwards convinced him there were two persons of this name; and that John Geinsfleich senior * was the dishonest servant, who was born at Mentz, and who, in the papers published by Kohlerus, we find there in the year 1441, and not before: for though he was of a good family, yet was he poor, and seems to have been obliged, as well as his brother, to seek his livelihood in a foreign country; and perhaps was content to be under Laurentius, that, when he had learned the art, he might follow it in his own. But, to leave conjecture, we may produce some certain testimonies.

1. It is what Junius himself says, that the person who stole the types did it with a view to set up elsewhere; nor is it likely that he would either make no use of an art he had seen so profitable to Laurentius, or that he would teach it to another and submit to be again a servant.

2. The Lambeth Record (which is printed below, from Mr Atkyns) tells us, that "Mentz gained the art by the brother of one of the workmen of Harleim, who learned it at home of his brother, who after fet up for himself at Mentz."—By the strictest examination of the best authorities, it is plain that by these *two brothers* the two Geinsfleiches must be meant. But as the younger (*Gutenberg*) was never a servant to Laurentius, it must be the senior who carried off the types, and instructed his brother in the art; who first applied himself to the business at Strasburg, and afterwards joined his elder brother, who had in the mean time settled at Mentz.

What is still stronger, two chronologers of Strasburg, the one named *Dan Speklinus*, the other anonymous (in Meerman's *Documenta*, nº LXXXV, LXXXVI), tells us expressly, that John Geinsfleich (viz. the senior, whom they distinguish from Gutenberg), having learned the art by being servant to its *first inventor*, carried it by theft into Mentz his native country. They are right in the fact, though mistaken in the application of it; for they make Strasburg the place of the invention, and Mentelius the inventor, from whom the types were stolen. But this is plainly an error: for Geinsfleich lived at Mentz in 1441, as appears from undoubted testimonies; and could not be a servant to Mentelius, to whom the beforementioned writers ascribe the invention in 1440, tho' more ancient ones do not attempt to prove that he began to print before 1444 or 1447. Nor will the narrative agree better with Gutenberg, who was an earlier printer than Mentelius; since, among the evidences produced by him in his law-suit, 1439, no Geinsfleich senior appears, nor any other servant but Laurentius Beildek. The narration therefore of the theft of Geinsfleich, being spread by various reports through the world, and subsisting in the time of these chronologers, was applied by them (to serve the cause they wrote for) to Strasburg; but serves to confirm the truth, since no writer derives the printing spoils from any other country than Holland or Alsatia. The chronologers have likewise, instead of Fust, called Gutenberg the wealthy man; who, from all circumstances, appears to have been poor. They also call Schoeffer the son-in-law of Mentelius; when it is clear that he married the daughter of Fust.

* He was called *Geinsfleich* κατ' ἐξοχὴν; the other was distinguished by the name of *Guenther*. They were both poor; though of a family distinguished by knighthood. They were both married men; and were most most probably brothers, as it was not uncommon in that age for two brothers to have the same Christian name. These both appear in a disputable light. The elder robbed his mistress, with many aggravating circumstances: The younger was remarkably contentious; and, after entering into a contract of marriage with Anna, a noble girl of *The Iron Gate*, refused to marry her till compelled by a judicial decree; and afterwards cared not what became of the lady, but left her behind at Strasburg when he removed to Mentz. He had not only frequent quarrels with his wife; but with *Andrew Driseben*, *Andrew Heilmann*, and *John Rif*, all of whom were associated with him at Strasburg in his different employments of making of looking glasses, polishing of precious stones, and endeavouring to attain the art of printing; and with these he involved himself in three law-suits. See *Meerman*, vol. i. p. 163, &c. N.

Printing. *rate types* and on *wooden blocks;* which were well adapted to small books of frequent use, such as the *Tabula Alphabetica*, the *Catholicon*, *Donati Grammatica*, and the *Confessionalia*.

From the abovementioned printers in conjunction, after many smaller essays, the Bible was published in 1450, with *large cut metal types* (D). And it is no wonder, considering the immense labour this work cost, that it should be seven or eight years in completing. In this same year the partnership was dissolved, and a new one entered into, in August, between *Fust and Gutenberg;* the former supplying the money, the latter skill, for their common benefit. Various difficulties arising, occasioned a law-suit for the money which Fust had advanced; which was determined against Gutenberg. A dissolution of this partnership ensued in 1455; and in 1457 a magnificent edition of the Psalter was published by *Fust and Schoeffer*, with a remarkable commendation, in which they assumed to themselves the merit of a new invention, (viz. of *metal types*), *ad inventionem artificiosam imprimendi ac characterizandi*. This book was uncommonly elegant, and in some measure the work of Gutenberg; as it was four years in the press, and came out but 18 months after the partnership was dissolved between him and Fust.

The latter continued in possession of the printing-office: and *Gutenberg*, by the pecuniary assistance of Conrad Humery syndic of Mentz (E), and others, opened another office in the same city; whence appeared, in 1460, without the printer's name, the *Catholicon Jo. de Janua*, with a pompous colophon in praise of its beauty, and ascribing the honour of the invention to the city of Mentz. It was a very handsome book, though inferior to the Psalter which had been published in 1457 by Fust and Schoeffer. Both the Psalter and *Catholicon* were printed on *cut metal types* (F). It may not be improper to observe here, that as the Psalter is the earliest book which is known to have a genuine date, it became a common practice after that publication, for printers to claim their own performances, by adding their names to them.

III. The progress of the art has been thus traced thro' its *second* period, the invention of *cut metal types*. But the honour of completing the discovery is due to PETER SCHOEFFER (G) de Gernsheim. Printing.

A very clear account of this final completion of the types is preserved by Trithemius (H). *Post hæc inventis successerunt subtiliora, invenerunt que modum* fundendi formas *omnium Latini alphabeti literarum, quas ipsi* matrices *nominabant: ex quibus rursum æneos sive stanneos characteres fundebant, ad omnem pressuræ sufficientes, quos prius manibus sculpebant. Et revera sicuti* ante xxx ferme annos *ex ore. Petri Opilionis de Gernsheim, civis Moguntini, qui gener erat primi artis inventoris, audivi, magnam a primo inventionis suæ hæc ars impressoria habuit difficultatem.—Petrus autem memoratus Opilio, tunc famulus postea gener, sicut diximus, inventoris primi, Johannis Fust, homo ingeniosus et prudens, faciliorem modum* fundendi characteres *excogitavit, et artem, ut nunc est, complevit.*

Another ample testimony in favour of Schoeffer is given by Jo. Frid. Faustus af Aschaffenburg, from papers preserved in his family: "Peter Schoeffer of Gernsheim, perceiving his master Fust's design, and being himself ardently desirous to improve the art, found out (by the good providence of God) the method of cutting *(incidendi)* the characters in a *matrix*, that the letters might easily be singly *cast*, instead of being *cut*. He privately *cut matrices* for the whole alphabet; and when he showed his master the letters cast from these matrices, Fust was so pleased with the contrivance, that he promised Peter to give him his only daughter, Christina, in marriage; a promise which he soon after performed. But there were as many difficulties at first with these letters, as there had been before with *wooden* ones; the metal being too soft to support the force of the impression: but this defect was soon remedied, by mixing the metal with a substance which sufficiently hardened it (1)."

Fust and Schoeffer concealed this new improvement, by administering an oath of secrecy to all whom they intrusted, till the year 1462; when, by the dispersion of their servants into different countries, at the sacking of Mentz by the archbishop Adolphus, the invention was publicly divulged.

The first book printed with these *improved types* was *Durandi Rationale*, in 1459; at which time, however, they

(D) Many writers have supposed that this was the edition of which some copies were sold in France, by Fust, as manuscripts, for the great price of 500 or 600 crowns, which he afterwards lowered to 60, and at last to less than 40. But it was the second and more expensive edition of 1462, that was thus disposed of, when Fust went to Paris in 1466, and which had cost 4000 florins before the third *quaternion* (or quire of four sheets) was printed. MEERMAN, vol. I. p. 6. 151, 152.

(E) At death of Gutenberg, Conrad Humery took possession of all his printing materials; and engaged to the archbishop Adolphus, that he never would sell them to any one but a citizen of Mentz. They were, however, soon disposed of to Nicholas Bechtermuntze of Altavilla, who, in 1469, published *Vocabularium Latino-Teutonicum*, which was printed with the same types which had been used in the *Catholicon*. This very curious and scarce *Vocabulary* was shown to Mr Meerman, by Mr Bryant, in the duke of Marlborough's valuable library at Blenheim. It is in quarto, 35 lines long, contains many extracts from the *Catholicon*, and is called *Ex quo*, from the preface beginning with those words. MEERMAN, vol. II. p. 96.

(F) Gutenberg never used any other than either *wooden* or *cut metal types* till the year 1462. In 1465 he was admitted *inter Aulicos* by the elector Adolphus, with an annual pension; and died in February 1468. His elder brother Geinsflech died in 1462. Their epitaphs are printed by Mr Meerman, vol. II. p. 154, 295.

(G) In German, Schoeffer; in Latin, *Opilio*; in English, *Shepherd*.——He is supposed by Mr Meerman to have been the first engraver on copper-plates.

(H) *Annales Hirsaugiensis*, tom. ii. ad ann. 1450.—As this book was finished in 1514, and Trithemius tells us he had the narrative from Schoeffer himself about 30 years before; this will bring us back to 1484, when Schoeffer must have been advanced in years, and Trithemius about 22 years old, who died in 1516. See *Voss.* Hist. Lat. l. 1. c. 10. *Fabr.* Med. & Infim. Æt. l. 9.

(1) See *Meerman*, vol. I. p. 183. who copied this testimony from Wolfius, *Monument. Typograph.* vol. I. p. 468. seq.

Printing. they seem to have had only *one size* of *cast* letters, all the larger characters which occur being *cut types*, as appears plainly by an inspection of the book. From this time to 1466, Fust and Schoeffer continued to print a considerable number of books; particularly two famous editions of *Tully's Offices*. In their earliest books, they printed more copies on *vellum* than on *paper*, which was the case both of their *Bibles* and *Tully's Offices*. This, however, was soon inverted; and *paper* introduced for the greatest part of their impressions: a few only being printed on *vellum*, for curiosities, and for the purpose of being *illuminated*. How long Fust lived, is uncertain; but in 1471 we find Schoeffer was was in partnership with *Conrad Henlif* and a kinsman of his master Fust. He published many books after the death of his father-in-law; the last of which that can be discovered is a third edition of the *Psalter* in 1490, in which the old *cut* types of the first edition were used.

IV. With regard to the claim of STRASBURG: It has been already mentioned, that Gutenberg was engaged in that city in different employments; and, among others, in endeavouring to attain the art of printing. That these endeavours were unsuccessful, is plain from an authentic judicial decree of the senate of Strasburg in 1439, after the death of Andrew Drizehen (K).

But there are many other proofs that Gutenberg and his partners were never able to bring the art to perfection.

1. Wimphelingius *, the oldest writer in favour of Strasburg, tells us, that Gutenberg was the inventor of "a new art of writing," *ars impressoria*, which might also be called a *divine benefit*, and which he happily completed at Mentz; but does not mention one book of his printing: though he adds, that Mentelius printed many volumes correctly and beautifully, and acquired great wealth; whence we may conclude that he perfected what Gutenberg had in vain essayed.

2. Wimphelingius, in another book †, tells us, the art of printing was found out by Gutenberg *incomplete*; which implies, not that he practised the art in an imperfect manner (as Laurentius had done at Harleim), but rather that he had not been able to accomplish what he aimed at.

3. Gutenberg, when he left Strasburg in 1444 or the following year, and entered into partnership with Geinsfleich senior and others, had occasion for his brother's assistance to enable him to complete the art; which shows that his former attempts at Strasburg had been unsuccessful ‡.

4. These particulars are remarkably confirmed by Trithemius, who tells us, in two different places ||, that Gutenberg spent all his substance in quest of this art; and met with such insuperable difficulties, that, in despair, he had nearly given up all hopes of attaining it, till he was assisted by the liberality of Fust, and by his brother's skill, in the city of Mentz.

5. Ulric Zell says * the art was completed at Mentz; but that some books had been published in Holland earlier than in that city. Is it likely that Zell, who was a German, would have omitted to mention Strasburg, if it had preceded Mentz in printing?

There is little doubt therefore that all Gutenberg's labours at Strasburg amounted to no more than a fruitless attempt, which he was at last under the necessity of relinquishing: and there is no certain proof of a single book having been printed in that city till after the dispersion of the printers in 1462, when Mentelius and Eggestenius successfully pursued the business.

In fine, the pretensions of *Strasburg* fall evidently to be set aside. And as to the other two cities, *Harleim* and *Mentz*, the disputes between them seem easily cleared up, from the twofold invention of printing abovementioned: the first with *separate* WOODEN *types* at Harleim, by Laurentius, about 1430, and after continued by his family; the other with METAL *types*, first *cut*, and afterwards *cast*, which were invented at Mentz, but not used in Holland till brought thither Theodoric Martens at Alost about 1472.

From this period printing made a rapid progress in most of the principal towns of Europe. In 1490, it reached Constantinople; and, according to Mr Palmer, p. 281, &c. it was extended, by the middle of the next century, to Africa and America. It was introduced into Russia about 1560: but, from motives either of policy or superstition, it was speedily suppressed by the ruling powers; and, even under the present enlightened empress, has scarcely emerged from its obscurity.—That it was early practised in the inhospitable regions of Iceland, we have the respectable authority of Mr Bryant: "Arngrim Jonas was born amidst the snows of Iceland; yet as much prejudiced in favour of his country as those who are natives of an happier climate. This is visible in his *Crymogæa*; but more particularly in his *Anatome Blefkiniana*. I have in my possession this curious little treatise, written in Latin by him in his own country, and printed *Typis Holensibus in Islandiâ Boreali, anno* 1612. *Hela* is placed in some maps within the Arctic circle, and is certainly not far removed from it. I believe, it is the farthest north of any place, where arts and sciences have ever resided." *Observations and Inquiries relating to various parts of Ancient History*, 1767, p. 277.

Introduction of PRINTING *into* BRITAIN. It was a constant opinion, delivered down by our historians, as hath been observed by Dr Middleton, that the Art of Printing was introduced and first practised in England by *William Caxton*, a mercer and citizen of London; who, by his travels abroad, and a residence of many years in Holland, Flanders, and Germany, in the affairs

* *Epitome rerum Germanicarum*, ad Argent. 1505. Meerman, vol. i. p. 202. fol. ii. p. 139.

† *Catal. Episc. Argent.* 1508. Meerman, ut supra.

‡ Meerman, ut supra.

|| *Annal. Hirsaug.* ut supra, & *Chron. Spanheim.* See Meerman, vol. ii. p. 103. 127.

* *Chronicon Coloniæ*, 1499.

(K) Their first attempts were made about 1436, with *wooden types*. Mr Meerman is of opinion that Geinsfleich junior (who was of an enterprising genius, and had already engaged in a variety of projects) gained some little insight into the business by visiting his brother who was employed by Laurentius at Harleim, but not sufficient to enable him to practise it. It is certain, that, at the time of the law-suit in 1439, much money had been expended, without any profit having arisen; and the unfortunate Drizehen, in 1438, on his death-bed, lamented to his confessor, that he had been at great expence, without having been reimbursed a single *obelus*. Nor did Gutenberg (who persisted in his fruitless endeavours) reap any advantage from them; for, when he quitted Strasburg, he was overwhelmed in debt, and under a necessity of selling every thing he was in possession of. [MEERMAN, vol. I. p. 198—202.] All the depositions in the law-suit abovementioned (with the judicial decree) are printed by Mr Meerman, vol. II. p. 58—88. N.

Printing. fairs of trade, had an opportunity of informing himself of the whole method and process of the art; and by the encouragement of the great, and particularly of the abbot of Westminster, first set up a press in that abbey, and began to print books soon after the year 1471.

This was the tradition of our writers; till a book, which had scarce been observed before the Restoration, was then taken notice of by the curious, with a date of its impression from Oxford, anno 1468 and was considered immediately as a clear proof and monument of the exercise of printing in that university several years before Caxton began to deal in it.

This book, which is in the public library at Cambridge, is a small volume of 41 leaves in 4to, with this title: *Expoſicio Sancti Jeronimi in Simbolum Apoſtolorum ad Papam Laurentium:* and at the end, *Explicit expoſicio, &c. Impreſſa Oxonie, & finita Anno Domini* M.CCCC.LXVIII. XVII *die Decembris.*

The appearance of this book has robbed Caxton of a glory that he had long poſſeſſed, of being the author of printing to this kingdom; and Oxford ever ſince carried the honour of the firſt preſs. The only difficulty was, to account for the ſilence of hiſtory in an event ſo memorable, and the want of any memorial in the univerſity itſelf concerning the eſtabliſhment of a new art amongſt them of ſuch uſe and benefit to learning. But this likewiſe has been cleared up, by the diſcovery of a record, which had lain obſcure and unknown at Lambeth-houſe, in the Regiſter of the See of Canterbury; and gives a narrative of the whole tranſaction, drawn up at the very time.

An account of this record was firſt publiſhed in a thin quarto volume, in Engliſh; with this title: "The Original and Growth of Printing, collected out of Hiſtory and the Records of this Kingdome: wherein is alſo demonſtrated, that Printing appertaineth to the Prerogative Royal, and is a Flower of the Crown of England. By Richard Atkyns, eſq.—Whitehall, April the 25, 1664. By order and appointment of the right honourable Mr Secretary Morrice, let this be printed. Tho. Rycaut. London: Printed by John Streater, for the Author. 1664." 4to.

It ſets forth in ſhort, "That as ſoon as the art of printing made ſome noiſe in Europe, Thomas Bourchier, archbiſhop of Canterbury, moved the then king (Henry VI.) to uſe all poſſible means for procuring a printing-mold (for ſo it was there called) to be brought into this kingdom. The king (a good man, and much given to works of this nature) readily hearkened to the motion; and, taking private advice how to effect his deſign, concluded it could not be brought about without great ſecrecy, and a conſiderable ſum of money given to ſuch perſon or perſons as would draw off ſome of the workmen of Harleim in Holland, where John Guthenberg had newly invented it, and was himſelf perſonally at work. It was reſolved, that leſs than 1000 merks would not produce the deſired effect; towards which ſum the ſaid archbiſhop preſented the king 500 merks. The money being now prepared, the management of the deſign was committed to Mr Robert Turnour; who then was of the robes to the king, and a perſon moſt in favour with him of any of his condition. Mr Turnour took to his aſſiſtance Mr Caxton, a citizen of good abilities, who traded much into Holland; which was a creditable pretence, as well for his going, as ſtay in the Low Countries. Mr Turnour was in diſguiſe (his beard and hair ſhaven quite off); but Mr Caxton appeared known and public. They, having received the ſaid ſum of 1000 merks, went firſt to Amſterdam, then to Leyden, not daring to enter Harleim itſelf; for the town was very jealous, having impriſoned and apprehended divers perſons who came from other parts for the ſame purpoſe. They ſtaid till they had ſpent the whole thouſand merks in gifts and expences: ſo as the king was fain to ſend 500 merks more, Mr Turnour having written to the king that he had almoſt done his work; a bargain (as he ſaid) being ſtruck betwixt him and two Hollanders, for bringing-off one of the under-workmen, whoſe name was *Frederick Corſellis* (or rather *Corſellis*), who late one night ſtole from his fellows in diſguiſe into a veſſel prepared before for that purpoſe; and ſo, the wind favouring the deſign, brought him ſafe to London. It was not thought ſo prudent to ſet him on work at London: but, by the archbiſhop's means (who had been vice-chancellor and afterwards chancellor of the univerſity of Oxon) Corſellis was carried with a guard to Oxon; which guard conſtantly watched, to prevent Corſellis from any poſſible eſcape, till he had made good his promiſe in teaching them how to print. So that at Oxford printing was firſt ſet up in England, which was before there was any printing-preſs or printer in France, Spain, Italy, or Germany (except the city of Mentz), which claims ſeniority, as to printing, even of Harleim itſelf, calling her city, *Urbem Moguntinam artis typographicæ inventricem primam,* though it is known to be otherwiſe; that city gaining the art by the brother of one of the workmen of Harleim, who had learnt it at home of his brother, and after ſet up for himſelf at Mentz. This preſs at Oxon was at leaſt ten years before there was any printing in Europe, except at Harleim and Mentz, where it was but new-born. This preſs at Oxford was afterwards found inconvenient to be the ſole printing-place of England; as being too far from London and the ſea. Wherefore the king ſet up a preſs at St Alban's, and another in the city of Weſtminſter, where they printed ſeveral books of *divinity* and *phyſic: for the king* (for reaſons beſt known to himſelf and council) *permitted then no law-books to be printed;* nor did any printer exerciſe that art, but only ſuch as were the king's ſworn ſervants; *the king himſelf having the price and emolument for printing books.*—By this means the art grew ſo famous, that anno primo Rich. III. c. 9. when an act of parliament was made for reſtraint of aliens for uſing any handicrafts here (except as ſervants to natives), a ſpecial proviſo was inſerted, that ſtrangers might bring in printed or written books to ſell at their pleaſure, and exerciſe the art of printing here, notwithſtanding that act: ſo that in that ſpace of 40 or 50 years, by the indulgence of Edward IV. Edward V. Richard III. Henry VII. and Henry VIII. the Engliſh proved ſo good proficients in printing, and grew ſo numerous, as to furniſh the kingdom with books; and ſo ſkilful, as to print them as well as any beyond the ſeas; as appears by the act 25 Hen. VIII. c. 15. which abrogates the ſaid proviſo for that reaſon. And as it was further enacted in the ſaid ſtatute, that if any perſon bought foreign books bound, he ſhould pay 6s. 8d.

per

Printing. *per* book. And it was further provided and enacted, that in cafe the faid printers or fellers of books were unreafonable in their prices, they fhould be moderated by the lord chancellor, lord treafurer, the two lords chief juftices, or any two of them; who alfo had power to fine them 3s. 4d. for every book whofe price fhould be enhanced.—But when they were by charter corporated with *bookbinders*, *bookfellers*, and *founders of letters*, 3 & 4 Philip and Mary, and called *The Company of Stationers*—they kickt againft the power that gave them life, &c.—Queen Elifabeth, the firft year of her reign, grants by patent *the privilege of fole printing all books that touch or concern the common laws of England*, to Tottel a fervant to her majefty, who kept it entire to his death; after him, to one Yeft Weirt, another fervant to her majefty; after him, to Weight and Norton; and after them, king James grants the fame privilege to More, one of the fignet; which grant continues to this day, &c."

From the authority of this record, all our later writers declare Corfellis to be the firft printer in England; Mr Anthony Wood, the learned Mr Maittaire, Palmer, and one John Bagford, an induftrious man, who had publifhed propofals for an Hiftory of Printing, (Phil. Tranf. for April 1707). But Dr Middleton has called in queftion the authenticity of this account, and has urged feveral objections to it, with the view of fupporting Caxton's title to the precedency with refpect to the introduction of the art into this country; of which we fhall quote one or two, with the anfwers that have been made to them.

Objection 1. "The filence of Caxton, concerning a fact in which he is faid to be a principal actor, is a fufficient confutation of it: for it was a conftant cuftom with him, in the prefaces or conclufions of his works, to give an hiftorical account of all his labours and tranfactions, as far as they concerned the publifhing and printing of books. And, what is ftill ftronger, in the continuation of the Polychronicon, compiled by himfelf, and carried down to the end of Henry the fixth's reign, he makes no mention of the expedition in queft of a printer: which he could not have omitted, had it been true; whilft in the fame book he takes notice of the invention and beginning of printing in the city of Mentz."

Anfwer. As Caxton makes no mention in his Polychronicon of his *expedition in queft of a printer*; fo neither does he of his *bringing the art into England*, which it is as much a wonder he fhould omit as the other. And as to his faying that *the invention of printing was at Mentz*, he means, of printing on *fiftile* feparate types. In this he copies, as many others have, from the *Fafciculus Temporum*; a work written in 1470, by Wernerus Rolevinch de Laer, a Carthufian monk, a MS. copy of which was in the library of Gerard Jo. Voffius (fee lib. iii. *de Hiftor. Latin.* c. 6.); and afterwards continued to the year 1474, when it was firft printed at Cologn *typis Arnoldi ter Huernen*. It was republifhed in 1481 by Heinricus Wirczburg de Vach, a Cluniac monk, without mentioning the name either of the printer or of the place of publication. It is plain that Caxton had one at leaft, or more probably both, of thefe editions before him, when he wrote his continuation of Polychronicon, as he mentions this work in his preface, and adopts the fentiments of its editor. (See MEERMAN, vol. ii. p. 37. and his *Documenta*, N° VII. XXIV. and XXV.) Printing.

Obj. 2. "There is a farther circumftance in Caxton's hiftory, that it feems inconfiftent with the record; for we find him ftill beyond fea, about twelve years after the fuppofed tranfactions, "learning with great charge and trouble the art of printing" (*Recule of the Hiftories of Troye*, in the end of the 2d and 3d books); which he might have done with eafe at home, if he had got Corfellis into his hands, as the record imports, fo many years before: but he probably learnt it at Cologn, where he refided in 1471, (*Recule*, &c. ibid.), and whence books had been firft printed with date, the year before."

Anf. Caxton tells us, in the preface to *The Hiftory of Troye*, that he began that tranflation March 1. 1468, at Bruges; that he proceeded on with it at Ghent; that he finifhed it at Cologn in 1471; and printed it, probably, in that city with is own types. He was 30 years abroad, chiefly in Holand; and lived in the court of Margaret dutchefs of Burgundy, fifter of our Edward IV. It was therefore much eafier to print his book at Cologn, than to crofs the fea to learn the art at Oxford. But further, there was a fpecial occafion for his printing it abroad. Corfellis had brought over fo far the art of printing as he had learnt it at Harleim, which was the method of printing on *wooden feparate* types, having the face of the letter cut upon them. But the art of *cafting* metal types being divulged in 1462 by the workmen of Mentz, Caxton thought proper to learn that advantageous branch before he returned to England. This method of cafting the types was fuch an improvement, that they looked on it as the *original* of printing; and Caxton, as moft others do, afcribes that to *Mentz*.—Caxton was an affiftant with Turner in getting off *Corfellis*; but it is nowhere fuppofed that he came with him into *England*. (See MEERMAN, vol. ii. p. 34. B.)

Obj. 3. "As the Lambeth record was *never heard of before the publication of Atkins's book*, fo it has never fince been feen or produced by any man; though the regifters of Canterbury have on many occafions been diligently and particularly fearched for it. They were examined, without doubt, very carefully by archbifhop Parker, for the compiling his *Antiquities of the Britifh Church*; where, in the life of Thomas Bourchier, though he congratulates that age on the noble and ufeful invention of printing, yet he is filent as to the introduction of it into England by the endeavours of that archbifhop: nay, his giving the honour of the invention to Strafburg clearly fhows that he knew nothing of the ftory of Corfellis conveyed from Harleim, and that the record was not in being in his time. Palmer himfelf owns, "That it is not to be found there now; for that the late earl of Pembroke affured him, that he had employed a perfon for fome time to fearch for it, but in vain:" (*Hift. of Printing*, p. 314.) On thefe grounds we may pronounce the record to be a forgery; though all the writers above-mentioned take pains to fupport its credit, and call it *an authentic piece*.

Atkins, who by his manner of writing feems to have been *a bold and vain man*, might poffibly be *the inventor*: for he had an intereft in impoffing it upon the world, in order to confirm the argument of his book, that *printing was of the prerogative royal*; in oppofition

opposition to the *company of stationers*, with whom he was engaged in an expensive suit of law, in defence of of the *king's patents*, under which he claimed *some exclusive powers of printing*. For he tells us, p. 3. 'That, upon considerating the thing, he could not but think that a public person, more eminent than a mercer, and a public purse, must needs be concerned in so public a good: and the more he considered, the more inquisitive he was to find out the truth. So that he had formed his hypothesis before he had found his record; which he published, he says, as a friend to truth; not to suffer one man to be entitled to the worthy atchievements of another; and as a friend to himself, not to lose one of his best arguments of entitling the king to this art.' But, if Atkins was not himself the contriver, he was imposed upon at least by some more crafty; who imagined that his interest in the cause, and the warmth that he showed in prosecuting it, would induce him to swallow for genuine whatever was offered of the kind."

Ans. On the other hand, is it likely that Mr Atkins would dare to *forge* a record, to be laid before the king and council, and which his adversaries, with whom he was at law, could disprove?—(2.) He says he received this history from a person of honour, who was some time keeper of the Lambeth Library. It was easy to have confuted this evidence, if it was false, when he published it, April 25. 1664.—(3.) John Bagford (who was born in England 1651, and might know Mr Atkins, who died in 1677), in his History of Printing at Oxford, blames those who doubted of the authenticity of the Lambeth MS.; and tells us that he knew Sir John Birkenhead had an authentic copy of it, when in 1665 [which Bagford by some mistake calls 1664, and is followed in it by Meerman] he was appointed by the house of commons to draw up a bill relating to the exercise of that art. This is confirmed by the Journals of that house, Friday Oct. 27, 1665, Vol. VIII. p. 622. where it is ordered that this Sir John Birkenhead should carry the bill on that head to the house of lords, for their consent.—The act was agreed to in the upper house on Tuesday Oct. 31. and received the royal assent on the same day; immediately after which, the parliament was prorogued. See *Journals of the House of Lords*, Vol. XI. p. 700.—It is probable then, that, after Mr Atkins had published his book in April 1664, the parliament thought proper, the next year, to inquire into *the right of the king's prerogative;* and that Sir John Birkenhead took care to inspect the original, then in the custody of archbishop Sheldon: and, finding it not sufficient to prove what Mr Atkins had cited it for, made no report of the MS. to the house; but only moved, that the former law should be renewed. The MS. was probably never returned to the proper keeper of it; but was afterwards burnt in the fire of London, Sept. 13, 1666.—(4.) That Printing was practised at Oxford, was a prevailing opinion long before Atkins. Bryan Twyne, in his *Apologia pro Antiquitate Academiæ Oxoniensis*, published 1608, tells us, it is so delivered down in *ancient writings;* having heard, probably, of this Lambeth MS. And king Charles I. in his letters-patent to the University of Oxford, March 5, in the eleventh of his reign, 1635, mentions Printing as brought to *Oxford* from abroad. As to what is objected, "that it is not likely that the press should undergo a ten or eleven years sleep, viz. from 1468 to 1479," it is probably urged without foundation. Corsellis might print several books without date or name of the place, as Ulric Zell did at Cologn, from 1467 to 1473, and from that time to 1494. Corsellis's name, it may be said, appears not in any of his publications; but neither does that of Joannes Petersheimius. [See MEERMAN, Vol. I. p. 34; Vol. II. p. 21—27, &c.

Further, the famous Shakespeare, who was born in 1564, and died 1616, in the Second Part of Henry VI. act iv. sc. 7. introduces the rebel John Cade, thus upbraiding Lord Treasurer Say: "Thou hast most traiterously corrupted the youth of the realm, in creating a grammar-school: and whereas, before, our forefathers had no other book but the score and the tally, thou hast caused *Printing* to be used; and, contrary to the king, his crown, and dignity, thou hast built a paper-mill."—Whence now had Shakespeare this accusation against lord Say? We are told in the Poetical Register, vol. ii. p. 231. ed. Lond. 1724, that it was from Fabian, Pol. Vergel, Hall, Hollingshed, Grafton, Stow, Speed, &c. But not one of these ascribes printing to the reign of Henry VI. On the contrary, Stow, in his Annals, printed at London 1560, p. 686, gives it expressly to William Caxton, 1471. "The noble science of Printing was about this time found in Germany at Magunce, by one John Guthumburgus a knight. One Conradus an Almaine brought it into Rome: William Caxton of London mercer, brought it into England about the yeare 1471, and first practised the same in the Abbie of St Peter at Westminster; after which time it was likewise practised in the Abbies of St Augustine at Canterburie, Saint Albons, and other monasteries of England." What then shall we say, that the above is an anachronism arbitrarily put into the mouth of an ignorant fellow out of Shakespeare's head? We might believe so, but that we have the record of Mr Atkins confirming the same in king Char. II.'s time. Shall we say, that Mr Atkins borrowed the story from Shakespeare, and published it with some improvements of money laid out by Henry VI. from whence it might be received by Charles II. as a prerogative of the crown? But this is improbable, since Shakespeare makes Lord Treasurer Say the instrument of importing it, of whom Mr Atkins mentions not a word. Another difference there will still be between Shakespeare and the Lambeth MS; the poet placing it before 1449, in which year Lord Say was beheaded; the MS. between 1454 and 1459, when Bourchier was archbishop. We must say then, that lord Say first laid the scheme, and sent some one to Harleim, tho' without success; but after some years it was attempted happily by Bourchier. And we must conclude, that as the generality of writers have overlooked the invention of printing at Harleim with *wooden* types, and have ascribed it to Mentz where *metal* types were first made use of; so in England they have passed by *Corsellis*, (or the first *Oxford Printer*, whoever he was, who printed with *wooden* types at Oxford, and only mentioned Caxton as the original artist who printed with *metal* types at Westminster. [See MEERMAN, vol. ii. 7, 8.] It is strange, that the learned commentators on our great dramatic poet, who are so minutely

Printing. nutely particular upon less important occasions, should every one of them, Dr Johnson excepted, pass by this curious passage, leaving it entirely unnoticed. And how has Dr Johnson trifled, by slightly remarking, "that Shakespeare is a little *too early* with this accusation!"—The great critic had undertaken to decipher obsolete words, and investigate unintelligible phrases; but never, perhaps, bestowed a thought on Caxton or Corsellis, on Mr Atkins or the authenticity of the Lambeth Record.

But, independent of the record altogether, the book stands firm as a monument of the exercise of printing in Oxford six years older than any book of Caxton's with a date. In order to get clear of this strong fact, Dr Middleton,

1. Supposes the date in question to have been falsified originally by the printer either by design or mistake; and an X to have been dropped or omitted in the age of its impression. Examples of this kind, he says, are common in the history of printing. And, "whilst I am now writing, an unexpected instance is fallen into my hands, to the support of my opinion; an *Inauguration Speech of the Woodwardian Professor, Mr Mason*, just fresh from the press, with its date given 10 years earlier than it should have been, by the omission of an x, viz. MDCCXXIV; and the very blunder exemplified in the last piece printed at Cambridge, which I suppose to have happened in the first from Oxford."——To this it has been very properly answered, That we should not pretend to set aside the authority of *a plain date*, without very strong and cogent reasons; and what the Doctor has in this case advanced will not appear, on examination, to carry that weight with it that he seems to imagine. There may be, and have been, mistakes and forgeries in the date both of books and of records too; but this is never allowed as a reason for suspecting such as bear no mark of either. We cannot, from a blunder in the last book printed at Cambridge, infer a like blunder in the first book printed at Oxford. Besides, the *type* used in this our Oxford edition seems to be no small proof of its antiquity. It is the German letter, and very nearly the same with that used by Fust [who has been supposed to be] the first printer; whereas Caxton and Rood use a quite different letter, something between this German and our old English letter, which was soon after introduced by De Worde and Bynson.

2. "For the probability of his opinion, (he says) the book itself affords sufficient proof: for, not to insist on what is less material, the *neatness of the letter, and regularity of the page*, &c. above those of Caxton, it has one mark, that seems to have carried the matter beyond probable, and to make it even certain, viz. *the use of signatures*, or letters of the alphabet placed at the bottom of the page to shew the sequel of the pages and leaves of each book; an improvement contrived for the direction of the bookbinders; which yet was not practised or invented at the time when this book is supposed to be printed; for we find no signatures in the books of Fust or Schoeffer at Mentz, nor in the improved or beautiful impressions of John de Spira and Jenson at Venice, till several years later. We have a book in our library, that seems to fix the very time of their invention, at least in Venice; the place where the art itself received the greatest improvements: *Baldi lectura super Codic. &c.* printed by *John de Colonia* and *Jo. Manthem de Gherretzem, anno* MCCCCLXXIIII. It is a large and fair volume in folio, *without signatures*, till about the middle of the book, in which they are first introduced, and so continued forward: which makes it probable, that the first thought of them was suggested during the impression; for we have likewise *Lectura Bartholi super Codic.* &c. in two noble and beautiful volumes in folio, printed the year before at the same place, by Vindelin de Spira, without them: yet from this time forward they are generally found in all the works of the Venetian printers, and from them propagated to the other printers of Europe. They were used at (L) Cologn, in 1475; at Paris, 1476; by Caxton, not before 1480: but if the discovery had been brought into England, and practised at Oxford 12 before, it is not probable that he would have printed so long at Westminster without them. Mr Palmer indeed tells us, p. 54, 180, that Anthony Zarot was esteemed the inventor of signatures; and that they are found in a Terence printed by him at Milan in the year 1470, in which he first printed. I have not seen that Terence; and can only say, that I have observed the want of them in some later works of this, as well as of other excellent printers of the same place. But, allowing them to be in the Terence, and Zarot the inventor, it confutes the date of our Oxford book as effectually as if they were of later origin at Venice; as I had reason to imagine, from the testimony of all the books that I have hitherto met with."——As to these proofs, first, the neatness of the letter, and the regularity of the page, prove, if any thing, the very reverse of what the Doctor asserts. The art of printing was almost in its infancy brought to perfection; but afterwards debased by later printers, who consulted rather the cheapness than the neatness of their work. Our learned dissertator cannot be unacquainted with the labours of Fust and Jenson. He must know, that though other printers may have printed more correctly, yet scarce any excel them, either in the neatness of the letter, or the regularity of the page. The same may be observed in our English printers. Caxton and Rood were indifferently good printers: De Worde and Pynson were worse; and those that follow them most abominable. This our *anonymous Oxford printer* excels them all; and for this very reason we should judge him to be the most ancient of all. Our dissertator says great

Printing.

(L) Dr Middleton is mistaken in the time and place of the invention of signatures. They are to be found even in very ancient MSS. which the earliest printers very studiously imitated; and they were even used in some editions from the office of Laurence Coster (whence Corsellis came), which consisted of wooden cuts, as in *Figuræ typicæ et antitypicæ Novi Testamenti*; and in some editions with metal types, as in *Casp. Pergamensis epistolæ*, published at Paris, without a date, but printed A. D. 1470, (Maittaire, Annal. vol. i. p. 25.); and in *Mammetrectus*, printed by Helias de Louffen, at Born in Switzerland, 1470; and in *De Tondeli visione*, at Antwerp, 1472. Venice, therefore, was not the place where they were first introduced.—They began to be used in *Baldus*, it seems, when the book was half finished. The printer of that book might not know, or did not think, of the use of them before. See *Meerman*, vol. ii. p. 18; and *Phil. Transf.* vol. xxiii. nº 208. p. 1509.

Printing. great ſtreſs on the uſe of ſignatures. But no certain concluſion can be drawn either from the uſe or non-uſe of theſe leſſer improvements of printing. They have in different places come in uſe at different times, and have not been continued regularly even at the ſame places. If Anthony Zarot uſed them at Milan in 1470, it is certain later printers there did not follow his example; and the like might happen alſo in England. But, what is more full to our purpoſe, we have in the Bodleian library an Æſop's Fables printed by Caxton. This is, it is believed, the firſt book which has *the leaves numbered*. But yet this improvement, though more uſeful than that of the ſignatures, was diſuſed both by Caxton himſelf and other later printers in England. It is therefore not at all ſurpriſing (if true) that the ſignatures, though invented by our Oxford printer, might not immediately come into general uſe. And conſequently, this particular carries with it no ſuch certain or effectual confutation as our diſſertator boaſts of.

3. What the doctor thinks farther confirms his opinion is, "That, from the time of the pretended date of this book, anno 1468, we have no other fruit or production from the preſs at Oxford for 11 years next following; and it cannot be imagined that a preſs, eſtabliſhed with ſo much pains and expence, could be ſuffered to be ſo long idle and uſeleſs."—To this it may be anſwered, in the words of Oxonides, 1ſt, That his books may have been loſt. Our firſt printers, in thoſe days of ignorance, met with but ſmall encouragement; they printed but few books, and but few copies of thoſe books. In after-times, when the ſame books were re-printed more correctly, thoſe firſt editions, which were not as yet become curioſities, were put to common uſes. This is the reaſon that we have ſo few remains of our firſt printers. We have only four books of Theodoric Rood, who ſeems by his own verſes to have been a very celebrated printer. Of John Lettou-William de Machlinia, and the ſchoolmaſter of St Alban's, we have ſcarce any remains. If this be conſidered, it will not appear *impoſſible* that our printer ſhould have followed his buſineſs from 1468 to 1479, and yet Time have deſtroyed his intermediate works. But, 2dly, We may account ſtill another way for this diſtance of time, without altering the date. The Civil Wars broke out in 1469: this might probably oblige our Oxford printer to ſhut up his preſs; and both himſelf and his readers be otherwiſe engaged. If this were the caſe, he might not return to his work again till 1479; and the next year, not meeting with that encouragement he deſerved, he might remove to ſome other country with his types.

Dr Middleton concludes with apologiſing for his "ſpending ſo much pains on an argument ſo inconſiderable, to which he was led by his zeal to do a piece of juſtice to the memory of our worthy countryman William Caxton; nor ſuffer him to be robbed of the glory, ſo clearly due to him, of having *firſt imported into this kingdom* an art of great uſe and benefit to mankind: a kind of merit, that, in the ſenſe of all nations, gives the beſt title to true praiſe, and the beſt claim to be commemorated with honour to poſterity."

The fact, however, againſt which he contends, but which it ſeems impoſſible to overturn, does by no means derogate from the honour of Caxton, who, as has been ſhown, was the firſt perſon in England that practiſed the art of printing *fuſile types*, and conſequently the firſt who brought it to perfection; whereas Corſellis printed with *ſeparate cut types in wood*, being the only method which he had learned at Harleim. Into this detail, therefore, we have been led, not ſo much by the importance of the queſtion, as on account of ſeveral anecdotes connected with it, which ſeemed equally calculated to ſatisfy curioſity and afford entertainment. Printing.

Caxton had been bred very reputably in the way of trade, and ſerved an apprenticeſhip to one Robert Large, a mercer; who, after having been ſheriff and lord mayor of London, died in the year 1441, and left by will, as may be ſeen in the prerogative-office, xxiiii merks to his apprentice William Caxton: a conſiderable legacy in thoſe days, and an early teſtimonial of his good character and integrity.

From the time of his maſter's death, he ſpent the following thirty years beyond ſea, in the buſineſs of merchandiſe: where, in the year 1464, we find him employed by Edward IV. in a public and honourable negotiation, jointly with one Richard Whitehill, eſq; to tranſact and conclude a treaty of commerce between the king and his brother-in-law the duke of Burgundy, to whom Flanders belonged. The commiſſion ſtyles them, *ambaſſiatores, procuratores, nuncios, & deputatos ſpeciales;* and gives to both or either of them full powers to treat, &c.

Whoever turns over his printed works, muſt contract a reſpect for him, and be convinced that he preſerved the ſame character through life, of an honeſt, modeſt, man; greatly induſtrious to do good to his country, to the beſt of his abilities, by ſpreading among the people ſuch books as he thought uſeful to religion and good manners, which were chiefly tranſlated from the French. The novelty and uſefulneſs of his art recommended him to the ſpecial notice and favour of the great; under whoſe protection, and at whoſe expence, the greateſt part of his works were publiſhed. Some of them are addreſſed to king Edward IV. his brother the duke of Clarence, and their ſiſter the ducheſs of Burgundy; in whoſe ſervice and pay he lived many years before he began to print, as he often acknowledges with great gratitude. He printed likewiſe for the uſe, and by the expreſs order, of Henry VII. his ſon prince Arthur, and many of the principal nobility and gentry of that age.

It has been generally aſſerted and believed, that all his books were printed in the abbey of Weſtminſter; yet we have no aſſurance of it from himſelf, nor any mention of the place before the year 1477: ſo that he had been printing ſeveral years, without telling us where.

There is no clear account left of Caxton's age: but he was certainly very old, and probably above fourſcore, at the time of his death. In the year 1471 he complained of the infirmities of age creeping upon him, and feebling his body: yet he lived 23 years after, and purſued his buſineſs, with extraordinary diligence, in the abbey of Weſtminſter, till the year 1494, in which he died; not in the year following, as all who write of him affirm. This appears from ſome verſes at the end of a book, called, "Hilton's Scale of Perfection," printed in the ſame

Printing. same year:

"Infynite laud with thankynges many folde
I yield to God me focouryng with his grace
This boke to finyshe which that ye beholde
Scale of Perfection calde in every place
Whereof th'auctor Walter Hilton was
And Wynkyn de Worde this hath fett in print
In William Caxtons hows so fyll the case,
God rest his soule. In joy ther mot it flynt.
Impressus anno salutis MCCCCLXXXXIIII."

Though he had printed for the use of Edward IV. and Henry VII. yet there appears no ground for the notion which Palmer takes up, that the first printers, and particularly Caxton, were sworn servants and printers to the crown; for Caxton, as far as can be observed, gives not the least hint of any such character or title: though it seems to have been instituted not long after his death: for of his two principal workmen, Richard Pynson and Wynkin de Worde, the one was made printer to the king, the other to the king's mother the Lady Margaret. Pynson gives himself the first title, in *The imitation of the Life of Christ*; printed by him at the commandment of the Lady Margaret, who had translated the fourth book of it from the French, in the year 1504: and Wynkin de Worde assumes the second, in *The seven Penitential Psalms*, expounded by bishop Fisher, and printed in the year 1509. But there is the title of a book given by Palmer, that seems to contradict what is here said of Pynson: viz. *Psalterium ex mandato victoriosissimi Angliæ Regis Henrici Septimi, per Gulielmum Fanque, impressorem regium*, anno MDIIII; which, being the only work that has ever been found of this printer, makes it probable that he died in the very year of its impression, and was succeeded immediately by Richard Pynson.

Different CHARACTERS *when first used in* PRINTING. Before 1465, the uniform character was the old *Gothic*, or *German*; whence our *Black* was afterwards formed. But in that year an edition of Lactantius was printed in a kind of Semi-Gothic, of great elegance, and approaching nearly to the present *Roman* type; which last was first used at Rome in 1467, and soon after brought to great perfection in Italy, particularly by Jenson.

Towards the end of the 5th century, Aldus invented the *Italic* character which is now in use, called, from his name, *Aldine*, or *cursivus*. This sort of letter he contrived, to prevent the great number of abbreviations that were then in use.

Of the first GREEK PRINTING. The first essays in Greek that can be discovered are a few sentences which occur in the edition of *Tully's Offices*, 1465, at Mentz; but these were miserably incorrect and barbarous, if we may judge from the specimens Mr Maittaire has given us, of which the following is one:

Ὀτίζαταλλαττόμενα τὰ ταῦτα.

In the same year, 1465, was published an edition of *Lactantius's Institutes*, printed *in monasterio Sublacensi*, in the kingdom of Naples, in which the quotations from the Greek authors are printed in a very neat Greek letter. They seem to have had but *a very small quantity* of Greek types in the monastery; for, in the first part of the work, whenever a long sentence occurred, a blank was left, that it might be written in with a pen; after the middle of the work, however, all the Greek that occurs is printed. Printing.

The first printers who settled at Rome were Conrad Sweynheim and Arnold Pannartz, who introduced the present *Roman* type, in 1466, in Cicero's *Epistola Familiares*: in 1469 they printed a beautiful edition of *Aulus Gellius*, with the Greek quotations in a fair character, without accents or spirits, and with very few abbreviations.

The first whole book that is yet known is the Greek Grammar of Constantine Lascaris, in quarto, revised by Demetrius Cretensis, and printed by Dionysius Palavisinus, at Milan, 1476. In 1481, the Greek *Psalter* was printed here, with a Latin translation, in folio; as was Æsop's Fables in quarto.

Venice soon followed the example of Milan; and in 1486 were published in that city the *Greek Psalter* and the *Batrachomyomachia*, the former by Alexander, and latter by Laonicus, both natives of Crete. They were printed in a very uncommon character; the latter of them with *accents* and *spirits*, and also with *scholia*.

In 1488, however, all former publications in this language were eclipsed by a fine edition of *Homer's Works* at Florence, in folio, printed by Demetrius, a native of *Crete*. Thus Printing (says Mr Maittaire, p. 185.) seems to have attained its ἀκμὴν of perfection, after having exhibited most beautiful specimens of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew.

In 1493, a fine edition of *Isocrates* was printed at *Milan*, in folio, by Henry German and Sebastian ex Pantremulo.

All the above works are prior in time to those of Aldus, who has been erroneously supposed to be the *first* Greek Printer: the beauty, however, correctness, and number of his editions, place him in a much higher rank than his predecessors; and his characters in general were more elegant than any before used. He was born in 1445, and died in 1515.

Though the noble Greek books of Aldus had raised an universal desire of reviving that tongue, the French were backward in introducing it. The only pieces printed by them were some quotations, so wretchedly performed, that they were rather to be guessed at than read; in a character very rude and uncouth, and without accents. But Francis Tissard introduced the study of this language at Paris, by his βίβλος ἡ γνωμαγωγικὴ, in 1507; and that branch of printing was afterwards successfully practised by Henry, Robert, and Henry Stephens. See the article STEPHENS.

The earliest edition of the *whole Bible* was, strictly speaking, the Complutensian Polyglott of cardinal Ximenes; but as that edition, though finished in 1517, was not published till 1522, the *Venetian* Septuagint of 1518 may properly be called the first edition of the *whole* Greek Bible; Erasmus having published the New Testament *only*, at Basil, in 1516.

Of the first HEBREW PRINTING. A very satisfactory account of this branch of printing is thus given by Dr Kennecott, in his *Annual Accounts of the Collation of Hebrew MSS.* p. 112. "The method which seems to have been originally observed, in printing the Hebrew Bible, was just what might have been expected: 1. The Pentateuch, in 1482. 2. The Prior Prophets, in 1484. 3. The Posterior Prophets, in 1486. 4. The Hagiographia,

Printing. in 1487. And, after the four great parts had been thus printed separately (each with a comment), the whole text (without a comment) was printed in one volume in 1488: and the text continued to be printed, as in these first editions, for in several others for 20 or 30 years, without marginal *Keri* or *Masora*, and with greater arguments to the more ancient MSS. till, about the year 1520, some of the Jews adopted *later* MSS. and the *Masora*; which absurd preference has obtained ever since."

Thus much for the ancient editions given by Jews.

In 1642, a Hebrew Bible was printed at Mantua, under the care of the most learned Jews in Italy. This Bible had not been heard of among the Christians in this country, nor perhaps in any other; tho' the nature of it is very extraordinary. The text indeed is nearly the same with that in other modern editions; but at the bottom of each page are various readings, amounting in the whole to above 2000, and many of them of great consequence, collected from manuscripts, printed editions, copies of the Talmud, and the works of the most renowned Rabbies. And in one of the notes is this remark:—"That in several passages of the Hebrew Bible the differences are so many and so great, that they know not which to fix upon as the true readings."

We cannot quit this subject without observing, on Dr Kennicott's authority, that as the first printed Bibles are more correct that the later ones; so the variations between the first edition, printed in 1488, and the edition of Vander Hooght, in 1705, at Amsterdam, in 2 vols 8vo. amount, upon the whole, to above 1200! See further *Bowyer and Nichols*, p. 112—117.

Method of PRINTING. The workmen employed in the art of printing are of two kinds: compositors, who range and dispose the letters into words, lines, pages, &c. according to the copy delivered them by the author; and pressmen, who apply ink upon the same, and take off the impression. The types being cast, the compositor distributes each kind by itself among the divisions of two wooden frames, an upper and and an under one, called *cases*; each of which is divided into little cells or boxes. Those of the upper case are in number 98: these are all of the same size; and in them are disposed the capitals, small capitals, accented letters, figures, &c. the capitals being placed in alphabetical order. In the cells of the lower case, which are 54, are placed the small letters, with the points, spaces, &c. The boxes are here of different sizes, the largest being for the letters most used; and these boxes are not in alphabetical order, but the cells which contain the letter oftenest wanted are nearest the compositor's hand. Each case is placed a little slope, that the compositor may the more easily reach the upper boxes. The instrument in which the letters are set is called a *composing-stick* (fig. 3.) which consists of a long and narrow plate of brass, or iron, &c. on the right side of which arises a ledge, which runs the whole length of the plate, and serves to sustain the letters, the sides of which are to rest against it: along this ledge is a row of holes, which serve for introducing the screw *a*, in order to lengthen or shorten the extent of the line, by moving the sliders *bc* farther from or nearer to the shorter ledge at the end *d*. Where marginal notes are required in a work, the two sliding-pieces *bc* are opened to a proper distance from each other in such a manner as that while the distance between *dc* forms the length of the line in the text, the distance between the two sliding-pieces forms the length of the lines for the notes on the side of the page. Before the compositor proceeds to compose, he puts a rule, or thin slip of brass-plate, cut to the length of the line, and of the same height as the letter, in the composing-stick, against the ledge, for the letter to bear against. Things thus prepared, the compositor having the copy lying before him, and his stick in his left-hand, his thumb being over the slider *c*; with the right, he take up the letters, spaces, &c. one by one, and places them against the rule, while he supports them with his left thumb by pressing them to the end of the slider *c*, the other hand being constantly employed in setting in other letters: the whole being performed with a degree of expedition and address not easy to be imagined.

Plate CCXLV.

A little being thus composed, if it end with a word or syllable, and exactly fill the measure, there needs no further care; otherwise, more spaces are to be put in, or else the distances lessened, between the several words, in order to make the measure quite full, so that every line may end even. The spaces here used are pieces of metal exactly shaped like the shanks of the letters: they are of various thicknesses, and serve to support the letters, and to preserve a proper distance between the words; but not reaching so high as the letters, they make no impression when the work is printed. The first line being thus finished, the compositor proceeds to the next; in order to which he moves the brass-rule from behind the former, and places it before it, and thus composes another line against it after the same manner as before; going on thus till his stick is full, when he empties all the lines contained in it into the gally.

The compositor then fills and empties his composing-stick as before, till a complete page be formed; when he ties it up with a cord or pack-thread; and setting it by, proceeds to the next, till the number of pages to be contained in a sheet is completed; which done, he carries them to the imposing-stone, there to be ranged in order, and fastened together in a frame called *a chase*; and this is termed *imposing*. The chase is a rectagular iron-frame, of different dimensions according to the size of the paper to be printed, having two cross-pieces of the same metal, called *a long* and *short cross*, mortised at each end so as to be taken out occasionally. By the different situations of these crosses the chase is fitted for different volumes: for quartos and octavos, one traverses the middle lengthwise, the other broadwise, so as to intersect each other in the centre: for twelves and twenty-fours, the short cross is shifted nearer to one end of the chase; for folios, the long cross is left entirely out, and the short one left in the middle; and for broad-sides, both crosses are set aside. To dress the chase, or range and fix the pages therein, the compositor makes use of a set of furniture, consisting of slips of wood of different dimensions, and about half an inch high, that they may be lower than the letters: some of these are placed at the top of the pages, and called *head sticks*; others between them, to form the inner margin; others on the sides of the crosses, to form the outer mar-

Fig. 2.
Printing PRESS.

Fig. 3.
Composing Stick.

Fig. 4.
Rolling PRESS.

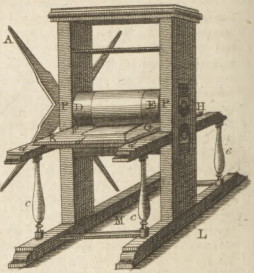
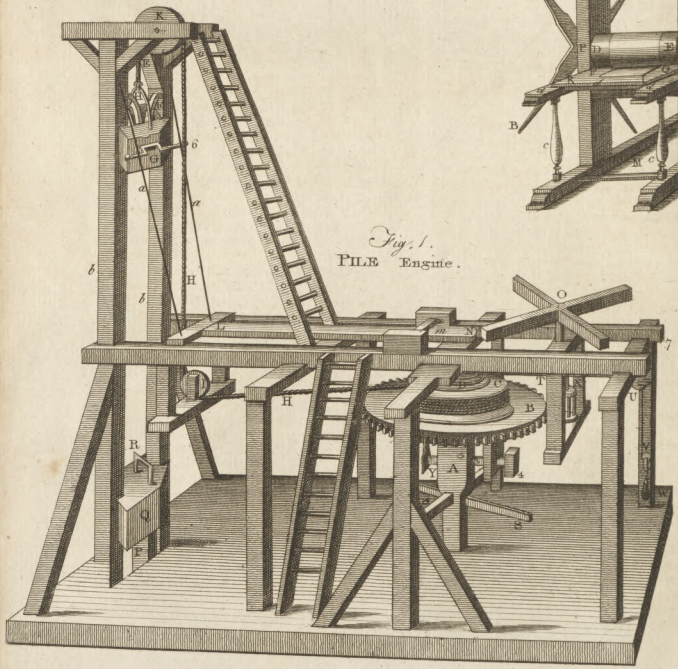


Fig. 1.
PILE Engine.



A Bell Sculp.t

Printing. margin, where the paper is to be doubled; and others in the form of wedges to the sides and bottom of the pages. Thus all the pages being placed at their proper distances, and secured from being injured by the chase and furniture placed about them, they are all untied, and fastened together by driving small pieces of wood called *quoins*, cut in the wedge-form, up between the slanting side of the foot and the side sticks and the chase, by means of a piece of hard wood and a mallet; and all being thus bound fast together, so that none of the letters will fall out, it is ready to be committed to the pressmen. In this condition the work is called *a form*; and as there are two of these forms required for every sheet, when both sides are to be printed, it is necessary the distances between the pages in each form should be placed with such exactness, that the impression of the pages in one form shall fall exactly on the back of the pages of the other, which is called *register*.

As it is impossible but that there must be some mistakes in the work, either through the oversight of the compositor, or by the casual transposition of letters in the cases; a sheet is printed off, which is called *a proof*, and given to the corrector; who reading it over, and rectifying it by the copy, making the alterations in the margin, it is delivered back to the compositor to be corrected.

The compositor then unlocking the form upon the correcting-stone, by loosening the quoins or wedges which bound the letters together, rectifies the mistakes by picking out the faulty or wrong letters with a slender sharp-pointed steel-bodkin, and puts others into their places. After this another proof is made, sent to the author, and corrected as before; and lastly, there is another proof, called *a revise*, which is made in order to see whether all the mistakes marked in the last proof are corrected.

The pressman's business is to work off the forms thus prepared and corrected by the compositor; in doing which there are four things required, paper, ink, balls, and a press. To prepare the paper for use, it is to be first wetted by dipping several sheets together in water: these are afterwards laid in a heap over each other; and to make them take the water equally, they are all pressed close down with a weight at the top. The ink is made of oil and lamp-black; for the manner of preparing which, see *Printing*-Ink. The balls, by which the ink is applied on the forms are a kind of wooden funnels with handles, the cavities of which are filled with wool or hair, as is also a piece of alum-leather or pelt nailed over the cavity, and made extremely soft by socking in urine and by being well rubbed. One of these the pressman takes in each hand; and applying one of them to the ink-block daubs and works them together to distribute the ink equally; and then blackens the form which is placed on the press, by beating with the balls upon the face of the latter.

Plate CCXLV. The printing-press, represented fig. 2. is a very curious, though complex machine. The body consists of two strong cheeks, *a a*, placed perpendicularly, and joined together by four cross-pieces; the cap *b*; the head *c*, which is moveable, being partly sustained by two iron pins, or long bolts, that pass the cap; the till, or shelf, *d d*, by which the spindle and its apparatus are kept in their proper position; and the winter *e*, which bears the carriage, and sustains the effort of the press beneath. The spindle *f* is an upright piece of iron pointed with steel, having a male-screw which goes into the female one in the head about four inches. Through the eye *g* of this spindle is fastened the bar *k*, by which the pressman makes the impression. The spindle passes through a hole in the middle of the till; and its point works into a brass pan or nut, supplied with oil, which is fixed to an iron plate let into the top of the platten. The body of the spindle is sustained in the centre of an open frame of polished iron, 1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, fixed to it in such a manner as, without obstructing its free play, to keep it in a steady direction; and at the same time to serve for suspending the platten. This frame consists of two parts; the upper called the *garter*, 1, 1; the under, called the *crane*, 2, 2. These are connected together by two short legs or bolts, 3, 3; which being fixed below in the two ends of the crane, pass upward, through two holes in the till, and are received at top into two eyes at the ends of the garter, where they are secured by screws. The carriage *l l* is placed a foot below the platten, having its fore-part supported by a prop called the *fore-stay*, while the other rests on the winter. On this carriage, which sustains the plank, are nailed two long iron bars or ribs; and on the plank are nailed short pieces of iron or steel called *cramp-irons*, equally tempered with the ribs, and which slide upon them when the plank is turned in or out. Under the carriage is fixed a long piece of iron called the *spit*, with a double wheel in the middle, round which leather-girts are fastened, nailed to each end of the plank; and to the outside of the spit is fixed a rounce *m*, or handle to turn round the wheel. Upon the plank is a square frame or coffin, in which is inclosed a polished stone on which the form *n* is laid; at the end of the coffin are three frames, viz. the two tympans and frisket: the tympans *o* are square, and made of three slips of very thin wood, and at the top a piece of iron still thinner; that called the *outer tympan* is fastened with hinges to the coffin: they are both covered with parchment; and between the two are placed blankets, which are necessary to take off the impression of the letters upon the paper. The frisket *p* is a square frame of thin iron, fastened with hinges to the tympan: it is covered with paper cut in the necessary places, that the sheet, which is put between the frisket and the great or outward tympan, may receive the ink, and that nothing may hurt the margins. To regulate the margins, a sheet of paper is fastened upon this tympan, which is called the *tympan-sheet*; and on each side is fixed an iron point, which makes two holes in the sheet, which is to be placed on the same points when the impression is to be made on the other side. In preparing the press for working, the parchment which covers the outer tympan is wetted till it is very soft, in order to render the impression more equable; the blankets are then put in, and secured from slipping by the inner tympan: then while one pressman is beating the letter with the balls *g*, covered with ink taken from the ink-block, the other person places a sheet of white paper on the tympan-sheet; turns down the frisket upon it, to keep the paper clean and prevent its slipping; then bringing the tympans upon the form, and, turning the rounce,

Printing. rounce, he brings the form with the ſtone, &c. weighing about 300 pounds weights, under the platten; pulls with the bar, by which means the platten preſſes the blankets and paper cloſe upon the letter, whereby half the form is printed; then eaſing the bar, he draws the form ſtill forward, gives a ſecond pull; and letting go the bar, turns back the form, takes up the tympans and friſket, takes out the printed ſheet, and lays on a freſh one; and this is repeated till he has taken off the impreſſion upon the full number of ſheets the edition is to conſiſt of. One ſide of the ſheet being thus printed, the form for the other is laid upon the preſs, and worked off in the ſame manner.

Chineſe PRINTING, is performed from wooden planks or blocks, cut like thoſe uſed in printing of callico, paper, cards, &c.

Rolling-preſs PRINTING, is employed in taking off prints or impreſſions from copper-plates engraven, etched, or ſcraped as in mezzotintos. See ENGRAVING.

This art is ſaid to have been as ancient as the year 1540, and to owe its origin to Finiguerra, a Florentine goldſmith, who pouring ſome melted brimſtone on an engraven plate, found the exact impreſſion of the engraving left in the cold brimſtone, marked with black taken out of the ſtrokes by the liquid ſulphur: upon this he attempted to do the ſame on ſilver plates with wet paper, by rolling it ſmoothly with a roller; and this ſucceeded: but this art was not uſed in England till the reign of king James I. when it was brought from Antwerp by Speed. The form of the rolling-preſs, the compoſition of the ink uſed therein, and the manner of applying both in taking off prints, are as follow.

Plate CCXLV. fig. 4. The rolling preſs AL, may be divided into two parts, the body and carriage: the body conſiſts of two wooden cheeks PP placed perpendicularly on a ſtand or foot LM, which ſuſtains the whole preſs. From the foot likewiſe are four other perpendicular pieces *c*, *c*, *c*, *c*, joined by croſs or horizontal ones *d*, *d*, *d*, which ſerve to ſuſtain a ſmooth even plank or table HIK, about four feet and a half long, two feet and a half broad, and an inch and a half thick. Into the cheeks go two wooden cylinders or rollers, DE, FG, about ſix inches in diameter, borne up at each end by the cheeks, whoſe ends, which are leſſened to about two inches diameter, and called *trunnions*, turn in the cheeks about two pieces of wood in form of half-moons, lined with poliſhed iron to facilitate the motion. Laſtly, to one of the trunnions of the upper roller is faſtened a croſs, conſiſting of two levers AB, or pieces of wood, traverſing each other, the arms of which croſs ſerve inſtead of the bar or handle of the letter-preſs, by turning the upper roller, and when the plank is between the two rollers, giving the ſame motion to the under one, by drawing the plank forward and backward.

The ink uſed for copper-plates, is a compoſition made of the ſtones of peaches and apricots, the bones of ſheep and ivory, all well burnt, and called *Frankfort black*, mixed with nut-oil that has been well boiled, and ground together on a marble, after the ſame manner as painters do their colours.

The method of printing from copper-plates is as follows: They take a ſmall quantity of this ink on a rubber made of linnen-rags, ſtrongly bound about each other, and therewith ſmear the whole face of the plate as it lies on a grate over a charcoal fire. The plate being ſufficiently inked, they firſt wipe it over with a foul rag, then with the palm of their left hand, and then with that of the right; and to dry the hand and forward the wiping, they rub it from time to time in whiting. In wiping the plate perfectly clean, yet without taking the ink out of the engraving, the addreſs of the workman conſiſts. The plate thus prepared, is laid on the plank of the preſs; over the plate is laid the paper, firſt well moiſtened, to receive the impreſſion; and over the paper two or three folds of flannel. Things thus diſpoſed, the arms of the croſs are pulled, and by that means the plate with its furniture paſſed thro' between the rollers, which pinching very ſtrongly, yet equally, preſſes the moiſtened paper into the ſtrokes of the engraving, whence it licks out the ink.

PRIOR, in general, ſomething before or nearer the beginning than another, to which it is compared.

PRIOR, more particularly denotes the ſuperior of a convent of monks, or the next under the abbot. See ABBOT.

Priors are either *clauſtral* or *conventual*. *Conventual* are the ſame as abbots. *Clauſtral* prior, is he who governs the religious of an abbey or priory *in commendam*, having his juriſdiction wholly from the abbot.

Grand PRIOR, is the ſuperior of a large abbey, where ſeveral ſuperiors are required.

PRIOR (Matthew), an eminent Engliſh poet, was born at London in 1664. His father dying while he was very young, an uncle a vintner, having given him ſome education at Weſtminſter ſchool, took him home in order to breed him up to his trade. However, at his leiſure hours he proſecuted his ſtudy of the claſſics, and eſpecially of his favourite Horace. This introduced him to ſome polite company, who frequented his uncle's houſe; among whom the earl of Dorſet took particular notice of him, and procured him to be ſent to St John's college in Cambridge, where, in 1686, he took the degree of A. B. and afterward became fellow of that college. Upon the revolution, Mr Prior was brought to court by the earl of Dorſet; and in 1690 he was made ſecretary to the earl of Berkeley, plenipotentiary at the Hague; as he was afterward to the ambaſſador and plenipotentiaries at the treaty of Ryſwick in 1697; and the year following to the earl of Portland, ambaſſador to the court of France. He was in 1697 made ſecretary of ſtate for Ireland; and in 1700 was appointed one of the lords commiſſioners of trade and plantations. In 1710, he was ſuppoſed to have had a ſhare in writing *The Examiner*. In 1711, he was made one of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms; and was ſent miniſter plenipotentiary to France, for the negotiating a peace with that kingdom. Soon after the acceſſion of George I. to the throne in 1714, he preſented a memorial to the court of France, requiring the demoliſhing of the canal and new works at Mardyke. The year following he was recalled; and upon his arrival was taken up by a warrant from the houſe of commons, and ſtrictly examined by a committee of the privy-council. Robert Wal-

Prior.

Priority || Privateer.

Walpole, Esq; moved the house of commons for an impeachment against him; and Mr Prior was ordered into close custody. In 1717, he was excepted out of the act of grace; however, at the close of that year he was set at liberty. The remainder of his days he spent in tranquillity and retirement; and died in 1721. His poems are well known and justly admired.

PRIORITY, the relation of something considered as prior to another.

PRIORITY, in law, denotes an antiquity of tenure, in comparison of another less ancient.

PRISCIANUS, an eminent grammarian, born at Cæsarea, taught at Constantinople with great reputation about the year 525. Laurentius Valla calls Priscian, Donatus, and Servius, *triumviri in re grammatica;* and thinks none of the ancients who wrote after them, fit to be mentioned with them. He composed a work *De arte grammatica*, which was first printed by Aldus at Venice in 1476; and another *De naturalibus quæstionibus*, which he dedicated to Chosroes king of Persia: beside which he translated Dionysius's description of the world into Latin verse. A person who writes false Latin is proverbially said to "break Priscian's head."

PRISCILLIANISTS, in church-history, Christian heretics, so called from their leader Priscillian, a Spaniard by birth, and bishop of Avila. He is said to have practised magic, and to have maintained the principal errors of the Manichees; but his peculiar tenet was, That it is lawful to make false oaths in order to support one's cause and interests.

PRISM, an oblong solid, contained under more than four planes, whose bases are equal, parallel, and alike situated. See OPTICS.

PRISON, a goal, or place of confinement.

Lord Coke observes, that a prison is only a place of safe custody, *salva custodia*, not a place of punishment. Any place where a person is confined may be said to be a prison; and when a process is issued against one, he must, when arrested thereon, either be committed to prison, or be bound in a recognizance with sureties, or else give bail, according to the nature of the case, to appear at a certain day in court, there to make answer to what is alleged against him. Where a person is taken and sent to prison, in a civil case, he may be released by the plaintiff in the suit; but if it be for treason or felony, he may not regularly be discharged, until he is indicted of the fact and acquitted. See INDICTMENT, and the next article.

PRISONER, a person restrained or kept in prison upon an action civil or criminal, or upon commendment: and one may be a prisoner on matter of record or matter of fact. A prisoner upon matter of record, is he who, being present in court, is by the court committed to prison; and the other is one carried to prison upon an arrest, whether it be by the sheriff, constable, or other officer.

PRIVATEERS, are a kind of private men of war, the persons concerned wherein administer at their own costs a part of a war, by fitting out these ships of force, and providing them with all military stores; and they have instead of pay, leave to keep what they take from the enemy, allowing the admiral his share, &c.

Privateer || Privernum.

Privateers may not attempt any thing against the laws of nations; as to assault an enemy in a port or haven, under the protection of any prince or republic, whether he be friend, ally, or neuter; for the peace of such places must be inviolably kept: therefore, by a treaty made by king William and the States of Holland, before a commission shall be granted to any privateer, the commander is to give security, if the ship be not above 150 tons, in L. 1500, and if the ship exceeds that burden, in L. 3000, that they will make satisfaction for all damages which they shall commit in their courses at sea, contrary to the treaties with that state, on pain of forfeiting their commissions; and the ship is made liable. *Jacob's Law Dict.*

Besides these private commissions, there are special commissions for privateers, granted to commanders of ships, &c. who take pay; who are under a marine discipline; and if they do not obey their orders, may be punished with death: and the wars in later ages have given occasion to princes to issue these commissions, to annoy the enemies in their commerce, and hinder such supplies as might strengthen them or lengthen out the war; and likewise to prevent the separation of ships of greater force from their fleets or squadrons.

Ships taken by privateers, were to be divided into five parts; four parts whereof to go to the persons interested in the privateer, and the fifth to his Majesty: and as a farther encouragement, privateers, &c. destroying any French man of war or privateer, shall receive, for every piece of ordnance in the ship so taken, L. 10 reward, &c.

By a particular statute lately made, the lord admiral, or commissioners of the admiralty, may grant commissions to commanders of privateers, for taking ships, &c. which being adjudged prize, and the tenth part paid to the admiral, &c. wholly belong to the owners of the privateers and the captors, in proportions agreed on between themselves.

PRIVATION, in a general sense, denotes the absence or want of something; in which sense darkness is only the privation of light.

PRIVATIVE, in grammar, a particle, which, prefixed to a word, changes it into a contrary sense. Thus, among the Greeks, the α is used as a privative; as in α-θεος, *atheist*, *acephalus*, &c.——The Latins have their privative *in;* as, *incorrigibilis*, *indeclinabilis*, &c.——The English, French, &c. on occasion, borrow both the Latin and Greek privatives.

PRIVERNUM, (Livy, Virgil); a town of the Volsci, in Latium, to the east of Setia. *Privernates*, the people. Whose ambassadors being asked, What punishment they deserved for their revolt? answered, What those deserve who deem themselves worthy of liberty. And again, being asked by the Roman consul, should the punishment be remitted, What peace was to be expected with them? If you grant a good peace, you may hope to have it sincere and lasting; but if a bad one, you may well expect it of short continuance. At which answer, the Romans were so far from being displeased, that by a vote of the people they had the freedom of the city granted them. *Privernas, atis*, the epithet. The town is now called *Piperno Vecchio*, situate in the Campania of Rome. E. Long. 10. 0. N. Lat. 41. 30.

PRIVET,

PRIVET, in botany. See LIGUSTRUM.

PRIVILEGE, in law, ſome peculiar benefit granted to certain perſons or places, contrary to the uſual courſe of the law.

Privileges are ſaid to be *perſonal* or *real*.

Perſonal privileges are ſuch as are extended to peers, ambaſſadors, members of parliament, and of the convocation, &c. See LORDS, AMBASSADOR, PARLIAMENT, ARREST.

A *real* privilege is that granted to ſome particular place; as the king's palace, the courts at Weſtminſter, the univerſities, &c.

PRIVY COUNCIL. See COUNCIL.

PRIVY *Seal*. See SEAL.

PRIZE, or PRISE, in maritime affairs, a veſſel taken at ſea from the enemies of a ſtate, or from pirates; and that either by a man of war, a privateer, &c. having a commiſſion for that purpoſe.

Veſſels are looked on as prize, if they fight under any other ſtandard than that of the ſtate from which they have their commiſſion; if they have no charter-party, invoice, or bill of lading aboard; if loaded with effects belonging to the king's enemies, or with contraband goods.

In ſhips of war, the prizes are to be divided among the officers, ſeamen, &c. as his Majeſty ſhall appoint by proclamation; but among privateers, the diviſion is according to the agreement between the owners.

By ſtat. 13 Geo. II. c. 4.; judges and officers, ſailing of their duty in reſpect to the condemnation of prizes, forfeit L. 500, with full coſts of ſuit; one moiety to the king, and the other to the informer.

PROBABILITY, is nothing but the appearance of the agreement or diſagreement of two ideas by the intervention of proofs, whoſe connection is not conſtant and immutable; or is not perceived to be ſo; but is, or appears for the moſt part to be ſo; and is enough to induce the mind to judge the propoſition to be true or falſe, rather than the contrary. See METAPHYSICS, n° 246—265.

PROBATE of a will or teſtament, in law, is the exhibiting and proving of laſt wills and teſtaments before the eccleſiaſtical judge delegated by the biſhop who is ordinary of the place where the party died.

PROBATION, in the univerſities, is the examination and trial of a ſtudent who is about to take his degrees.

PROBATION, in a monaſtic ſenſe, ſignifies the year of a novitiate, which a religious muſt paſs in a convent, to prove his virtue and vocation, and whether he can bear the ſeverities of the rule.

PROBATIONER, in the church of Scotland, a ſtudent in divinity, who bringing a certificate from a profeſſor in an univerſity of his good morals, and his having performed his exerciſes to approbation, is admitted to undergo ſeveral trials; and, upon his acquitting himſelf properly in theſe, receives a licence to preach.

PROBATUM EST, *(It is proved,)* a term frequently ſubjoined to a receipt for the cure of ſome diſeaſe.

PROBE, a ſurgeon's inſtrument for examining the circumſtances of wounds, ulcers, and other cavities, ſearching for ſtones in the bladder, &c.

PROBLEM, in logic, a propoſition that neither appears abſolutely true or falſe; and, conſequently, may be aſſerted either in the affirmative or negative.

PROBLEM, in geometry, is a propoſition, wherein ſome operation or conſtruction is required; as to divide a line or angle, erect or let fall perpendiculars, &c. See GEOMETRY.

PROBOSCIS, in natural hiſtory, is the trunk or ſnout of an elephant, and ſome other animals and inſects.

Flies, gnats, &c. are furniſhed with a proboſcis or trunk; by means of which they ſuck the blood of animals, the juice of vegetables, &c. for their food.

PROBUS (Marcus Aurelius), from the ſon of a gardener, became, by his great valour as a ſoldier, and his eminent virtues, emperor of Rome, to which dignity he was raiſed by the army. After having ſubdued the barbarous nations that had made incurſions into different parts of the empire where they committed horrid cruelties, and governed with great wiſdom and clemency, he was maſſacred in the 7th year of his reign, by ſome ſoldiers who were weary of the public works at which he made them labour, in 282.

PROCATARCTIC CAUSE, in medicine, the preexiſting, or prediſpoſing cauſe or occaſion of a diſeaſe.

PROCELEUSMATICUS, in the ancient poetry, a foot conſiſting of four ſhort ſyllables, or two pyrrhychiuſes; as *hominibus*.

PROCELLARIA, in ornithology; a genus of birds, belonging to the order of anſeres. The beak is ſomewhat compreſſed, and without teeth; the mandibles are equal, the ſuperior one being crooked at the point; the feet are palmated, the hind claw being ſeſſile, without any toe. There are ſix ſpecies, principally diſtinguiſhed by their colour. The moſt remarkable are.

1. The cinerea, or fulmar. The ſize of this bird is rather ſuperior to that of the common gull: the bill very ſtrong, much hooked at the end, and of a yellow colour. The noſtrils are compoſed of two large tubes, lodged in one ſheath: the head, neck, whole under ſide of the body, and tail, are white; the back and coverts of the wings aſh-coloured: the quill-feathers duſky: the legs yelloviſh. In lieu of a back toe, it has only a ſort of ſpur, or ſharp ſtraight nail. Theſe birds feed on the blubber or fat of whales, &c. which, being ſoon convertible into oil, ſupplies them conſtantly with means of defence, as well as proviſion for their young, which they caſt up into their mouths. They are likewiſe ſaid to feed on ſorrel, which they uſe to qualify the unctuous diet they live on. This ſpecies inhabits the iſle of St Kilda; makes its appearance there in November, and continues the whole year, except September and October; it lays a large, white, and very brittle egg; and the young are hatched the middle of June. No bird is of ſuch uſe to the iſlanders as this: the fulmar ſupplies them with oil for their lamps, down for their beds, a delicacy for their tables, a balm for their wounds, and a medicine for their diſtempers. The fulmar is alſo a certain prognoſticator of the change of the wind; if it comes to land, no weſt wind is expected for ſome time; and the contrary when it returns and keeps the ſea. The whole genus of petrels have a peculiar faculty of ſpouting from their bills, to a conſiderable diſtance, a large quantity of pure

Proceliaria. pure oil; which they do, by way of defence, into the face of any that attempts to take them: so that they are, for the sake of this panacæa, seized by surprise; as this oil is subservient to the abovementioned medical uses. Martin tells us, it has been used in London and Edinburgh with success in rheumatic cases. Frederick Martens, who had opportunity of seeing vast numbers of these birds at Spitzbergen, observes, that they are very bold, and resort after the whale-fishers in great flocks; and that, when a whale is taken, they will, in spite of all endeavours, light on it and pick out large lumps of fat, even when the animal is alive: That the whales are often discovered at sea by the multitudes of mallemuckes flying; and that when one of the former are wounded, prodigious multitudes immediately follow its bloody track. He adds, that it is a most gluttonous bird, eating till it is forced to disgorge itself.

2. The puffinus, or shear-water, is 15 inches in length; the breadth 31; the weight 17 ounces: the bill is an inch and three-quarters long; nostrils tubular, but not very prominent: the head, and whole upper side of the body, wings, tail, and thighs, are of a sooty blackness; the under side from chin to tail, and inner coverts of the wings, white: the legs weak, and compressed sidewise; dusky behind, whitish before. These birds are found in the Calf of Man; and, as Mr Ray supposes, in the Scilly-isles. They resort to the former in February; take a short possession of the rabbet burrows, and then disappear till April. They lay one egg, white and blunt at each end; and the young are fit to be taken the beginning of August; when great numbers are killed by the person who farms the isle: they are salted and barrelled; and when they are boiled, are eaten with potatoes. During the day they keep at sea, fishing; and towards evening return to their young; whom they feed, by discharging the contents of their stomachs into their mouths; which by that time is turned into oil: by reason of the backward situation of their legs, they sit quite erect. They quit the isle the latter end of August, or beginning of September; and, from accounts lately received from navigators, we have reason to imagine, that, like the storm-finch, they are dispersed over the whole Atlantic ocean. This species inhabits also the Orkney isles, where it makes its nest in holes on the earth near the shelves of the rocks and headlands: it is called there the *lyre;* and is much valued, both on account of its being a food, and for its feathers. The inhabitants take and salt them in August for winter provisions, when they boil them with cabbage. They also take the old ones in March; but they are then poor, and not so well tasted as the young: they appear first in those islands in February.

3. The pelagica, or stormy petrel, is about the bulk of the house-swallow: the length six inches; the extent of wings, 13. The whole bird is black, except the coverts of the tail and vent-feathers, which are white: the bill is hooked at the end: the nostrils tubular: the legs slender, and long. It has the same faculty of spouting oil from its bill as the other species: and Mr Brunnich tells us, that the inhabitants of the Ferroe isles make this bird serve the purposes of a candle, by drawing a wick through the mouth and rump, which being lighted, the flame is fed by the fat and oil of the body. Except in breeding-time, it is always at sea; and is seen all over the vast Atlantic ocean, at the greatest distance from land; often following the vessels in great flocks, to pick up any thing that falls from on board: for trial sake, chopped straw has been flung over, which they would stand on with expanded wings; but were never observed to settle on or swim in the water: it presages bad weather, and cautions the seamen of the approach of a tempest, by collecting under the stern of the ships: it braves the utmost fury of the storm, sometimes skimming with incredible velocity along the hollows of the waves, sometimes on the summits: Clusius makes it the Camilla of the sea. Process.

Vel mare per medium fluctu suspensa tumenti
Ferret iter, celeres nec tingeret æquore plantas. VIRG.

She swept the seas; and as she skim'd along,
Her flying feet unbath'd on billows hung. DRYDEN.

These birds are the *cypselli* of Pliny, which he places among the *apodes* of Aristotle; not because they wanted feet, but were Κακοποδα, or had bad or useless ones; an attribute he gives to these species, on a supposition that they were almost always on the wing. In August 1772, Mr Pennant found them on the rocks called *Macdonald's Table*, off the north end of the isle of Skie; so conjectures they breed there. They lurked under the loose stones, but betrayed themselves by their twittering noise.

PROCESS, in law, denotes the proceedings in any cause, real or personal, civil or criminal, from the original writ to the end thereof.

In a more limited sense, process denotes that by which a man is called first into any temporal court.

It is the next step for carrying on the suit, after suing out the original writ. See SUIT and WRIT.

It is the method taken by the law to compel a compliance with the original writ, of which the primary step is by giving the party notice to obey it. This notice is given upon all real *præcipes;* and also upon all personal writs for injuries not against the peace, by *summons;* which is a warning to appear in court at the return of the original writ, given to the defendant by two of the sheriff's messengers called *summoners*, either in person, or left at his house or land: in like manner as in the civil law the first process is by personal citation, *in jus vocando.* This warning on the land is given, in real actions, by erecting a white stick or wand on the defendant's grounds, (which stick or wand among the northern nations is called the *baculus nunciatorius*), and by statute 31 Eliz. c. 3. the notice must also be proclaimed on some Sunday before the door of the parish-church. Blackst. Comment.

If the defendant disobeys this verbal monition, the next process is by writ of *attachment*, or *pone;* so called from the words of the writ, *pone per vadium et salvos plegios*, "put by gage and safe pledges A. B. the defendant, &c." This is a writ not issuing out of chancery, but out of the court of common-pleas, being grounded on the non-appearance of the defendant at the return of the original writ; and thereby the sheriff is commanded to attach him, by taking *gage*, that is, certain of his goods, which he shall forfeit if he doth not appear; or by making him find *safe pledges* or sureties, which shall be amerced in case of his non-appearance. This is also the first and immediate process, without any previous summons, upon actions of tres-

Process. pass *vi et armis*, or for other injuries, which, though not forcible, are yet trespasses against the peace, as *deceit* and *conspiracy*; where the violence of the wrong requires a more speedy remedy, and therefore the original writ commands the defendant to be at once attached, without any precedent warning. Process.

If, after attachment, the defendant neglects to appear, he not only forfeits this security, but is moreover to be farther compelled by writ of *distringas*, or distress infinite; which is a subsequent process issuing from the court of common-pleas, commanding the sheriff to distrain the defendant from time to time, and continually afterwards, by taking his goods and the profits of his lands, which are called *issues*, and which he forfeits to the king if he doth not appear. But the issues may be sold, if the court shall so direct, in order to defray the reasonable costs of the plaintiff. In like manner by the civil law, if the defendant absconds, so that the citation is of no effect, *mittitur adversarius in possessionem bonorum ejus*.

And here, by the common as well as the civil law, the process ended in case of injuries without force: the defendant, if he had any substance, being gradually stripped of it all by repeated distresses, till he rendered obedience to the king's writ; and, if he had no substance, the law held him incapable of making satisfaction, and therefore looked upon all farther process as nugatory. And besides, upon feodal principles, the person of a feudatory was not liable to be attached for injuries merely civil, left thereby his lord should be deprived of his personal services. But, in cases of injury accompanied with force, the law, to punish the breach of the peace and prevent its disturbance for the future, provided also a process against the defendant's person, in case he neglected to appear upon the former process of attachment, or had no substance whereby to be attached; subjecting his body to imprisonment by the writ of *capias ad respondendum*. But this immunity of the defendant's person, in case of peaceable though fraudulent injuries, producing great contempt of the law in indigent wrongdoers, a *capias* was also allowed, to arrest the person in actions of account, though no breach of the peace be suggested, by the statutes of Marlbridge, 52 Hen. III. c. 23. and Westm. 2. 13 Edw. I. c. 11. in actions of debt and detinue, by statute 25 Edw. III. c. 17. and in all actions on the case, by statute 19 Hen. VII. c. 9. Before which last statute a practice had been introduced of commencing the suit by bringing an original writ of trespass *quare clausum fregit*, by breaking the plaintiff's close, *vi et armis*; which by the old common law subjected the defendant's person to be arrested by writ of *capias*: and then afterwards, by connivance of the court, the plaintiff might proceed to prosecute for any other less forcible injury. This practice (through custom rather than necessity, and for saving some trouble and expence, in suing out a special original adapted to the particular injury) still continues in almost all cases, except in actions of debt; though now, by virtue of the statutes above cited and others, a *capias* might be had upon almost every species of complaint.

If therefore the defendant, being summoned or attached, makes default, and neglects to appear; or if the sheriff returns a *nihil*, or that the defendant hath nothing whereby he may be summoned, attached, or distrained, the *capias* now usually issues: being a writ commanding the sheriff to take the body of the defendant, if he may be found in his bailiwick or county, and him safely to keep, so that he may have him in court on the day of the return, to answer to the plaintiff of a plea of debt, or trespass, &c. as the case may be. This writ, and all others subsequent to the original writ, not issuing out of chancery, but from the court into which the original was returnable, and being grounded on what has passed in that court in consequence of the sheriff's return, are called *judicial*, not *original*, writs; they issue under the private seal of that court, and not under the great seal of England; and are *test*'d, not in the king's name, but in that of the chief justice only. And these several writs being grounded on the sheriff's return, must respectively bear date the same day on which the writ immediately preceding was returnable.

This is the regular and orderly method of process. But it is now usual in practice, to sue out the *capias* in the first instance, upon a supposed return of the sheriff; especially if it be suspected that the defendant, upon notice of the action, will abscond; and afterwards a fictitious original is drawn up, with a proper return thereupon, in order to give the proceedings a colour of regularity. When this *capias* is delivered to the sheriff, he by his under-sheriff grants a warrant to his inferior officers or bailiffs to execute it on the defendant. And, if the sheriff of Oxfordshire (in which county the injury is supposed to be committed and the action is laid) cannot find the defendant in his jurisdiction, he returns that he is not found, *non est inventus*, in his bailiwick: whereupon another writ issues, called a *testatum capias*, directed to the sheriff of the county where the defendant is supposed to reside; as of Berkshire, reciting the former writ, and that it is testified, *testatum est*, that the defendant lurks or wanders in his bailiwick, where he is commanded to take him, as in the former *capias*,. But here also, when the action is brought in one county and the defendant lives in another, it is usual, for saving trouble, time, and expence, to make out a *testatum capias* at the first; supposing not only an original, but also a former *capias*, to have been granted; which in fact never was. And this fiction, being beneficial to all parties, is readily acquiesced in, and is now become the settled practice; being one among many instances to illustrate that maxim of law, that *in fictione juris consistit æquitas*.

But where a defendant absconds, and the plaintiff would proceed to an outlawry against him, an original writ must then be sued out regularly, and after that a *capias*. And if the sheriff cannot find the defendant upon the first writ of *capias*, and returns a *non est inventus*, there issues out an *alias* writ, and after that a *pluries*, to the same effect as the former: only after these words "we command you," this clause is inserted, "as we have formerly," or, "as we have often, commanded you;"—"*sicut* alius," or, "*sicut* pluries, *præcepimus*." And if a *non est inventus* is returned upon all of them, then a writ of *exigent* or *exigi facias* may be sued out, which requires the sheriff to cause the defendant to be proclaimed, required, or exacted, in five county-courts successively, to render himself; and if he does, then to take him, as in a *capias*: but if he does not appear, and is returned

turned *quinto exactus*, he shall then be outlawed by the coroners of the county. Also by statute 6 Hen. VIII. c. 4. and 31 Eliz. c. 3. whether the defendant dwells within the same or another county than that wherein the *exigent* is fued out, a *writ of proclamation* shall issue out at the same time with the *exigent*, commanding the sheriff of the county, wherein the defendant dwells, to make three proclamations thereof in places the most notorious, and most likely to come to his knowledge, a month before the outlawry shall take place. Such outlawry is putting a man out of the protection of the law, so that he is incapable to bring an action for redress of injuries; and it is also attended with a forfeiture of all one's goods and chattels to the king. And therefore, till some time after the conquest, no man could be outlawed but for felony: but in Bracton's time, and somewhat earlier, process of outlawry was ordained to lie in all actions for trespasses *vi et armis*. And since, by a variety of statutes (the same which allow the writ of *capias* beforementioned) process of outlawry doth lie in divers actions that are merely civil; providing they be commenced by original and not by bill. If after outlawry the defendant appears publicly, he may be arrested by a writ of *capias utlagatum*, and committed till the outlawry be reversed. Which reversal may be had by the defendant's appearing personally in court (and in the king's bench without any personal appearance, so that he appears by attorney, according to statute 4 & 5 W. & M. c. 18.) and any plausible cause, however slight, will in general be sufficient to reverse it, it being considered only as a process to compel an appearance. But then the defendant must pay full costs, and put the plaintiff in the same condition as if he had appeared before the writ of *exigi facias* was awarded.

Such is the first process in the court of common pleas. In the king's bench they may also (and frequently do) proceed in certain causes, particularly in actions of ejectment and trespass, by *original* writ, with *attachment* and *capias* thereon; returnable, not at Westminster, where the common pleas are now fixed in consequence of *magna carta*, but *ubicunque fuerimus in Anglia*, wheresoever the king shall then be in England; the king's bench being removeable into any part of England at the pleasure and discretion of the crown. But the more usual method of proceeding therein is without any original, but by a peculiar species of process intitled a *bill of Middlesex;* and therefore so intitled, because the court now sits in that county; for if it sat in Kent, it would then be a bill of Kent. For though, as the justices of this court have, by its fundamental constitution, power to determine all offences and trespasses, by the common law and custom of the realm, it needed no original writ from the crown to give it cognizance of any misdemesnor in the county wherein it resides; yet as, by this court's coming into any county, it immediately superseded the ordinary administration of justice by the general commissions of *eyre* and of *oyer and terminer*, a process of its own became necessary, within the county where it sat, to bring in such persons as were accused of committing any forcible injury. The bill of Middlesex (which was formerly always founded on a plaint of trespass *quare clausum fregit*, entered on the records of the court) is a kind of *capias*, directed to the sheriff of that county, and commanding him to take the defendant, and have him before our lord the king at Westminster on a day prefixed, to answer to the plaintiff of a plea of trespass. For this accusation of trespass it is that gives the court of king's bench jurisdiction in other civil causes, as was elsewhere observed; since, when once the defendant is taken into custody of the marshal, or prison-keeper of this court, for the supposed trespass, he, being then a prisoner of this court, may here be prosecuted for any other species of injury. Yet, in order to found this jurisdiction, it is not necessary that the defendant be actually the marshal's prisoner; for, as soon as he appears, or puts in bail, to the process, he is deemed by so doing to be in such custody of the marshal, as will give the court a jurisdiction to proceed. And, upon these accounts, in the bill or process, a complaint of trespass is always suggested, whatever else may be the real cause of action. This bill of Middlesex must be served on the defendant by the sheriff, if he finds him in that county: but if he returns, *non est inventus*, then there issues out a writ of *latitat*, to the sheriff of another county, as Berks; which is similar to the *testatum capias* in the common pleas, and recites the bill of Middlesex and the proceedings thereon, and that it is testified that the defendant *latitat et discurrit*, lurks and wanders about in Berks; and therefore commands the sheriff to take him, and have his body in court on the day of the return. But as in the common pleas the *testatum capias* may be sued out upon only a supposed, and not an actual, preceding *capias;* so in the king's bench a *latitat* is usually sued out upon only a supposed, and not an actual, bill of Middlesex. So that, in fact, a *latitat* may be called the first process in the court of king's bench, as the *testatum capias* is in the common pleas. Yet, as in the common pleas, if the defendant lives in the county wherein the action is laid, a common *capias* suffices; so in the king's bench likewise, if he lives in Middlesex, the process must still be by bill of Middlesex only.

In the exchequer the first process is by write of *quo minus*, in order to give the court a jurisdiction over pleas between party and party. In which writ the plaintiff is alleged to be the king's farmer or debtor, and that the defendant hath done him the injury complained of, *quo minus sufficiens existit*, by which he is the less able to pay the king's his rent or debt. And upon this the defendant may be arrested as upon a *capias* from the common pleas.

Thus differently do the three courts set out at first, in the commencement of a suit, in order to entitle the two courts of king's bench and exchequer to hold plea in subjects causes, which by the original constitution of Westminster-hall they were not empowered to do. Afterwards, when the cause is once drawn into the respective courts, the method of pursuing it is pretty much the same in all of them.

If the sheriff had found the defendant upon any of the former writs, the *capias latitat*, &c. he was anciently obliged to take him into custody, in order to produce him in court upon the return, however small and minute the cause of action might be. For, not having obeyed the original summons, he had shown a contempt of the court, and was no longer to be trusted

Process. at large. But when the summons fell into disuse, and the *capias* became in fact the first process, it was thought hard to imprison a man for a contempt which was only supposed: and therefore, in common cases by the gradual indulgence of the courts (at length authorised by statute 12 Geo. I. c. 29. which was amended by statute 5 Geo. II. c. 27. and made perpetual by statute 21 Geo. II. c. 3.) the sheriff or his officer can now only personally serve the defendant with the copy of the writ or process, and with notice in writing to appear by his attorney in court to defend this action; which in effect reduces it to a mere summons. And if the defendant thinks proper to appear upon this notice, his appearance is recorded, and he puts in sureties for his future attendance and obedience; which sureties are called *common bail*, being the same two imaginary persons that were pledges for the plaintiff's prosecution, John Doe and Richard Roe. Or, if the defendant does not appear upon the return of the writ, or within four (or in some cases eight) days after, the plaintiff may enter an appearance for him, as if he had really appeared; and may file common bail in the defendant's name, and proceed thereupon as if the defendant had done it himself.

But if the plaintiff will make affidavit, or assert upon oath, that the cause of action amounts to ten pounds or upwards, then in order to arrest the defendant, and make him put in substantial sureties for his appearance, called *special bail*, it is required by statute 13 Car. II. stat. 2. c. 2. that the true cause of action should be expressed in the body of the writ or process: else no security can be taken in a greater sum than L. 40. This statute (without any such intention in the makers) had like to have ousted the king's bench of all its jurisdiction over civil injuries without force: for, as the bill of Middlesex was framed only for actions of trespass, a defendant could not be arrested and held to bail thereupon for breaches of civil contracts. But to remedy this inconvenience, the officers of the king's bench devised a method of adding what is called a clause of *ac etiam* to the usual complaint of trespass; the bill of Middlesex commanding the defendant to be brought in to answer the plaintiff of a plea of trespass, *and also* to a bill of debt: the complaint of trespass giving cognizance to the court, and that of debt authorising the arrest. In imitation of which, lord chief justice North, a few years afterwards, in order to save the suitors of his court the trouble and expence of suing out special originals, directed, that in the common pleas, besides the usual complaint of breaking the plaintiff's close, a clause of *ac etiam* might be also added to the writ of *capias*, containing the true cause of action; as, "that the said Charles the defendant may answer to the plaintiff of a plea of trespass in breaking his close: and also, *ac etiam*, may answer him, according to the custom of the court, in a certain plea of trespass upon the case, upon promises, to the value of twenty pounds, &c." The sum sworn to by the plaintiff is marked upon the back of the writ; and the sheriff, or his officer the bailiff, is then obliged actually to arrest or take into custody the body of the defendant, and, having so done, to return the writ with a *cepi corpus* endorsed thereon. See ARREST.

When the defendant is regularly arrested, he must either go to prison, for safe custody; or put in *special bail* to the sheriff. For, the intent of the arrest being only to compel an appearance in court at the return of the writ, that purpose is equally answered, whether the sheriff detains his person, or takes sufficient security for his appearance, called *bail*, (from the French word *bailler*, to deliver), because the defendant is bailed, or delivered, to his sureties, upon their giving security for his appearance; and is supposed to continue in their friendly custody instead of going to gaol. See BAIL. The method of putting in bail to the sheriff is by entering into a bond or obligation, with one or more sureties, (not fictitious persons, as in the former case of common bail, but real, substantial, responsible bondsmen), to insure the defendant's appearance at the return of the writ; which obligation is called the *bail-bond*. The sheriff, if he pleases, *may* let the defendant go without any sureties; but that is at his own peril: for, after once taking him, the sheriff is bound to keep him safely, so as to be forthcoming in court; otherwise an action lies against him for an escape. But, on the other hand, he is obliged, by statute 23 Hen. VI. c. 10. to take (if it be tendered) a sufficient bail-bond: and, by statute 12 Geo. I. c. 29. the sheriff shall take bail for no other sum than such as is sworn to by the plaintiff, and endorsed on the back of the writ.

Upon the return of the writ, or within four days after, the defendant must *appear* according to the exigency of the writ. This *appearance* is effected by putting in and justifying bail *to the action*; which is commonly called *putting in bail above*. If this be not done, and the bail that were taken by the sheriff *below* are are responsible persons, the plaintiff may take an assignment from the sheriff of the bail-bond (under the statute 4 & 5 Ann. c. 16.) and bring an action thereupon against the sheriff's bail. But if the bail so accepted by the sheriff, be insolvent persons, the plaintiff may proceed against the sheriff himself, by calling upon him, first to return the writ (if not already done), and afterwards to bring in the body of the defendant. And if the sheriff does not then cause sufficient bail to be put in *above*, he will himself be responsible to the plaintiff.

The bail *above*, or bail *to the action*, must be put in either in open court, or before one of the judges thereof; or else, in the country, before a commissioner appointed for that purpose by virtue of the statute 4 W. & M. c. 4. which must be transmitted to the court. These bail, who must at least be two in number, must enter into a recognisance in court, or before the judge or commissioner, whereby they do jointly and severally undertake, that if the defendant be condemned in the action, he shall pay the costs and condemnation, or render himself a prisoner, or that they will pay it for him: which recognisance is transmitted to the court in a slip of parchment, intitled a *bail-piece*. And, if required, the bail must *justify* themselves in court, or before the commissioner in the country, by swearing themselves housekeepers, and each of them to be worth double the sum for which they are bail, after payment of all their debts. This answers in some measure to the *stipulatio* or *satisdatio* of the Roman laws, which is mutually given by each litigant party to the other: by the plaintiff, that he will pro-

profecute his fuit, and pay the costs if he loses his cause; in like manner as our law still requires nominal pledges of prosecution from the plaintiff: by the defendant, that he shall continue in court, and abide the sentence of the judge, much like our special bail; but with this difference, that the *fidejussores* were there absolutely bound *judicatum solvere*, to see the costs and condemnation paid at all events: whereas our special bail may be discharged, by surrendering the defendant into custody within the time allowed by law; for which purpose they are at all times entitled to a warrant to apprehend him.

Special bail is required (as of course) only upon actions of debt, or actions on the case in trover, or for money due, where the plaintiff can swear that the cause of action amounts to ten pounds: but in actions where the damages are precarious, being to be assessed *ad libitum* by a jury, as in actions for words, ejectment, or trespass, it is very seldom possible for a plaintiff to swear to the amount of his cause of action; and therefore no special bail is taken thereon, unless by a judge's order, or the particular directions of the court, in some peculiar species of injuries, as in cases of mayhem or atrocious battery; or upon such special circumstances as make it absolutely necessary that the defendant should be kept within the reach of justice. Also in actions against heirs, executors, and administrators, for debts of the deceased, special bail is not demandable; for the action is not so properly against them in person, as against the effects of the deceased in their possession. But special bail is required even of them, in actions for a *devastavit*, or wasting the goods of the deceased; that wrong being of their own committing.

Thus much for *process*; which is only meant to bring the defendant into court, in order to contest the suit, and abide the determination of the law. When he appears either in person as a prisoner, or out upon bail, then follow the *pleadings* between the parties. See PLEADINGS.

PROCESS *upon an Indictment*. See PROSECUTION. The proper process on an indictment for any petty misdemesnor, or on a penal statute, is a writ of *venire facias*, which is in the nature of a summons to cause the party to appear. And if by the return to such *venire* it appears, that the party hath lands in the county whereby he may be distrained, then a *distress infinite* shall be issued from time to time till he appears. But if the sheriff returns, that he hath no lands in his bailiwick, then (upon his non-appearance) a writ of *capias* shall issue, which commands the sheriff to take his body, and have him at the next assises; and if he cannot be taken upon the first *capias*, a second and a third shall issue, called an *alias*, and a *pluries capias*. But, on indictments for treason or felony, a *capias* is the first process: and, for treason or homicide, only one shall be allowed to issue, or two in the case of other felonies, by statute 25 Edw. III. c. 14. though the usage is to issue only one in any felony; the provisions of this statute being in most cases found impracticable. And so, in the case of misdemesnors, it is now the usual practice for any judge of the court of king's bench, upon certificate of an indictment found, to award a writ of *capias* immediately, in order to bring in the defendant. But if he absconds, and it is thought proper to pursue him to an outlawry, then a greater exactness is necessary. For, in such case, after the several writs have issued in a regular number, according to the nature of the respective crimes, without any effect, the offender shall be put in the *exigent* in order to his outlawry: that is, he shall be exacted, proclaimed, or required, to surrender, at five county-courts; and if he be returned *quinto exactus*, and does not appear at the fifth exaction or requisition, then he is adjudged to be *outlawed*, or put out of the protection of the law; so that he is incapable of taking the benefit of it in any respect, either by bringing actions or otherwise.

The punishment, for outlawries upon indictments for misdemesnors, is the same as for outlawries upon civil actions; viz. forfeiture of goods and chattels. But an outlawry in treason or felony, amounts to a conviction and attainder of the offence charged in the indictment, as much as if the offender had been found guilty by his country. His life is, however, still under the protection of the law, as hath elsewhere been observed; (see HOMICIDE:) that though anciently an outlawed felon was said to have *caput lupinum*, and might be knocked on the head like a wolf, by any one that should meet him; because, having renounced all law, he was to be dealt with as in a state of nature, when every one that should find him might slay him: yet now, to avoid such inhumanity, it is holden that no man is entitled to kill him wantonly or wilfully; but in so doing is guilty of murder, unless it happens in the endeavour to apprehend him. For any person may arrest an outlaw on a criminal prosecution, either of his own head, or by writ or warrant of *capias utlagatum*, in order to bring him to execution. But such outlawry may be frequently reversed by writ of error; the proceedings therein being (as it is fit they should be) exceedingly nice and circumstantial; and if any single minute point be omitted or misconducted, the whole outlawry is illegal, and may be reversed: upon which reversal the party accused is admitted to plead to, and defend himself against, the indictment.

Thus much for process to bring in the offender after indictment found; during which stage of the prosecution it is that writs of *certiorari facias* are usually had, though they may be had at any time before trial, to certify and remove the indictment, with all the proceedings theron, from any inferior court of criminal jurisdiction into the court of king's bench; which is the sovereign ordinary court of justice in causes criminal. And this is frequently done for one of these four purposes; either, 1. To consider and determine the validity of appeals or indictments and the proceedings thereon; and to quash or confirm them as there is cause: or, 2. Where it is surmised that a partial or insufficient trial will probably be had in the court below, the indictment is removed, in order to have the prisoner or defendant tried at the bar of the court of king's bench, or before the justices of *nisi prius*: or, 3. It is so removed, in order to plead the king's pardon there: or, 4. To issue process of outlawry against the offender, in those counties or places where the process of the inferior judges will not reach him. Such writ of *certiorari*, when issued and delivered to the inferior court for removing any record or other proceed-

Process || Proclamations.

ceeding, as well upon indictment as otherwise, supersedes the jurisdiction of such inferior court, and makes all subsequent proceedings therein entirely erroneous and illegal; unless the court of king's bench remands the record to the court below, to be there tried and determined. A *certiorari* may be granted at the instance of either the prosecutor or the defendant: the former as a matter of right, the latter as a matter of discretion; and therefore it is seldom granted to remove indictments from the justices of goal-delivery, or after issue joined, or confession of the fact in any of the courts below.

At this stage of prosecution also it is, that indictments found by the grand jury against a peer, must, in consequence of a writ of *certiorari*, be certified and transmitted into the court of parliament, or into that of the lord high steward of Great Britain; and that, in places of exclusive jurisdiction, as the two universities, indictments must be delivered (upon challenge and claim of cognizance) to the courts therein established by charter, and confirmed by act of parliament, to be there respectively tried and determined. See PLEA.

PROCESS, in chemistry, the whole course of an experiment or series of operations, tending to produce something new.

PROCESS, in anatomy, denotes any protuberance or eminence in a bone.

PROCESSION, a ceremony in the Romish church, consisting of a formal march of the clergy and people, putting up prayers, &c. and in this manner visiting some church, &c. They have also processions of the host or sacrament, &c. See HOST.

PROCHEIN AMY, in law, the person next akin to a child in non-age, and who, in that respect, is allowed to act for him, and be his guardian, &c. if he hold land in soccage.

To sue, an infant is not allowed to make an attorney; but the court will admit his next friend as plaintiff, or his guardian as defendant.

PROCLAMATION, a public notice given of any thing of which the king thinks proper to advertise his subjects.

Proclamations are a branch of the king's prerogative *; and have then a binding force, when (as Sir Edward Coke observes) they are grounded upon and enforce the laws of the realm. For, though the making of laws is entirely the work of a distinct part, the legislative branch of the sovereign power, yet the manner, time, and circumstances of putting those laws in execution, must frequently be left to the discretion of the executive magistrate. And therefore his constitutions or edicts, concerning those points which we call *proclamations*, are binding upon the subject, where they do not either contradict the old laws, or tend to establish new ones; but only enforce the execution of such laws as are already in being, in such manner as the king shall judge necessary. Thus the established law is, that the king may prohibit any of his subjects from leaving the realm: a proclamation therefore forbidding this in general for three weeks, by laying an embargo upon all shipping in time of war, will be equally binding as an act of parliament, because founded upon a prior law. But a proclamation to lay an embargo in time of peace upon all vessels laden with wheat, (though in the time of a public scarcity), being contrary to law, and particularly to statute 22 Car. II. c. 13. the advisers of such a proclamation, and all persons acting under it, found it necessary to be indemnified by a special act of parliament, 7 Geo. III. c. 7. A proclamation for disarming Papists is also binding, being only in execution of what the legislature has first ordained: but a proclamation for allowing arms to Papists, or for disarming any Protestant subjects, will not bind; because the first would be to assume a dispensing power, the latter a legislative one; to the vesting of either of which in any single person the laws of England are absolutely strangers. Indeed, by the statute 31 Hen. VIII. c. 8. it was enacted, that the king's proclamations should have the force of acts of parliament: a statute, which was calculated to introduce the most despotic tyranny; and which must have proved fatal to the liberties of this kingdom, had it not been luckily repealed in the minority of his successor, about five years after.

* See *Prerogative*.

Proclus || Product.

PROCLUS, surnamed DIADOCUS, a Greek philosopher and mathematician, was born in Lycia, and lived about the year 500. He was the disciple of Syrianus, and had a great share in the friendship of the emperor Anastasius. It is said, that when Vitalian laid siege to Constantinople, Proclus burnt his ships with large brazen speculums. This philosopher was a pagan, and wrote against the Christian religion. There are still extant his Commentaries on some of Plato's books, and other of his works written in Greek.

PROCONSUL, a Roman magistrate, sent to govern a province with consular authority.

The proconsuls were appointed out of the body of the senate; and usually as the year of any one's consulate expired, he was sent proconsul into some province.

The proconsuls decided cases of equity and justice, either privately in their pretorium or palace, where they received petitions, heard complaints, granted writs under their seal, and the like; or else publicly, in the common hall, with the usual formalities observed in the court of judicature at Rome. They had besides, by virtue of their edicts, the power of ordering all things relating to the tribunes, taxes, contributions, and provisions of corn and money, &c. Their office lasted only a year. See CONSUL.

PROCOPIUS, a famous Greek historian, born in Cæsaria, acquired great reputation by his works in the reign of Justinian, and was secretary to Belisarius during all the wars carried on by that general in Persia, Africa, and Italy. He at length became senator, obtained the title of *illustrious*, and was made pretor of Constantinople.

PROCREATION, the begetting and bringing forth children. See GENERATION.

PROCTOR, a person commissioned to manage another person's cause in any court of the civil or ecclesiastical law.

PROCURATION, an act or instrument by which a person is empowered to treat, transact, receive, &c. in another person's name.

PROCURATOR, a person who has a charge committed to him to act for another.

PRODUCT, in arithmetic and geometry, the factum of two or more numbers, or lines, &c. into one another: thus $5 \times 4 = 20$ the product required.

PRO-

PROFANATION, the acting disrespectfully to sacred things.

PROFANE, a term used in opposition to *holy;* and in general is applied to all persons who have not the sacred character, and to things which do not belong to the service of religion.

PROFESSION, among the Romanists, denotes the entering into a religious order, whereby a person offers himself to God by a vow of inviolably observing obedience, chastity, and poverty.

PROFESSOR, in the universities, a person who teaches or reads public lectures in some art or science from a chair for the purpose.

PROFILE, in architecture, the draught of a building, fortification, &c. wherein are expressed the several heights, widths, and thicknesses, such as they would appear were the building cut down perpedicularly from the roof to the foundation. Whence the profile is also called the *section*, sometimes *orthographical section*, and by Vitruvius also *sciagraphy*.

Profile, in this sense, amounts to the same with *elevation;* and stands opposed to a *plan* or *ichnography*.

PROFILE is also used for the contour or out-line of a figure, building, member of architecture, or the like; as a base, a cornice, &c. Hence *profiling* is sometimes used for designing, or describing the member with rule, compass, &c.

PROFILE, in sculpture and painting.—A head, a portrait, &c. are said to be in *profile*, when they are represented sidewise, or in a side-view; as, when in a portrait there is but one side of the face, one eye, one cheek, &c. shown, and nothing of the other.—On almost all medals, the faces are represented in *profile*.

PROFLUVIUM, in medicine, denotes a flux, or liquid evacuation of any thing.

PROGNOSTIC, among physicians, signifies a judgment concerning the event of a disease, as whether it shall end in life or death, be short or long, mild or malignant, &c.

PROGRAMMA, anciently signified a letter sealed with the king's seal.

Programma is also an university term for a billet or advertisement, posted up or given into the hand, by way of invitation to an oration, &c. containing the argument, or so much as is necessary for understanding thereof.

PROGRESSION, in general, denotes a regular advancing, or going forward, in the same course and manner.

PROGRESSION, in mathematics, is either arithmetical or geometrical. Continued arithmetic proportion is, where the terms do increase and decrease by equal differences and is called *arithmetic progression:*

$$\text{thus} \begin{cases} a,\ a+d,\ a+2d,\ a+3d, \text{ \&c. increasing} \\ a,\ a-d,\ a-2d,\ a-3d, \text{ \&c. decreasing} \end{cases} \text{by the difference } d.$$

$$\text{In numbers} \begin{cases} 2,\ 4,\ 6,\ 8,\ 10, \text{ \&c. increasing} \\ 10,\ 8,\ 6,\ 4,\ 2, \text{ \&c. decreasing} \end{cases} \text{by the difference 2.}$$

Geometric Progression, or *Continued Geometric Proportion*, is when the terms do increase or decrease by equal ratios: thus,

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} a,\ ar,\ arr,\ arrr, \text{\&c. increasing} \\ a,\ \frac{a}{r},\ \frac{a}{rr},\ \frac{a}{rrr}, \text{ \&c. decreasing} \end{array}\right\} \text{from a continual} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{multiplication} \\ \text{division}\end{array}\right\} \text{by } r.$$

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} 2,\ 4,\ 8,\ 16,\ 32,\ 64, \text{ increasing} \\ 64,\ 32,\ 16,\ 8,\ 4,\ 2, \text{ decreasing} \end{array}\right\} \text{from a continual} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{multiplication} \\ \text{division}\end{array}\right\} \text{by 2.}$$

See the articles FLUXIONS, GEOMETRY, and SERIES.

PROJECTILES, are such bodies as, being put in a violent motion by any great force, are then cast off or let go from the place where they received their quantity of motion: as a stone thrown from a sling, an arrow from a bow, a bullet from a gun, &c.

It is usually taken for granted, by those who treat of the motion of projectiles, that the force of gravity near the earth's surface is every where the same, and acts in parallel directions; and that the effect of the air's resistance upon very heavy bodies, such as bombs and cannon-balls, is too small to be taken into consideration.

The famous Sir Isaac Newton has shown, that the gravity of bodies which are above the superficies of the earth, is reciprocally as the squares of their distances from its centre; but the theorems concerning the descent of heavy bodies, demonstrated by Galilæus, Huygens, and others, are built upon this foundation, that the action of gravity is the same at all distances: and the consequences of this hypothesis are found to be very nearly agreeable to experience. For it is obvious, that the error arising from the supposition of gravity's acting uniformly, and in parallel lines, must be exceeding small; because even the greatest distance of a projectile above the surface of the earth, is inconsiderable in comparison of the distance from the centre to which the gravitation tends. But then, on the other hand, it is very certain, that the resistance of the air to very swift motions, is much greater than it has been commonly represented. Nevertheless, (in the application of this doctrine to gunnery), if the amplitude of the projection, answering to one given elevation, be first found by experiment, (which we suppose), the amplitudes in all other cases, where the elevations and velocities do not very much differ from the first, may be determined, to a sufficient degree of exactness, from the foregoing hypothesis: because, in all such cases, the effects of the resistance will be nearly as the amplitudes themselves; and were they accurately so, the proportions of the amplitudes, at different elevations, would then be the very same as in vacuo.

Now, in order to form a clear idea of the subject here proposed, the path of every projectile is to be considered as depending on two different forces: that is to say, on the impellant force, whereby the motion is first begun, (and would be continued in a right line); and

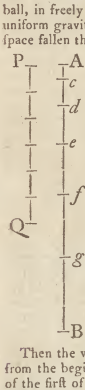
Projectiles. and on the force of gravity, by which the projectile, during the whole time of its flight, is continually urged downwards, and made to deviate more and more from its first direction. As whatever relates to the track and flight of a projectile or ball (neglecting the resistance of the air) is to be determined from the action of these two forces, it will be proper, before we proceed to consider their joint effect, to premise something concerning the nature of the motion produced by each, when supposed to act alone, independent of the other; to which end we have premised the two following lemmata.

Lem. I. Every body, after the impressed force whereby it is put in motion ceases to act, continues to move uniformly in a right line; unless it be interrupted by some other force or impediment.

This is a law of nature, and has its demonstration from experience and matter of fact.

Corollary. It follows from hence, that a ball, after leaving the mouth of the piece, would continue to move along the line of its first direction, and describe spaces therein proportional to the times of their description, were it not for the action of gravity, whereby the direction is changed, and the motion interrupted.

Lem. II. The motion or velocity acquired by a ball, in freely descending from rest, by the force of an uniform gravity, is as the time of the descent; and the space fallen through, as the square of that time.



The first part of this lemma is extremely obvious: for since every motion is proportional to the force whereby it is generated, that generated by the force of an uniform gravity must be as the time of the descent; because the whole effort of such a force is proportional to the time of its action; that is, as the time of the descent.

To demonstrate that the distances descended are proportional to the squares of the times, let the time of falling through any proposed distance AB, be represented by the right line PQ; which conceive to be divided into an indefinite number of very small, equal particles, represented each by the symbol m; and let the distance descended in the first of them be Ac; in the second cd; in the third de; and so on.

Then the velocity acquired being always as the time from the beginning of the descent, it will at the middle of the first of the said particles be represented by $\frac{1}{2}m$; at the middle of the second, by $1\frac{1}{2}m$; at the middle of the third, by $2\frac{1}{2}m$, &c. which values constitute the series $\frac{m}{2}, \frac{3m}{2}, \frac{5m}{2}, \frac{7m}{2}, \frac{9m}{2}$, &c.

But since the velocity, at the middle of any one of the said particles of time, is an exact mean between the velocities of the two extremes thereof, the corresponding particle of the distance AB may be therefore considered as described with that mean velocity: and so the spaces Ac, cd, de, ef, &c. being respectively equal to the abovementioned quantities $\frac{m}{2}, \frac{3m}{2}, \frac{5m}{2}, \frac{7m}{2}, \frac{9m}{2}$, &c. it follows, by the continual addition of these, that the spaces Ac, Ad, Ae, Af, &c. fallen thro' from the beginning, will be expressed by $\frac{m}{2}, \frac{4m}{2}, \frac{9m}{2}, \frac{16m}{2}, \frac{25m}{2}$, &c. which are evidently to one another in proportion, as 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, &c. that is, as the squares of the times. *Q. E. D.* Projectiles.

Corol. Seeing the velocity acquired in any number (n) of the aforesaid equal particles of time (measured in the space that would be described in one single particle) is represented by (n) times m, or nm; it will therefore be as one particle of time is to n such particles, so is nm, the said distance answering to the former time, to the distance, n^2m, corresponding to the latter, with the same celerity acquired at the end of the said n particles. Whence it appears, that the space $\frac{n^2m}{2}$ (found above) through which the ball falls in any given time n, is just the half of that time (n^2m) which might be uniformly described with the last, or greatest celerity in the same time.

Schol. It is found by experiment, that any heavy body near the earth's surface (where the force of gravity may be considered as uniform) descends about 16 feet from rest, in the first second of time. Therefore, as the distances fallen through are proved above to be in proportion as the squares of the time, it follows, that as the square of one second is to the square of any given number of seconds, so is 16 feet to the number of feet a heavy body will freely descend in the said number of seconds. Whence the number of feet descended in any given time will be found, by multiplying the square of the number of seconds by 16. Thus the distance descended in 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. seconds, will appear to be 64, 144, 256, 400 feet, &c. respectively. Moreover, from hence, the time of the descent through any given distance will be obtained, by dividing the said distance in feet by 16, and extracting the square root of the quotient; or, which comes to the same thing, by extracting the square root of the whole distance, and then taking $\frac{1}{4}$ of that root for the number of seconds required. Thus, if the distance be supposed 2640 feet; then, by either of the two ways, the time of the descent will come out 12.84, or 12.50 seconds.

It appears also (from the corol.) that the velocity *per* second (in feet) at the end of the fall, will be determined by multiplying the number of seconds in the fall by 32. Thus it is found, that a ball, at the end of 10 seconds, has acquired a velocity of 320 feet *per* second. After the same manner, by having any two of the four following quantities, *viz.* the force, the times, the velocity, and distance, the other two may be determined; for let the space freely descended by a ball, in the first second of time (which is as the accelerating force) be denoted by F; also let T denote the number of seconds wherein any distance, D, is descended; and let V be the velocity *per* second, at the end of the descent: then will $V=2FT=2\sqrt{FD}=\frac{2DT}{T}=\sqrt{\frac{D}{F}}=\frac{V}{2F}=\frac{2DD}{V}=\frac{FTT}{4F}=\frac{VV}{2}=\frac{TVF}{TT}=\frac{D}{2T}=\frac{V}{4D}=VV.$

All

Fig. 1. Vegetable Cabinet. Plate CCXLVI.

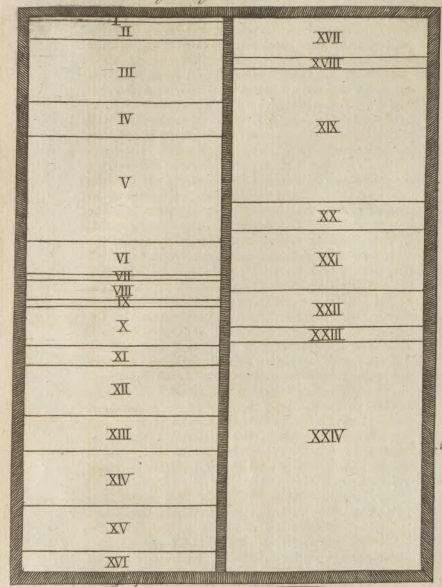


Fig. 2.

PROJECTILES.

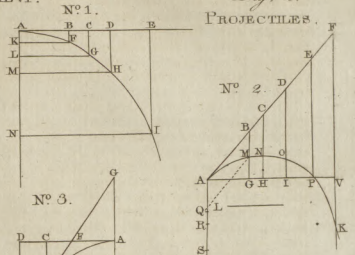


Fig. 3.

Orthographic PROJECTION.

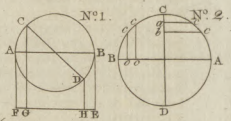
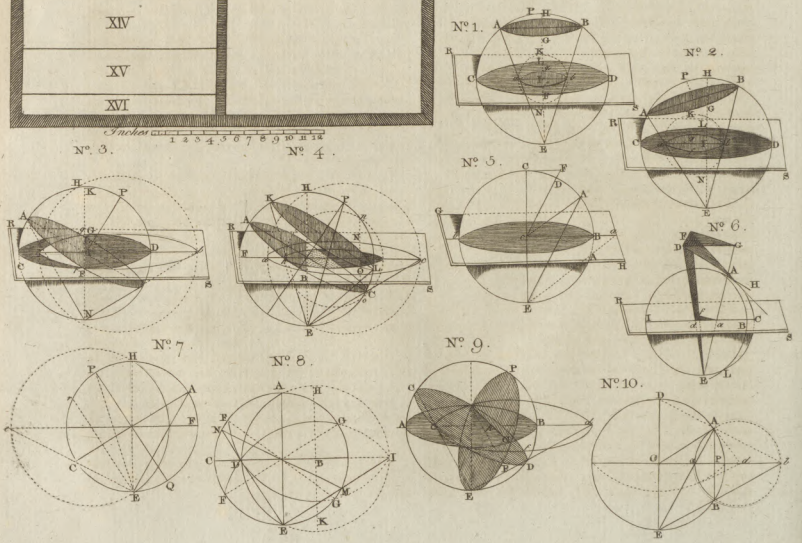


Fig. 4.

Stereographic PROJECTION of the Sphere.



A Bell Sculp.

Projectiles. All which equations are very easily deduced from the two original ones, D=FTT, and V=2FT, already demonstrated; the former in the proposition itself, and the latter in the corollary to it; by which it appears, that the measure of the velocity at the end of the first second is 2F; whence the velocity (V) at the end of (T) seconds must consequently be expressed by 2F×T or 2TT.

Theorem 1. A projected body, whose line of direction is parallel to the plane of the horizon, describes by its fall a parabola. If the heavy body is thrown by any extrinsical force, as that of a gun or the like, from the point A, (fig. 2. n° 1.) so that the direction of its projection is the horizontal line AD; the path of this heavy body will be a semi-parabola. For if the air did not resist it, nor was it acted on by its gravity, the projectile would proceed with an equable motion, always in the same direction; and the times wherein the parts of space AB, AC, AD, AE, were passed over, would be as the spaces AB, AC, AD, &c. respectively. Now if the force of gravity is supposed to take place, and to act in the same tenour as if the heavy body were not impelled by any extrinsical force, that body would constantly decline from the right-line AE; and the spaces of descent, or the deviations from the horizontal line AE, will be the same as if it had fallen perpendicularly. Wherefore if the body falling perpendicularly by the force of its gravity, passed over the space AK in the time AB, descended through AL in the time AC, and through AM in the time AD; the spaces AK, AL, AM, will be as the squares of the times, that is, as the squares of the right-lines AB, AC, AD, &c. or KF, LG, MH. But since the impetus in the direction parallel to the horizon always remains the same, (for the force of gravity, that only solicits the body downwards, is not in the least contrary to it), the body will be equally promoted forwards in the direction parallel to the plane of the horizon, as if there was no gravity at all. Wherefore, since in the time AB, the body passes over a space equal to AB; but being compelled by the force of gravity, it declines from the right-line AB through a space equal to AK; and BF being equal and parallel to AK, at the end of the time AB, the body will be in F; so in the same manner, at the end of the time AE, the body will be in I, and the path of the projectile will be in the curve AFGHI; but because the squares of the right lines KF, LG, MH, NI, are proportionable to the abscisses AK, AL, AM, AN. The curve AFGHI will be a semi-parabola. The path, therefore, of a heavy body projected according to the direction AE, will be a semi-parabolical curve.

Plate CCXLVI.

Theorem 2. The curve line that is described by a heavy body projected obliquely and upwards, according to any direction, is a parabola.

Let AF (ibid. n° 2.) be the direction of projection, any ways inclined to the horizon, gravity being supposed not to act, the moving body would always continue its motion in the same right-line, and would describe the spaces AB, AC, AD, &c. proportional to the times. But by the action of gravity it is compelled continually to decline from the path AF, and to move in a curve, which will be a parabola. Let us suppose the heavy body falling perpendicularly in the time AB, through the space AQ, and in the time AC, through the space AR, &c. The spaces AQ, AR, AS, will be as the squares of the times, or as the squares of AB, AC, AD. It is manifest from what was demonstrated in the last theorem, that if in the perpendicular BG, there is taken BM=AQ, and the parallelogram be completed, the place of the heavy body at the end of the time AB, will be M, and so of the rest; and all the deviations BM, &c. from the right-line AF, arising from the times, will be equal to the spaces AQ, AR, AS, which are as the squares of the right-lines AB, AC, AD. Through A draw the horizontal right-line AP, meeting the path of the projectile P. From P raise the perpendicular PE, meeting the line of direction in E; and by reason the triangles ABG, ACH, &c. are equiangular, the squares of the right-lines AB, AC, &c. will be proportionable to the squares of AG, AH, &c. so that the deviations BM, CN, &c. will be proportionable to the squares of the right lines AG, AH, &c. Let the line L be a third proportional to EP and AP; and it will be (by 17 El. 6.) L×EP=AP*q*. but AP*q*. : AG*q*. :: EP : BM :: L ×EP : L×BM; whence since it is L×EP=AP*q*. it will be L×BM=AG*q*. In like manner it will be L× CN=AH*q*. &c. But because it is BG : AG :: (EP : AP :: by hypothesis) AP : L; it will be L×BG= AG×AP=AG×AG+AG×GP=AG*q*. +AG×GP. But it has been shown that it is L×BM=AG*q*. wherefore it will be L×BG—L×BM=AG×GP, that is, L×MG=AG×GP. By the same way of reasoning it will be L×NH=AH×HP, &c. Wherefore the rectangle under MG and L, will be equal to the square of AG, which is the property of the parabola; and so the curve AMNOPK wherein the projectile is moved will be a parabola.

Cor. 1. Hence the right line L is the latus rectum or parameter of the parabola, that belongs to its axis.

Cor. 2. Let AH=HP, and it will be L×CN=AH*q*. =L×NH, whence it will be NH=CN; and consequently the right-line AF being the line of direction of the projectile, will be a tangent to the parabola.

Cor. 3. If a heavy body is projected downwards, in a direction oblique to the horizon, the path of the projectile will be a parabola.

Theorem 3. The impetus of a projected body in different parts of the parabola, are as the portions of the tangents intercepted betwixt two right-lines parallel to the axis; that is, the impetus of the body projected in the points A and B, (ibid. n° 3.) to which AD and BE are tangents, will be as CD and EB, the portions of the tangents intercepted betwixt two right-lines, CB and DE, parallel to the axis.

These calculations and demonstrations, however, are all founded on a supposition that the projectiles move in an unresisting medium, or in one whose resistance is but small. Hence they answer with tolerable exactness where the motions are not very quick; but in those cases where the projectiles are moved with immense velocity, the resistance of the air occasions errors of such enormous magnitude, that a musket-ball, which, by calculation, ought to fly 17 miles, seldom exceeds three quarters of a mile. See the article GUNNERY, *passim*.

PROJECTION, in mechanics, the act of communicating motion to a body, from thence called *projectile*. See the preceding article.

Projection.

PROJECTION, in perſpective, the appearance or repreſentation of an object on the perſpective plane. See PERSPECTIVE.

PROJECTION *of the Sphere*, in geography and aſtronomy, ſignifies the laying down upon paper thoſe imaginary circles of the ſphere by which the degrees of longitude and latitude are counted on celeſtial and terreſtrial maps.

Projection of the ſphere is either orthographic or ſtereographic. The *orthographic* projection ſuppoſes the eye placed at an infinite diſtance; whereas, in the *ſtereographic* projection, it is ſuppoſed to be only 90° diſtant from the primitive circle, or placed in its pole, and thence viewing the circles on the ſphere. The primitive circle is that great circle which limits or bounds the repreſentation or projection; and the place of the eye is called the *projecting point*. See GEOGRAPHY, n° 13, &c.

The laws of the *orthographic* projection are theſe: 1. The rays by which the eye, placed at an infinite diſtance, perceives any object are parallel. 2. A right-line, perpendicular to the plane of the projection, is repreſented by a point, where it cuts the plane of the projection. 3. A right-line, as AB, or CD, (fig. 3. n° 1.) not perpendicular, is projected into a right-line, as FE and GH, and is always comprehended between the extreme perpendiculars AF and BE, and CG and GH. 4. The projection of the right-line, AB, is the greateſt when it is parallel to the plane of projection; being projected in a right-line equal to itſelf. 5. But an oblique line is always projected into one leſs than itſelf; and the more ſo, the nearer it approaches to a perpendicular, which, as already obſerved, is projected into a point. 6. A plane ſurface, as ABCD, (ibid. n° 2.) at right angles to the plane of the projection, is projected into the right line AB, in which it cuts the plane of the projection; and any arch, as B*c*, *cc*, or *c*A, is projected into the correſponding lines B*o*, *oo*, and *o*A. 7. A circle parallel to the plane of projection, is repreſented by a circle equal to itſelf; and a circle oblique to the plane of projection, is repreſented by an ellipſis.

Plate CCXLVI.

As to the *ſtereographic* projection, its laws are theſe: 1. The repreſentations of all circles, not paſſing thro' the projecting point, will be circles. Thus, let ACEDB (fig. 4. n° 1, 2, 3.) repreſent a ſphere, cut by a plane RS, paſſing thro' the centre I, at right angles to the diameter EH, drawn from E the place of the eye; and let the ſection of the ſphere by the plane RS, be the circle CFDL, whoſe poles are H and E. Suppoſe now AGB is a circle on the ſphere to be projected, whoſe pole moſt remote from the eye is P; and the viſual rays from the circle AGB meeting in E, form the cone AGBE, whereof the triangle AEB is a ſection thro' the vertex E, and diameter of the baſe AB: then will the figure *agbf*, which is the projection of the circle AGB, be itſelf a circle: for if the plane RS is ſuppoſed to revolve on the line CD, till it coincides with the plane of the circle ACEB; then will the circle CFDL coincide with the circle CEDH, and the projected circle *afbg* with the circle *aNbk*. Hence, the middle of the projected diameter is the centre of the projected circle, whether it be a great circle or a ſmall one; the poles and centres of all circles, parallel to the plane of projection, fall in the centre of the projection; and all oblique great circles cut the primitive circle in two points diametrically oppoſite. 2. The projected diameter of any circle ſubtends an angle at the eye equal to the diſtance of that circle from its neareſt pole, taken on the ſphere; and that angle is biſected by a right line, joining the eye and that pole. Thus let the plane RS (ibid. n° 4.) cut the ſphere HFEG through its centre I; and let ABC be any oblique great circle, whoſe diameter AC is projected in *ac*; and KOL, any ſmall circle parallel to ABC, whoſe diameter KL is projected in *kl*. The diſtances of thoſe circles from their pole P, being the arches AHP, KHP; and the angles *aEc*, *kEl*, are the angles at the eye, ſubtended by their projected diameters, *ac*, *kl*. Then is the angle *aEc* meaſured by the arch AHP, and the angle *kEl* meaſured by the arch KHP, and thoſe angles are biſected by EP. 3. Any point of a ſphere is projected at the diſtance of the tangent of half the arch intercepted between that point and the pole oppoſite to the eye, from the centre of projection; the ſemi-diameter of the ſphere being radius. Thus, let C*b*EB (ibid. n° 5.) be a great circle of the ſphere, whoſe centre is *c*, GH the plane of projection cutting the diameter of the ſphere in *b*, B; E, C, the poles of the ſection by that plane; and *a*, the projection of A. Then is *ca* = the tangent of half the arch AC, as is evident by drawing CF = the tangent of half that arch, and joining *c*F. 4. The angle made by two projected circles, is equal to the angle which theſe circles make on the ſphere. For let IACE and ABL (ibid. n° 6.) be two circles on a ſphere interſecting in A; E, the projecting point; and RS, the plane of projection, wherein the point A is projected in *a*, in the line IC the diameter of the circle ACE. Alſo let DH, FA, be tangents to the circles ACE, ABL. Then will the projected angle *daf* be equal to the ſpheric angle BAC. 5. The diſtance between the poles of the primitive circle and an oblique circle, is equal to the tangent of half the inclination of thoſe circles; and the diſtance of their centres is equal to the tangent of their inclination, the ſemi-diameter of the primitive being radius. For let AC (ibid. n° 7.) be the diameter of a circle, whoſe poles are P and Q, and inclined to the plane of projection in the angle AIF; and let *a*, *c*, *p*, be the projections of the points A, C, P; alſo let H*a*E be the projected oblique circle, whoſe centre is *q*. Now when the plane of projection becomes the primitive circle, whoſe pole is I; then is I *p* = tangent of half the angle AIF, or of half the arch AF; and I *q* = tangent of AF, or of the angle FH*a* = AIF. 6. If through any given point in the primitive circle, an oblique circle be deſcribed; then the centres of all other oblique circles paſſing through that point, will be in a right line drawn through the centre of the firſt oblique circle at right angles to a line paſſing through that centre, the given point, and the centre of the primitive. Thus let GACE (ibid. n° 8.) be the primitive circle, ADEI a great circle deſcribed through D, its centre being B. HK is a right line drawn through B perpendicular to a right line, CI, paſſing through D, B, and the centre of the primitive circle. Then the centres of all other great circles, as FDG, paſſing through D, will fall into the line HK. 7. Equal arches of any two great circles of the ſphere, will be intercepted between two other circles drawn on the ſphere through the remoteſt poles of thoſe great circles. For let

PBEA (ibid. n° 9.) be a ſphere, whereon AGB, CFD, are two great circles, whoſe remoteſt poles are E, P; and through theſe poles let the great circle PBEC, and the ſmall circle PGE, be drawn, interſecting the great circles AGB, CFD, in the points B, G, and D, F. Then are the intercepted arches BG, and DF equal to one another. 8. If lines be drawn from the projected pole of any great circle, cutting the peripheries of the projected circle and plane of projection, the intercepted arches of thoſe circumferences are equal; that is, the arch GB=*fd*, (ibid.) 9. The radius of any ſmall circle, whoſe plane is perpendicular to that of the primitive circle, is equal to the tangent of that leſſer circle's diſtance from its pole; and the ſecant of that diſtance, is equal to the diſtance of the centres of the primitive and leſſer circle. For let P (ibid. n° 10.) be the pole, and AB the diameter of a leſſer circle, its plane being perpendicular to that of the primitive circle, whoſe centre is C: then *d* being the centre of the projected leſſer circle, *da* is equal to the tangent of the arch PA, and *d*C = ſecant of PA.

PROJECTURE, in architecture, the outjetting and prominency, or emboſſing, which the mouldings and other members have beyond the naked wall, column, &c.

PROLAPSUS, in ſurgery, a prolapſion or falling out of any part of the body from its natural ſituation: thus we ſay, *prolapſus inteſtini*, a prolapſion of the inteſtine, &c. See SURGERY.

PROLATE, in geometry, an epithet applied to a ſpheroid produced by the revolution of a ſemi-ellipſis about its larger diameter.

PROLEGOMENA, in philology, certain preparatory obſervations or diſcourſes prefixed to a book, &c. containing ſomething neceſſary for the reader to be appriſed of, to enable him the better to underſtand the book, or to enter deeper into the ſcience, &c.

PROLEPSIS, a figure in rhetoric, by which we anticipate or prevent what might be objected by the adverſary. See ORATORY, n° 80.

PROLEPTIC, an epithet applied to a periodical diſeaſe which anticipates, or whoſe paroxyſm returns ſooner and ſooner every time; as is frequently the caſe in agues.

PROLIFER FLOS; (*proles*, an "offſpring;" and *fero*, to "bear;") a prolific flower, or flower which from its own ſubſtance produces another; a ſingular degree of luxuriance, to which full flowers are chiefly incident.

PROLIFIC, ſomething that has the qualities neceſſary for generating.

PROLIXITY, in diſcourſe, the fault of entering into too minute a detail, or being too long, preciſe, and circumſtantial, even to a degree of tedioſuneſs.

PROLOGUE, in dramatic poetry, a diſcourſe addreſſed to the audience before the drama or play begins. The original intention was to advertiſe the audience of the ſubject of the piece, and to prepare them to enter more eaſily into the action, and ſometimes to make an apology for the poet.

PROMETHEUS, the ſon of Japhet, ſuppoſed to have been the firſt diſcoverer of the art of ſtriking fire by flint and ſteel; which gave riſe to the fable of his ſtealing fire from heaven: A renowned warrior; but whoſe hiſtory is involved in fable. He flouriſhed about 1687 B.C. The poetical account is, that he formed a man of clay of ſuch exquiſite workmanſhip, that Pallas, charmed with his ingenuity, offered him whatever in heaven could contribute to finiſh his deſign; and for this purpoſe took him up with her to the celeſtial manſions, where he ſtole ſome fire from the chariot of the ſun, which he uſed to animate his image. At this theft Jupiter was ſo enraged, that he ordered Vulcan to chain him down on mount Caucaſus, and ſent an eagle or vulture to prey on his liver; which every night was renewed, in proportion to the quantity eaten up in the day-time, until at laſt he was delivered by Hercules, who killed the vulture.

PROMISE, in law, is, when upon any valuable conſideration one binds himſelf by word of mouth to another, to perform a thing agreed on. See ASSUMPSIT.

PROMONTORY, in geography, a high point of land or rock projecting out into the ſea; the extremity of which towards the ſea is called a *cape* or *headland*. See 2d Plate CXVI.

PROMPTER, in the drama, an officer poſted behind the ſcenes, whoſe buſineſs it is to watch attentively the actors ſpeaking on the ſtage, in order to ſuggeſt and put them forward, when at a ſtand, to correct them when amiſs, &c. in their parts.

PROMULGATED, or PROMULGED, ſomething publiſhed or proclaimed, and generally applied to a law, to denote the publiſhing or proclaiming it to the people.

PRONAOS, in the ancient architecture, a porch to a church, palace, or other ſpacious building. See the article PORCH.

PRONATION, among anatomiſts. The radius of the arm has two kinds of motions, the one called *pronation*, the other *ſupination*. Pronation is that whereby the palm of the hand is turned downwards; and ſupination, the oppoſite motion thereto, is that whereby the back of the hand is turned downwards. The peculiar muſcles whereby pronation is performed are called *pronatores*, as thoſe by which ſupination is performed are termed *ſupinatores*. See ANATOMY, *Table of the Muſcles*, and *Plates*.

PRONOUN, PRONOMEN, in grammar, a declinable part of ſpeech, which being put inſtead of a noun, points out ſome perſon or thing.

Pronouns are divided into the ſix following claſſes, *viz.* Demonſtrative pronouns; relative pronouns; poſſeſſive pronouns; gentile pronouns, or ſuch as denote a perſon's country, as *noſtras*, *veſtras*, and *cujas*; interrogative pronouns; and reciprocal pronouns.

PRONUNCIATION, in grammar, the manner of articulating or ſounding the words of a language.

Pronunciation makes the moſt difficult part of written grammar; in regard that a book expreſſing itſelf to the eyes, in a matter that wholly concerns the ears, ſeems next akin to that of teaching the blind to diſtinguiſh colours: hence it is that there is no part ſo defective in grammar as that of pronunciation, as the writer has frequently no term whereby to give the reader an idea of the ſound he would expreſs; for want of a proper term, therefore, he ſubſtitutes a vicious and precarious one. To give a juſt idea of the pronunciation of a language, it ſeems neceſſary to fix as nearly

Pronunciation. as possible all the several sounds employed in the pronunciation of that language. Cicero tells us, that the pronunciation underwent several changes among the Romans; and indeed it is more precarious in the living languages, being, as Du Bos tells us, subservient to fashion in these. The French language is clogged with a difficulty in pronunciation from which most others are free; and it consists in this, that most of their words have two different pronunciations, the one in common prose, the other in verse.

As to the pronunciation of the English language, the ingenious Mr Martin, in his Spelling-Book of Arts and Sciences, lays down the following rules: 1. The final *(e)* lengthens the sound of the foregoing vowel; as in *can*, *cane*; *rob*, *robe*; *tun*, *tune*, &c. 2. The final *(e)* in words ending in *re*, is sounded before the *r* like *u*; as *massacre*, *massa-cur*; *lucre*, *lu-cur*, &c. 3. The Latin diphthongs *æ*, *œ*, are sounded like *e*; as *Ætna*, *Etna*; *œconomy*, *economy*, &c.: but at the end of the words *oe* sounds like *o*; as in *toe*, *foe*, &c. 4. Also the English improper diphthongs, *ea*, *eo*, *eu*, *ue*, sound only the *e* and *u*; as *tea* and *te*; *feoffee* or *feffee*; *due* or *du*; *true* or *tru*, &c. though sometimes *eo* and *ea* are pronounced like *ee*, as in *people*, *fear*, *near*, &c. 5. Sometimes the diphthong (*ie*) is pronounced like *e* in *cieling*, like *ee* in *field*, and, at the end of words, always like *y*, as in *lie*, &c.; and *ei* is pronounced either like *e* or *ai*, as in *deceit*, *reign*, &c. 6. The triphthong *eau* is pronounced like *o*, in *beau* and *jet d'eau*; and *ieu* sounds like *u* in *lieu*, *adieu*, &c. 7. The sound of *c* his hard before the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, as in *call*, *cold*, *cup*, &c.; also sometimes before *h*, as in *chart*, *cold*, &c.; and before *l* and *r*, as in *clear*, *creep*, &c. It is otherwise generally soft, as in *city*, *cell*, *cyder*, *child*, &c. 8. In French words *ch*, is sounded like *sh*, as in *chagreen*, *machine*; and sometimes like *qu*, as in *choir*. 9. The sound of *g* is hard before *a*, *o*, *u*, *l*, *r*, as in *gall*, *go*, *gum*, *glean*, *grope*; also before *ui*, as in *guile*, *guild*, &c.; and before *h*, as in *ghost*; sometimes before *i*, as in *gibbous*, *gibberish*. It is also generally hard before *e*, as in *get*, *geld*, &c.; but soft in many words derived from the Greek and Latin, as in *geometry*, *genealogy*, *genus*, &c. Two *gg* are always hard, as in *dagger*, &c. The sound of *g*, when soft, is like that of *j*. 10. In any part of a word, *ph* sounds like *f*, as in *philosophy*, &c. 11. The sound of *qu*, at the end of French words, is like *k*, as in *risque*, &c. 12. The syllables *ti* and *ci*, if followed by a vowel, sound like *si* or *shi*; as in *fiction*, *logician*, &c. 13. When *cc* occurs before *i*, the first is hard and the latter is soft; as in *flaccid*, &c. 14. The letter *p* is not pronounced at the beginning of syllables, before *s* and *t*; as in *psalm*, *ptarmics*, &c. As to other peculiarities, regarding the pronunciation of single letters, many of them have been taken notice of at the beginning of each, in the course of this work.

But it is not enough to know the just pronunciation of single letters, but also of words: in order to which, the accenting of words ought to be well understood; since nothing is more harsh and disagreeable to the ear, than to hear a person speak or read with wrong accents. And, indeed, in English, the same word is often both a noun and a verb, distinguished only by the accent, which is on the first syllable of the noun, and on the last of the verb; as *ferment* and *fermènt*, *rècord* and *recòrd*, &c. We are to observe also, that in order to a just expression of words, some require only a single accent on the syllable, as in *tôrment*, &c.; but in others it should be marked double, as in *ani'mal*, because it is pronounced as if the letter was wrote double, viz. *animal*. The best directory in this matter is the excellent Dictionary of Mr Sheridan, lately published. Pronunciation || Proof.

Pronunciation is also used for the fifth and last part of rhetoric, which consists in varying and regulating the voice agreeably to the matter and words, so as most effectually to persuade and touch the hearers. See Oratory, Part II.

PROOF, in law, &c. denotes the mediums or arguments used to evince the truth of any thing.

Proof *of Artillery and Small Arms*, is a trial whether they stand the quantity of powder allotted for that purpose. The rule of the board of ordnance is, that all guns, under 24-pounders, be loaded with powder as much as their shot weighs; that is, a brass 24-pounder with 21 lb. a brass 32-pounder with 26 lb. 12 oz. and a 42-pounder with 31 lb. 8 oz.; the iron 24-pounder with 18 lb. the 32-pounder with 21 lb. 8 oz. and the 42-pounder with 25 lb.

The brass light field-pieces are proved with powder that weighs half as much as their shot, except the 24-pounder, which is loaded with 10 lb. only.

Government allows 11 bullets of lead in the pound for the proof of muskets, and 14-5, or 29 in two pounds, for service; 17 in the pound for the proof of carabines, and 20 for service; 28 in the pound for the proof of pistols, and 34 for service.

When guns of a new metal, or of lighter construction, are proved; then, besides the common proof, they are fired 200 or 300 times, as quick as they can be, loaded with the common charge given in actual service. Our light 6 pounders, were fired 300 times in 3 hours 27 minutes, loaded with 1 lb. 4 oz. without receiving any damage.

Proof *of Powder*, is in order to try its goodness and strength. See Gun-*Powder*.

Proof *of Cannon*, is made to ascertain their being well cast, their having no cavities in their metal, and, in a word, their being fit to resist the effort of their charge of powder. In making this proof, the piece is laid upon the ground, supported only by a piece of wood in the middle, of about 5 or 6 inches thick, to raise the muzzle a little; and then the piece is fired against a solid butt of earth.

Tools used in the proof *of Cannon* are as follow:

Searcher, an iron socket with branches, from 4 to 8 in number, bending outwards a little, with small points at their ends: to this socket is fixed a wooden handle, from 8 to 12 feet long, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch in diameter. This searcher is introduced into the gun after each firing, and turned gently round to discover the cavities within: if any are found, they are marked on the outside with chalk; and then the

Searcher with one point is introduced: about which point a mixture of wax and tallow is put, to take the impression of the holes; and if any are found of $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch deep, or of any considerable length, the gun is rejected as unserviceable to the government.

Reliever, is an iron ring fixed to a handle, by means

Proof ‖ Propertius.

means of a socket, so as to be at right angles: it serves to disengage the first searcher, when any of its points are retained in a hole, and cannot otherwise be got out. When guns are rejected by the proof-masters, they order them to be marked X thus, which the contractors generally alter *WP* thus; and after such alteration, dispose of them to foreign powers for Woolwich proof.

The most curious instrument for finding the principal defects in pieces of artillery, was lately invented by lieutenant-general Desaguliers, of the royal regiment of artillery. This instrument, grounded on the truest mechanical principles, is no sooner introduced into the hollow cylinder of the gun, than it discovers its defects, and more particularly that of the piece not being truly bored; which is a very important one, and to which most of the disasters happening to pieces of artillery are in a great measure to be imputed; for, when a gun is not truly bored, the most expert artillerist will not be able to make a good shot.

Proof *of Mortars and Howitzers*, is made to ascertain their being well cast, and of strength to resist the effort of their charge. For this purpose the mortar or howitzer is placed upon the ground, with some part of their trunnions or breech sunk below the surface, and resting on wooden billets, at an elevation of about 70 degrees.

The mirror is generally the only instrument to discover the defects in mortars and howitzers. In order to use it, the sun must shine; the breech must be placed towards the sun, and the glass over-against the mouth of the piece: it illuminates the bore and chamber sufficiently to discover the flaws in it.

Proof *of Foreign Brass-Artillery*. 1st. The Prussians. Their battering-train and garrison-artillery are proved with a quantity of powder equal to $\frac{1}{4}$ the weight of the shot, and fired 75 rounds as fast as in real service; that is, 2 or 3 rounds in a minute. Their light field-train, from a 12-pounder upwards, are proved with a quantity of powder = 1-3d of the weight of the shot, and fired 150 rounds, at 3 or 4 rounds in a minute. From a 12-pounder downwards, are proved with a quantity of powder = 1-5th of the shot's weight, and fired 300 rounds, at 5 or 6 rounds each minute, properly sponged and loaded. Their mortars are proved with the chambers full of powder, and the shells loaded. Three rounds are fired as quick as possible.

2d. The Dutch prove all their artillery by firing each piece 5 times; the two first rounds with a quantity of powder = 2-3ds of the weight of the shot; and the three last rounds with a quantity of powder = $\frac{1}{2}$ the weight of the shot.

3d. the French the same as the Dutch.

Proof, in brandy and other spirituous liquors, is a little white lather which appears on the top of the liquor when poured into a glass. This lather, as it diminishes, forms itself into a circle called by the French the *chapelet*, and by the English the *bead* or *bubble*.

PROPAGATION, the act of multiplying the kind. See Generation.

PROPER, something natural and essentially belonging to any thing.

PROPERTIUS (Sextus Aurelius), a celebrated Latin poet, born at Mevania, a city of Umbria, now called *Bevagna*, in the duchy of Spoletto. He went to Rome after the death of his father, a Roman knight, who had been put to death by order of Augustus, for having followed Antony's party during the triumvirate. Propertius in a short time acquired great reputation by his wit and abilities, and had a considerable share in the esteem of Mæcenas and Cornelius Gallus. He had also Ovid, Tibullus, Bassus, and the other ingenious men of his time, for his friends. He died at Rome 19 B. C. He is printed with almost all the editions of Tibullus and Catullus: but the best edition of him is that which was given separately of him by Janus Brouckhusius at Amsterdam 1702, in 4to. and again in 1714, 4to. *cum curis secundis ejusdem*. We have four books of his Elegies or Amours with a lady called *Hostia*, or *Hostilia*, to whom he gave the name of *Cynthia*.

Property.

PROPERTY, in a general sense, that which constitutes or denominates a thing proper; or is a particular virtue or quality which nature has bestowed on some things exclusive of all others: thus, colour is a property of light; extension, figure, divisibility, and impenetrability, are properties of body.

Property, in law, is described to be the highest right which a person has or can have to any thing.

There is nothing which so generally strikes the imagination, and engages the affections of mankind, as the right of property; or that sole and despotic dominion which one man claims and exercises over the external things of the world, in total exclusion of the right of any other individual in the universe. And yet there are very few that will give themselves the trouble to consider the original and foundation of this right. Pleased as we are with the possession, we seem afraid to look back to the means by which it was acquired, as if fearful of some defect in our title; or at best we rest satisfied with the decision of the laws in our favour, without examining the reason or authority upon which those laws have been built. We think it enough that our title is derived by the grant of the former proprietor, by descent from our ancestors, or by the last will and testament of the dying owner: not caring to reflect, that (accurately and strictly speaking) there is no foundation in nature or in natural law, why a set of words upon parchment should convey the dominion of land; why the son should have a right to exclude his fellow-creatures from a determinate spot of ground, because his father had done so before him; or why the occupier of a particular field or of a jewel, when lying on his death-bed and no longer able to maintain possession, should be entitled to tell the rest of the world which of them should enjoy it after him. These inquiries, it must be owned, would be useless and even troublesome in common life. It is well if the mass of mankind will obey the laws when made, without scrutinizing too nicely into the reasons of making them. But when law is to be considered not only as a matter of practice, but also as a rational science, it cannot be improper or useless to examine more deeply the rudiments and grounds of these positive constitutions of society.

In the beginning of the world, we are informed by holy writ, the all-bountiful Creator gave to man "dominion over all the earth; and over the fish of "the sea, and over the fowl of the air, and over every "living

Property. "living thing that moveth upon the earth." This is the only true and solid foundation of man's dominion over external things, whatever airy metaphysical notions may have been started by fanciful writers upon this subject. The earth therefore, and all things therein, are the general property of all mankind, exclusive of other beings, from the immediate gift of the Creator. And, while the earth continued bare of inhabitants, it is reasonable to suppose, that all was in common among them, and that every one took from the public stock to his own use such things as his immediate necessities required.

These general notions of property were then sufficient to answer all the purposes of human life; and might perhaps still have answered them, had it been possible for mankind to have remained in a state of primæval simplicity: as may be collected from the manners of many American nations, when first discovered by the Europeans; and from the ancient method of living among the first Europeans themselves, if we may credit either the memorials of them preserved in the golden age of the poets, or the uniform accounts given by historians of those times wherein *erant omnia communia et indivisa omnibus, veluti unum cunctis patrimonium esset*. Not that this communion of goods seems ever to have been applicable, even in the earliest ages, to aught but the *substance* of the thing; nor could it be extended to the *use* of it. For, by the law of nature and reason, he who first began to use it, acquired therein a kind of transient property, that lasted so long as he was using it, and no longer: or, to speak with greater precision, the *right* of possession continued for the same time only that the *act* of possession lasted. Thus the ground was in common, and no part of it was the permanent property of any man in particular; yet whoever was in the occupation of any determinate spot of it, for rest, for shade, or the like, acquired for the time a sort of ownership, from which it would have been unjust, and contrary to the law of nature, to have driven him by force; but the instant that he quitted the use or occupation of it, another might seize it without injustice. Thus also a vine or other tree might be said to be in common, as all were equally entitled to its produce; and yet any private individual might gain the sole property of the fruit, which he had gathered for his own repast. A doctrine well illustrated by Cicero, who compares the world to a great theatre, which is common to the public, and yet the place which any man has taken is for the time his own.

Blackst. Comment.

But when mankind increased in number, craft, and ambition, it became necessary to entertain conceptions of more permanent dominion; and to appropriate to individuals, not the immediate *use* only, but the very *substance* of the thing to be used. Otherwise innumerable tumults must have arisen and the good order of the world been continually broken and disturbed, while a variety of persons were striving who should get the first occupation of the same thing, or disputing which of them had actually gained it. As human life also grew more and more refined, abundance of conveniencies were devised to render it more easy, commodious, and agreeable; as habitations for shelter and safety, and raiment for warmth and decency. But no man would be at the trouble to provide either, so long as he had only an unfructuary property in them, which was to cease the instant that he quitted possession;—if, as soon as he walked out of his tent, or pulled off his garment, the next stranger who came by would have a right to inhabit the one and to wear the other. In the case of habitations in particular, it was natural to observe, that even the brute creation, to whom every thing else was in common, maintained a permanent property in their dwellings, especially for the protection of their young; that the birds of the air had nests, and the beasts of the field had caverns, the invasion of which they esteemed a very flagrant injustice, and would sacrifice their lives to preserve them. Hence a property was soon established in every man's house and home-stall; which seem to have been originally mere temporary huts or moveable cabins, suited to the design of Providence for more speedily peopling the earth, and suited to the wandering life of their owners, before any extensive property in the soil or ground was established. And there can be no doubt, but that moveables of every kind became sooner appropriated than the permanent substantial soil: partly because they were more susceptible of a long occupancy, which might be continued for months together without any sensible interruption, and at length by usage ripen into an established right; but principally because few of them could be fit for use, till improved and meliorated by the bodily labour of the occupant; which bodily labour, bestowed upon any subject which before lay in common to all men, is universally allowed to give the fairest and most reasonable title to an exclusive property therein.

Property.

The article of food was a more immediate call, and therefore a more early consideration. Such as were not contented with the spontaneous product of the earth, sought for a more solid refreshment in the flesh of beasts, which they obtained by hunting. But the frequent disappointments incident to that method of provision, induced them to gather together such animals as were of a more tame and sequacious nature; and to establish a permanent property in their flocks and herds, in order to sustain themselves in a less precarious manner, partly by the milk of their dams, and partly by the flesh of the young. The support of these their cattle made the article of *water* also a very important point. And therefore the book of Genesis (the most venerable monument of antiquity, considered merely with a view to history) will furnish us with frequent instances of violent contentions concerning wells; the exclusive property of which appears to have been established in the first digger or occupant, even in such places where the ground and herbage remained yet in common. Thus we find Abraham, who was but a sojourner, asserting his right to a well in the country of Abimelech, and exacting an oath for his security, "because he had digged that well." And Isaac, about 90 years afterwards, reclaimed this his father's property; and, after much contention with the Philistines, was suffered to enjoy it in peace.

All this while the soil and pasture of the earth remained still in common as before, and open to every occupant: except perhaps in the neighbourhood of towns, where the necessity of a sole and exclusive property in lands (for the sake of agriculture) was earlier felt, and therefore more readily complied with. Otherwise

Property. therwise, when the multitude of men and cattle had consumed every convenience on one spot of ground, it was deemed a natural right to seize upon and occupy such other lands as would more easily supply their necessities. This practice is still retained among the wild and uncultivated nations that have never been formed into civil states, like the Tartars and others in the east; where the climate itself, and the boundless extent of their territory, conspire to retain them still in the same savage state of vagrant liberty, which was universal in the earliest ages, and which Tacitus informs us continued among the Germans till the decline of the Roman empire. We have also a striking example of the same kind in the history of Abraham and his nephew Lot. When their joint substance became so great, that pasture and other conveniencies grew scarce, the natural consequence was, that a strife arose between their servants; so that it was no longer practicable to dwell together. This contention Abraham endeavoured to compose: "Let there be no strife, I pray thee, between thee and me. Is not the whole land before thee? Separate thyself, I pray thee, from me; If thou wilt take the left hand, then I will go to the right; or if thou depart to the right hand, then I will go to the left." This plainly implies an acknowledged right, in either, to occupy whatever ground he pleased, that was not pre-occupied by other tribes. "And Lot lifted up his eyes, and beheld all the plain of Jordan, that it was well watered every where, even as the garden of the Lord. Then Lot chose him all the plain of Jordan, and journeyed east; and Abraham dwelt in the land of Canaan."

Upon the same principle was founded the right of migration, or sending colonies to find out new habitations, when the mother-country was overcharged with inhabitants; which was practised as well by the Phœnicians and Greeks, as the Germans, Scythians, and other northern people. And, so long as it was confined to the stocking and cultivation of desart uninhabited countries, it kept strictly within the limits of the law of nature. But how far the seizing on countries already peopled, and driving out or massacring the innocent and defenceless natives, merely because they differed from their invaders in language, in religion, in customs, in government, or in colour; how far such a conduct was consonant to nature, to reason, or to Christianity, deserved well to be considered by those who have rendered their names immortal by thus civilizing mankind.

As the world by degrees grew more populous, it daily became more difficult to find out new spots to inhabit, without encroaching upon former occupants; and, by constantly occupying the same individual spot, the fruits of the earth were consumed, and its spontaneous produce destroyed, without any provision for a future supply or succession. It therefore became necessary to pursue some regular method of providing a constant subsistence; and this necessity produced, or at least promoted and encouraged, the art of agriculture. And the art of agriculture, by a regular connection and consequence, introduced and established the idea of a more permanent property in the soil than had hitherto been received and adopted. It was clear that the earth would not produce her fruits in sufficient quantities, without the assistance of tillage: but who would be at the pains of tilling it, if another might watch an opportunity to seize upon and enjoy the product of his industry, art, and labour? Had not therefore a separate property in lands, as well as moveables, been vested in some individuals, the world must have continued a forest, and men have been mere animals of prey; which, according to some philosophers, is the genuine state of nature. Whereas now (so graciously has Providence interwoven our duty and our happiness together) the result of this very necessity has been the ennobling of the human species, by giving it opportunities of improving its *rational* faculties, as well as of exerting its *natural*. Necessity begat property: and in order to insure that property, recourse was had to civil society, which brought along with it a long train of inseparable concomitants; states, government, laws, punishments, and the public exercise of religious duties. Thus connected together, it was found that a part only of society was sufficient to provide, by their manual labour, for the necessary subsistence of all; and leisure was given to others to cultivate the human mind, to invent useful arts, and to lay the foundations of science.

The only question remaining is, How this property became actually vested; or what it is that gave a man an exclusive right to retain in a permanent manner that specific land, which before belonged generally to every body, but particularly to nobody? And as we before observed, that *occupancy* gave the right to the temporary *use* of the soil; so it is agreed upon all hands, that occupancy gave also the original right to the permanent property in the *substance* of the earth itself; which excludes every one else but the owner from the use of it. There is indeed some difference among the writers on natural law, concerning the reason why occupancy should convey this right, and invest one with this absolute property: Grotius and Puffendorf insisting, that this right of occupancy is founded upon a tacit and implied assent of all mankind, that the first occupant should become the owner; and Barbeyrac, Titius, Mr Locke, and others, holding, that there is no such implied assent, neither is it necessary that there should be; for that the very act of occupancy, alone, being a degree of bodily labour, is from a principle of natural justice, without any consent or compact, sufficient of itself to gain a title. A dispute that savours too much of nice and scholastic refinement. However, both sides agree in this, that occupancy is the thing by which the title was in fact originally gained; every man seizing to his own continued use such spots of ground as he found most agreeable to his own convenience, provided he found them unoccupied by any one else.

Property, both in lands and moveables, being thus originally acquired by the first taker, which taking amounts to a declaration that he intends to appropriate the thing to his own use, it remains in him, by the principle of universal law, till such time as he does some other act which shows an intention to abandon it; for then it becomes, naturally speaking, *publici juris* once more, and is liable to be again appropriated by the next occupant. So if one is possessed of a jewel, and casts it into the sea or a public highway, this is such an express dereliction, that a property will be vested in the first fortunate finder that will seize it

to

to his own use. But if he hides it privately in the earth, or other secret place, and it is discovered, the finder acquires no property therein; for the owner hath not by this act declared any intention to abandon it, but rather the contrary: and if he loses or drops it by accident, it cannot be collected from thence, that he designed to quit the possession; and therefore in such case the property still remains in the loser, who may claim it again of the finder. And this, we may remember, is the doctrine of our law with relation to Treasure-*Trove*.

But this method, of one man's abandoning his property, and another seizing the vacant possession, however well founded in theory, could not long subsist in fact. It was calculated merely for the rudiments of civil society, and necessarily ceased among the complicated interests and artificial refinements of polite and established governments. In these it was found, that what became inconvenient or useless to one man, was highly convenient and useful to another; who was ready to give in exchange for it some equivalent that was equally desirable to the former proprietor. This mutual convenience introduced commercial traffic, and the reciprocal transfer of property by sale, grant, or conveyance: which may be considered either as a continuance of the original possession which the first occupant had; or as an abandoning of the thing by the present owner, and an immediate successive occupancy of the same by the new proprietor. The voluntary dereliction of the owner, and delivering the possession to another individual, amount to a transfer of the property; the proprietor declaring his intention no longer to occupy the thing himself, but that his own right of occupancy shall be vested in the new acquirer. Or, taken in the other light, if I agree to part with an acre of my land to Titius, the deed of conveyance is an evidence of my intending to abandon the property; and Titius, being the only or first man acquainted with such my intention, immediately steps in and seizes the vacant possession: thus the consent expressed by the conveyance, gives Titius a good right against me; and possession, or occupancy, confirms that right against all the world besides.

The most universal and effectual way of abandoning property, is by the death of the occupant: when, both the actual possession and intention of keeping possession ceasing, the property, which is founded upon such possession and intention, ought also to cease of course. For, naturally speaking, the instant a man ceases to be, he ceases to have any dominion: else, if he had a right to dispose of his acquisitions one moment beyond his life, he would also have a right to direct their disposal for a million of ages after him; which would be highly absurd and inconvenient. All property must therefore cease upon death, considering men as absolute individuals, and unconnected with civil society: for then, by the principles before established, the next immediate occupant would acquire a right in all that the deceased possessed. But as, under civilized governments, which are calculated for the peace of mankind, such a constitution would be productive of endless disturbances, the universal law of almost every nation (which is a kind of secondary law of nature) has either given the dying person a power of continuing his property, by disposing of his possessions by will; or, in case he neglects to dispose of it, or is not permitted to make any disposition at all, the municipal law of the country then steps in, and declares who shall be the successor, representative, or heir of the deceased; that is, who alone shall have a right to enter upon this vacant possession, in order to avoid that confusion which its becoming again common would occasion. And farther, in case no testament be permitted by the law, or none be made, and no heir can be found so qualified as the law requires, still, to prevent the robust title of *occupancy* from again taking place, the doctrine of escheats is adopted in almost every country; whereby the sovereign of the state, and those who claim under his authority, are the ultimate heirs, and succeed to those inheritances to which no other title can be formed.

The right of inheritance, or descent to the children and relations of the deceased, seems to have been allowed much earlier than the right of devising by testament. We are apt to conceive at the first view that it has nature on its side; yet we often mistake for nature what we find established by long and inveterate custom. It is certainly a wise and effectual, but clearly a political, establishment; since the permanent right of property, vested in the ancestor himself, was no *natural*, but merely a *civil*, right. It is true, that the transmission of one's possessions to posterity has an evident tendency to make a man a good citizen and a useful member of society: it sets the passions on the side of duty, and prompts a man to deserve well of the public, when he is sure that the reward of his services will not die with himself, but be transmitted to those with whom he is connected by the dearest and most tender affections. Yet, reasonable as this foundation of the right of inheritance may seem, it is probable that its immediate original arose not from speculations altogether so delicate and refined, and, if not from fortuitous circumstances, at least from a plainer and more simple principle. A man's children or nearest relations are usually about him on his death-bed, and are the earliest witnesses of his decease. They became therefore generally the next immediate occupants, till at length in process of time this frequent usage ripened into general law. And therefore also in the earliest ages, on failure of children, a man's servants born under his roof were allowed to be his heirs; being immediately on the spot when he died. For we find the old patriarch Abraham, expressly declaring, that "since God had given him no seed, his steward Eliezer, one born in his house, was his heir."

While property continued only for life, testaments were useless and unknown; and when it became inheritable, the inheritance was long indefeasible, and the children or heirs at law were incapable of exclusion by will. Till at length it was found, that so strict a rule of inheritance made heirs disobedient and headstrong, defrauded creditors of their just debts, and prevented many provident fathers from dividing or charging their estates as the exigence of their families required. This introduced pretty generally the right of disposing of one's property, or a part of it, by *testament*; that is, by written or oral instructions properly *witnessed* and authenticated, according to the *pleasure* of the deceased; which we therefore emphatically style his *will*. This was established in some countries much later than in

Property. in others. With us in England, till modern times, a man could only dispose of one-third of his moveables from his wife and children; and, in general, no will was permitted of lands till the reign of Henry VIII. and then only of a certain portion: for it was not till after the restoration that the power of devising real property became so universal as at present.

Wills, therefore, and testaments, rights of inheritance, and successions, are all of them creatures of the civil or municipal laws, and accordingly are in all respects regulated by them; every distinct country having different ceremonies and requisites to make a testament completely valid; neither does any thing vary more than the right of inheritance under different national establishments. In England particularly, this diversity is carried to such a length, as if it had been meant to point out the power of the laws in regulating the succession to property, and how futile every claim must be that has not its foundation in the positive rules of the state. In personal estates, the father may succeed to his children; in landed property, he never can be their immediate heir, by any the remotest possibility: in general, only the eldest son, in some places only the youngest, in others all the sons together, have a right to succeed to the inheritance: In real estates, males are preferred to females, and the eldest male will usually exclude the rest; in the division of personal estates, the females of equal degree are admitted together with the males, and no right of primogeniture is allowed.

Blackst. Comment.

This one consideration may help to remove the scruples of many well-meaning persons, who set up a mistaken conscience in opposition to the rules of law. If a man disinherits his son, by a will duly executed, and leaves his estate to a stranger, there are many who consider this proceeding as contrary to natural justice; while others so scrupulously adhere to the supposed intention of the dead, that if a will of lands be attested by only *two* witnesses instead of *three*, which the law requires, they are apt to imagine that the heir is bound in conscience to relinquish his title to the devisee. But both of them certainly proceed upon very erroneous principles: as if, on the one hand, the son had by nature a right to succeed to his father's lands; or as if, on the other hand, the owner was by nature entitled to direct the succession of his property after his own decease. Whereas the law of nature suggests, that on the death of the possessor the estate should again become common, and be open to the next occupant, unless otherwise ordered, for the sake of civil peace, by the positive law of society. The positive law of society, which is with us the municipal law of England, directs it to vest in such person as the last proprietor shall by will, attended with certain requisites, appoint; and, in defect of such appointment, to go to some particular person, who, from the result of certain local constitutions, appears to be the heir at law. Hence it follows, that, where the appointment is regularly made, there cannot be a shadow of right in any one but the person appointed: and, where the necessary requisites are omitted, the right of the heir is equally strong and built upon as solid a foundation, as the right of the devisee would have been, supposing such requisites were observed.

But, after all, there are some few things, which, notwithstanding the general introduction and continuance of property, must still unavoidably remain in common; being such wherein nothing but an usufructuary property is capable of being had: and therefore they still belong to the first occupant, during the time he holds possession of them, and no longer. Such (among others) are the elements of light, air, and water; which a man may occupy by means of his windows, his gardens, his mills, and other conveniencies: such also are the generality of those animals which are said to be *feræ naturæ*, or of a wild and untameable disposition; which any man may seize upon and keep for his own use or pleasure. All these things, so long as they remain in possession, every man has a right to enjoy without disturbance; but if once they escape from his custody, or he voluntarily abandons the use of them, they return to the common stock, and any man else has an equal right to seize and enjoy them afterwards.

Property || Propitiation.

Again, there are other things in which a permanent property may subsist, not only as to the temporary use, but also the solid substance; and which yet would be frequently found without a proprietor, had not the wisdom of the law provided a remedy to obviate this inconvenience. Such are forests and other waste grounds, which were omitted to be appropriated in the general distribution of lands: such also are wrecks, estrays, and that species of wild animals, which the arbitrary constitutions of positive law have distinguished from the rest by the well-known appellation of *game*. With regard to these and some others, as disturbances and quarrels would frequently arise among individuals contending about the acquisition of this species of property by first occupancy, the law has therefore wisely cut up the root of dissension, by vesting the things themselves in the sovereign of the state; or else in his representatives appointed and authorised by him, being usually the lords of manors. And thus our legislature has universally promoted the grand ends of civil society, the peace and security of individuals, by steadily pursuing that wise and orderly maxim, of assigning to every thing capable of ownership a legal and determinate owner.

PROPHECY, a prediction made by divine inspiration.

PROPHET, in general, a person who foretels future events; but is particularly applied to such inspired persons among the Jews as were commissioned by God to declare his will and purposes to that people. Among the canonical books of the Old Testament, we have the writings of 16 prophets, four of whom are denominated the *greater prophets*, *viz.* Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, and Daniel; so called from the length or extent of their writings, which exceed those of the others, *viz.* Hosea, Joel, Amos, Obadiah, Jonah, Micah, Nahum, Habakkuk, Haggai, Zechariah, and Malachi, who are called the *lesser prophets*, from the shortness of their writings. The Jews do not place Daniel among the prophets, because, they say, he lived the life of a courtier rather than that of a prophet. An account of the several writings of the prophets may be seen each under its particular head. See the article Isaiah, &c.

PROPITIATION, in theology, a sacrifice offered to God to assuage his wrath, and render him propitious. Among the Jews there were both ordinary and public sacrifices, as holocausts, &c. offered by way of thanks-

thanksgiving; and extraordinary ones, offered by particular persons guilty of any crime, by way of propitiation. The Romish church believe the mass to be a sacrifice of propitiation for the living and the dead. The reformed churches allow of no propitiation but that one offered by Jesus Christ on the cross.

PROPOLIS, the name of a certain substance more tenacious than wax, with which the bees stop up all the holes or cracks in the sides of their hives. See APIS, n° 13.

PROPONTIS, or SEA *of Marmora*, divides Europe from Asia; having to Bosphorus on the north-east, by which it has a communication with the Euxine Sea; and the Hellespont on the south-west, by which it communicates with the Archipelago. It is 120 miles long, and in some places upwards of 40 miles broad.

PROPORTION. When two quantities are compared with one another in respect of their greatness or smallness, the comparison is called *ratio* or *proportion*. See ARITHMETIC, GEOMETRY, &c.

PROPORTION, or *Rule of Three*. See ARITHMETIC, n° 13, 14.

PROPORTION is also used for the relation between unequal things of the same kind, whereby their several parts correspond to each other with an equal augmentation or diminution.

Thus, in reducing a figure into little, or in enlarging it, care is taken to observe an equal diminution, or enlargement, through all its parts; so that if one line, *e. gr.* be contracted by one third of its length, all the rest shall be contracted in the same proportion.

PROPORTION, in architecture, denotes the just magnitude of the members of each part of a building, and the relation of the several parts to the whole; *e. gr.* of the dimensions of a column, &c. with regard to the ordonnance of a whole building.

One of the greatest differences among architects, M. Perrault observes, is in the proportions of the heights of entablatures with respect to the thickness of the columns, to which they are always to be accommodated.

In effect, there is scarce any work, either of the ancients or moderns, wherein this proportion is not different; some entablatures are even near twice as high as others:—yet it is certain, this proportion ought of all others to be most regulated; none being of greater importance, as there is none wherein a defect is sooner spied, nor any wherein it is more shocking.

Harmonic PROPORTION, is when three terms are so disposed, that as the difference of the first and second: the difference of the second and third :: first : third; and they are said to be harmonically proportional. Thus, 10, 15, 30, are harmonically proportional. For as the difference of 10 and 15, is to the difference of 15 and 30, so is 10 to 30.

Compass of PROPORTION, a name by which the French, and after them some English authors, call the SECTOR.

PROPORTIONAL, relating to proportion. Thus we say, proportional compasses, parts, scales, spirals, &c.

PROPORTIONALS, in geometry, are quantities, either linear or numeral, which bear the same ratio, or relation to each other.

PROPOSITION, in logic, part of an argument wherein some quality, either negative or positive, is attributed to a subject.

PROPOSITION, in mathematics, is either some truth advanced and shown to be such by demonstration, or some operation proposed and its solution shown. If the proposition be deduced from several theoretical definitions compared together, it is called a *theorem*; if from a praxis, or series of operations, it is called a *problem*. See the articles THEOREM and PROBLEM.

PROPOSITION, in oratory. See ORATORY, n° 28. 124.

PROPOSITION, in poetry, the first part of a poem, wherein the author proposes briefly, and in general, what he is to say in the body of his work. It should comprehend only the matter of the poem, that is, the action and persons that act. Horace prescribes modesty and simplicity in the proposition, and would not have the poet promise too much, nor raise in the reader too great ideas of what he is going to relate.

PROPREFECT, among the Romans, the prefect's lieutenant, or an officer whom the prefect of the pretorium commissioned to do part of his duty in his place.

PROPRETOR, a Roman magistrate, who, having discharged the office of pretor at home, was sent into a province to command there with his former pretorial authority. It was also an appellation given to those who, without having been pretors at Rome, were sent extraordinarily into the provinces to administer justice with the authority of pretors.

PRO RATA, in commerce, a term sometimes used by merchants for *in proportion*; as each person must reap the profit or sustain the loss, *pro rata* to his interest, that is, in proportion to his stock.

PROROGATION, the act of prolonging, adjourning, or putting off to another time. The difference between a prorogation and an adjournment of parliament is, that by prorogation the session is ended, and such bills as passed in either house, or both houses, and had not the royal assent, must at the next assembly begin again.

PROSCRIPTION, a publication made in the name of the chief or leader of a party, whereby he promises a reward to any one who shall bring him the head of one of his enemies.

Sylla and Marius by turns proscribed each other's adherents.—Under the triumvirate, a great part of the best and bravest of the Romans fell by proscription.

The term took its rise from the practice of writing down a list of the persons names, and posting it in public: from *pro*, and *scribo* "I write."

PROSE, the natural language of mankind, loose, and unconfined by poetical measures, rhymes, &c.—In which sense it stands opposed to verse.

The word comes from the Latin *prosa*, which some will have derived from the Hebrew *poras*, which signifies *expendit*: others deduce it from the Latin *prorsa*, of *prorsus*, "going forwards;" by way of opposition to *versa*, or "turning backwards," as is necessary in writing.

PROSECUTION, in the criminal law. The next step towards the punishment of offenders after COMMITMENT, is their prosecution, or the manner of their formal

Prosecutor || Proslambanomene.

formal accusation. And this, in the English law, is either upon a previous finding of the fact by an inquest or grand jury; or without such previous finding.

The former way is either by PRESENTMENT or INDICTMENT. See these articles.

The remaining methods of prosecution are without any previous finding by a jury, to fix the authoritative stamp of verisimilitude upon the accusation. One of these, by the common law, was when a thief was taken *with the mainour*, that is, with the thing stolen upon him, *in manu*. For he might, when so detected, *flagrante delicto*, be brought into court, arraigned, and tried, without indictment: as by the Danish law he might be taken and hanged upon the spot, without accusation or trial. But this proceeding was taken away by several statutes in the reign of Edward III. though in Scotland a similar process remains to this day. So that the only species of proceeding at the suit of the king, without a previous indictment or presentment by a grand jury, now seems to be that of INFORMATION; which see.

These are all the methods of prosecution at the suit of the king. There yet remains another, which is merely at the suit of the subject, and is called an *appeal*. See that article.

But of all the methods of prosecution, that by indictment is the most general. See INDICTMENT.

PROSECUTOR, in law, he that pursues a cause in another's name.

PROSERPINE, in fabulous history, the daughter of Jupiter and Ceres, was carried off by Pluto as she was gathering flowers with her companions. Ceres, disconsolate for the loss of her daughter, after having long sought her, heard where she was, and intreated Jupiter to let her return from hell. This request Jupiter granted, on condition she had tasted nothing in Pluto's dominions. Ceres therefore went to fetch her; but when her daughter was preparing to return, Ascalaphus gave information that he had seen Proserpine eat some grains of a pomegranate she had gathered in Pluto's garden, on which she was sentenced to continue in Tartarus in quality of Pluto's spouse, and the queen of those gloomy regions: but to mitigate the grief of Ceres for her disappointment, Jupiter granted that her daughter should only spend six months together in hell with her husband, and the other six on earth with her mother.

Some mythologists imagine that the latter part of the fable alludes to the corn, which must remain all the winter hid in the earth, in order to sprout forth in the spring, and produce the harvest.

PROSELYTE, a new convert to some religion, or religious sect.

PROSEUCHE, in antiquity, properly signifies *prayer;* but it is taken for the places of prayer of the Jews, and was pretty near the same as their synagogues. But the synagogues were originally in the cities, and were covered places: whereas, for the most part, the proseuches were out of the cities and on the banks of rivers; having no covering, except perhaps the shade of some trees or covered galleries. The word is Greek, προσευχη, "prayer."

PROSLAMBANOMENE, the name of a musical note in the Greek system.

As the two tetrachords of the Greeks were conjunctive, or, in other words, as the highest note of the first served likewise for the lowest note of the second, it is plain that a complete octave could not be formed. To remedy this deficiency, therefore, one note beneath the lowest tetrachord was added, as an octave to the highest of the last tetrachord. Thus, if we suppose the first to have begun on B, the last must have ended upon A, to which one note subjoined immediately beneath the lowest B in the diatonic order must have formed an octave. This note was called *proslambanomene*. But it appears from authors who have scrutinized antiquity with some diligence, and perhaps with as much success as the data upon which they proceeded could produce, that the names of the notes in the Greek system, which originally signified their natural station in the scale of ascending or descending sounds, were afterwards applied to their positions in the lyre. *Higher* or *lower*, then, according to this application, did not signify their degrees of acuteness or gravity, but their higher or lower situation upon this instrument.

Burney's Hist. of Music, Dissert. § 1.

Prosody || Protea.

PROSODY, that part of grammar which treats of the quantities and accents of syllables, and the manner of making verses.

The English prosody turns chiefly on two things, numbers and rhyme. See POETRY, n° 20. and Part III.

PROSOPOPŒIA, a figure in oratory, whereby we raise qualities of things inanimate into persons. See ORATORY, n° 48.

PROSTATÆ, in anatomy, a gland, generally supposed to be two separate bodies, though in reality but one, situated just before the neck of the bladder, and surrounding the beginning of the urethra. See ANATOMY, n° 371, n.

PROSTYLE, in architecture, a range of columns in the front of a temple.

PROTAGORAS, a famous Greek philosopher, born at Abdera, was the disciple of Democritus, and the legislator of the Thurians. He was more subtle than solid in his reasonings; however, he taught at Athens with great reputation, but was at length banished from thence for the impiety of his doctrines. He then travelled, and visited the islands in the Mediterranean, where it is said that he was the first philosopher who taught for money. He died in a voyage to Sicily, in a very advanced age. He commonly reasoned by dilemmas, and left the mind in suspence with respect to all the questions he proposed. Plato wrote a dialogue against him. He flourished 400 B. C.

PROTEA, the SILVER-TREE; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the tetrandria class of plants. There are three species: 1. The conifera, with linear, spear-shaped, entire leaves, grows to the height of 10 or 12 feet, with a straight regular stem. The branches naturally form a large regular head. The leaves are long and narrow, of a shining silver colour; and as they remain the whole year, make a fine appearance in the green-house. 2. The argentea, commonly called *silver-tree*, has a strong upright stem covered with purplish bark, dividing into several branches which grow erect, garnished with broad, shining, silvery leaves, which make a fine appearance when intermixed with other exotics. 3. The nitida, or wage-boom,

boom, greatly resembles the second sort: the leaves are very silky and white, with erect purple branches.

All these plants, being tender exotics, require to be continually kept in the green-house during winter. The first may be propagated by cuttings, which should be cut off in April, just before the plants begin to shoot; the second and third sorts may be propagated by seeds.

PROTASIS, in the ancient drama, the first part of a comic or tragic piece, wherein the several persons are shown, their characters intimated, and the subject of the piece proposed and entered upon.

It might reach as far as our two first acts, and where it ended the epitasis commenced. See the article EPITASIS.

PROTECTOR, a person who undertakes to shelter and defend the weak, helpless, and distressed.

Every Catholic nation, and every religious order, has a protector residing at the court of Rome, who is a cardinal, and is called the *cardinal protector*.

Protector is also sometimes used for a regent of a kingdom, made choice of to govern it during the minority of a prince.

Cromwell assumed the title and quality of *lord protector of the common-wealth of England*, &c.

PROTESILAI TURRIS, the sepulchre of Protesilaus, with a temple, at which Alexander sacrificed, (Arian); situate at the south extremity of the Hellespont, next the Chersonnesus Thracia. Protesilaus was the first Greek who landed on the coast of Troy, and the first Greek slain by the Trojans, (Homer, Ovid.) His wife Laodamia, to assuage her grief, begged the gods for a sight of his shade; and obtaining her request, she expired in his embraces, (Hyginus.) Protesilaus was also called *Phylacides*, from Phylace, a town of Thessaly.

PROTEST, in law, is a call of witness, or an open affirmation that a person does, either not at all, or but conditionally, yield his consent to any act, or to the proceeding of any judge in a court in which his jurisdiction is doubtful, or to answer upon his oath farther than he is bound by law.

Any of the lords in parliament have a right to protest their dissent to any bill passed by a majority: which protest is entered in form. This is said to be a very ancient privilege. The commons have no right to protest. See PARLIAMENT.

PROTEST, in commerce, a summons written by a notary-public to a merchant, banker, or the like, to accept or discharge a bill of exchange drawn on him, after his having refused either to accept or pay it. See BILL *of Exchange*.

PROTESTANT, a name first given in Germany to those who adhered to the doctrine of Luther; because in 1529, they protested against a decree of the emperor Charles V. and the diet of Spires; declaring that they appealed to a general council. The same name has also been given to those of the sentiments of Calvin; and is now become a common denomination for all those of the reformed churches.

PROTEUS, in heathen mythology. See EGYPT, n° 6.

PROTHONOTARY, a term which properly signifies *first notary*, and which was anciently the title of the principal notaries of the emperors of Constantinople.

Prothonotary with us is used for an officer in the court of king's-bench and common-pleas; the former of which courts has one, and the latter three. The prothonotary of the king's bench records all civil actions sued in that court, as the clerk of the crown-office does all criminal causes. The prothonotaries of the common pleas enter and enrol all declarations, pleadings, assizes, judgments, and actions: they also make out all judicial writs, except writs of *habeas corpus*, and *distringas jurator*, for which there is a particular office, called the *habeas corpora office:* they likewise enter recognizances acknowledged, and all common recoveries; make exemplifications of records, &c.

In the court of Rome there is a college of 12 prelates, called *apostolical prothonotaries*, empowered to receive the last wills of cardinals, to make all informations and proceedings necessary for the canonization of saints, and all such acts as are of great consequence to the Papacy: for which purpose they have the right of admission into all consistories, whether public or half public. They also attend on the pope, whenever he performs any extraordinary ceremony out of Rome.

PROTO, a Greek term, frequently used in composition of priority: thus, proto-collum, in the ancient jurisprudence, signifies the first leaf of a book; protomartyr, the first martyr; proto-plast, the first man formed, &c.

PROTOGENES, a celebrated ancient painter, was born at Caunas, a city of Caria, subject to the Rhodians, and flourished 300 years before the birth of our Saviour. He was at first obliged to paint ships for his livelihood; but afterwards acquired the highest reputation for history-painting; though Apelles blamed him for finishing his pieces too highly, and not knowing when to have done. The finest of his pictures was that of Jalisus, which is mentioned by several ancient authors, though none of them give any description of it. He worked seven years on this picture; during which time he lived entirely upon lupines and water, being of opinion that this light and simple nourishment left him greater freedom of fancy. Apelles, on seeing this picture, was struck with such admiration, that he was unable to speak, or to find words sufficient to express his idea of its beauty. It was this picture that saved the city of Rhodes when besieged by Demetrius king of Macedon; for being able to attack it only on that side where Protogenes worked, which he intended to burn, he chose rather to abandon his design than to destroy so fine a piece. Pliny says, that Apelles asking him what price he had for his pictures, and Protogenes naming an inconsiderable sum, Apelles, concerned at the injustice done to the beauty of his productions, gave him 50 talents, about 10,000l. for one picture only, declaring publicly that he would sell it for his own. This generosity made the Rhodians sensible of the merit of Protogenes; and they were so eager to purchase the picture Apelles had bought, that they paid him a much greater price for it than he had given.

PROTOTYPE, is the original or model after which a thing was formed; but chiefly used for the patterns of things to be engraved, cast, &c.

PRO-

PROTRACTOR, the name of an instrument used for protracting or laying down on paper the angles of a field, or other figure. See PLOTTING.

PROTUBERANCE, in anatomy, is any eminence, whether natural or preternatural, that projects or advances out beyond the rest.

PROVEDITOR, an officer in several parts of Italy, particularly at Venice, who has the direction of matters relating to policy.

PROVENCE, a province or government of France, bounded by Dauphine on the north, by Piedmont on the east, by the Mediterranean on the south, and by the river Rhone, which separates it from Languedoc, on the west: it is about 100 miles long, and near as many broad.

PROVEND, or PROVENDER, originally signified a kind of vessel containing the measure of corn daily given to a horse, or other beast of labour, for his subsistence; but now is generally used to signify the food for cattle, whatever it is.

PROVERB, according to Camden, is a concise, witty, and wise speech, grounded upon experience, and for the most part containing some useful instructions.

Book of PROVERBS, a canonical book of the Old Testament, containing a part of the proverbs of Solomon the son of David king of Israel. The first 24 chapters are acknowledged to be the genuine work of that prince; the next five chapters are a collection of several of his proverbs made by order of king Hezekiah; and the two last seem to have been added though belonging to different and unknown authors, Agur the son of Jakeh, and king Lemuel.

In this excellent book are contained rules for the conduct of all conditions of life; for kings, courtiers, masters, servants, fathers, mothers, children, &c.

PROVIDENCE, the conduct and direction of the several parts of the universe by a superior intelligent Being. The notion of a providence is founded on this supposition, that the Creator has not so fixed and ascertained the laws of nature, nor so connected the chain of second causes, as to leave the world to itself; but that he still preserves the reins in his own hands, and occasionally alters, enforces, restrains, and suspends those laws by a particular interposition.

Some, with the Epicureans, deny a providence, as imagining it inconsistent with the happiness of the divine nature.

Others again deny the existence of a providence, on account of the seemingly unjust distribution of good and evil.

Simplicius argues thus for a providence: If God do not look to the affairs of the world, it is either because he cannot or will not; but the first is absurd, since to govern cannot be difficult, when to create was easy; and the latter is both absurd and blasphemous.

The sentiments of Cicero are likewise very precise and pertinent to this purpose. He thinks it impossible for one who duly considers the innumerable objects of the universe, and their invariable order and beauty, to entertain the least doubt, but that there is some efficient cause who presides over and directs the mighty fabric! Nay, he lays it down as a fundamental principle of all societies, that there is a divine Providence, which directs all events, observes the actions of mankind, whether good or bad, discerns the very intentions of the heart, and will certainly make a difference between good men and the wicked.

PROVIDENCE-*Plantation*, a colony of New-England, which, with Rhode-island, formerly constituted a charter government. Its chief town is Newport.

PROVIDENCE, one of the least of the Bahama islands in the American ocean, but the best of those planted and fortified by the English. It is seated on the east side of the gulf of Florida. W. Long. 77. 35. N. Lat. 25. 0.

PROVINCE, in Roman antiquity, a country of considerable extent, which, upon being entirely reduced under the Roman dominion, was new-modelled according to the pleasure of the conquerors, and subjected to the command of annual governors sent from Rome; being commonly obliged to pay such taxes and contributions as the senate thought fit to demand.

Of these countries, that part of France next the Alps was one, and still retains the name *Provence*.

Nicod derives the word *à procul vivendo*, "living afar off;" but it is better deduced from *pro*, and *vinco* "I overcome."

PROVINCE, in geography, a division of a kingdom or state, comprising several cities, towns, &c. all under the same government, and usually distinguished by the extent either of the civil or ecclesiastical jurisdiction.

The church distinguishes its provinces by archbishoprics; in which sense, England is divided into two provinces, Canterbury and York.

The United Provinces are seven provinces of the Netherlands, who, revolting from the Spanish dominion, made a perpetual alliance offensive and defensive, at Utrecht, anno 1579. See UNITED *Provinces*.

PROVINCIAL, something relating to a province. It also denotes, in Romish countries, a person who has the direction of the several convents of a province.

PROVISIONS, in a military sense, implies all manner of eatables, food or provender, used in an army, both for man and beast.

PROVOST of a city or town, is the chief municipal magistrate in several trading cities, particularly Edinburgh, Paris, &c. being much the same with mayor in other places. He presides in city-courts, and, together with the bailies, who are his deputies, determines in all differences that arise among citizens.

The provost of Edinburgh, as well as all the other considerable towns in Scotland, has the title of *lord*; and the former calls yearly conventions of the royal boroughs to Edinburgh by his missives.

PROVOST, or *Prevot Royal*, a sort of inferior judge established throughout France, to take cognizance of all civil, personal, real, and mixed causes, among the people only.

Grand PROVOST *of France*, or *of the Houshold*, has juridiction in the king's house, and over the officers therein; looks to the policy thereof, the regulation of provisions, &c.

Grand PROVOST *of the Constable*, a judge who manages processes against the soldiers in the army who have committed any crime.

He has four lieutenants distributed throughout the army, called *provosts of the army*, and particularly provosts in the several regiments.

PROVOST *Marshal of an Army*, is an officer appointed to seize and secure deserters, and all other criminals.

nals. He is to hinder ſoldiers from pillaging, to indict offenders, and ſee the ſentence paſſed on them executed. He alſo regulates the weights and meaſures, and the price of proviſions, &c. in the army. For the diſcharge of his office, he has a lieutenant, a clerk, and a troop of marſhal-men on horſeback, as alſo an executioner.

There is alſo a provoſt-marſhal in the navy, who hath charge over priſoners, &c.

The French have a provoſt-general of the marines, who is to proſecute the marines when guilty of any crime, and make report thereof to the council of war; beſides a marine provoſt in every veſſel, who is a kind of gaoler, and takes the priſoners into his care, and keeps the veſſel clean.

Provosts *of the Marſhals*, are a kind of lieutenants of the marſhals of France; of theſe there are 180 ſeats in France; their chief juriſdiction regards highwaymen, footpads, houſe-breakers, &c.

Provost *of the Mint*, a particular judge inſtituted for the apprehending and proſecuting of falſe coiners.

Provost, or *Prevot*, in the king's ſtables; his office is to attend at court, and hold the king's ſtirrup when he mounts his horſe. There are four provoſts of this kind, each of whom attends in his turn, monthly.

PROW, denotes the head or forepart of a ſhip, particularly in a galley; being that which is oppoſite to the poop or ſtern.

PROXIMITY, denotes the relation of nearneſs, either in reſpect of place, blood, or alliance.

PRUDENTIUS, or Aurelius Prudentius Clemens, a famous Chriſtian poet, under the reign of Theodoſius the Great, who was born in Spain in the year 348. He firſt followed the profeſſion of an advocate, was afterwards a judge, then a ſoldier, and at length had an honourable employment at court. We have a great number of his poems, which, from the choice of his ſubjects, may be termed *Chriſtian poems*; but the ſtyle is barbarous, and very different from the purity of the Auguſtan age. The moſt eſteemed editions of Prudentius's works are that of Amſterdam, in 1667, with Heinſius's Notes, and that of Paris in 1687, *in uſum Delphini*.

PRUNES, are plumbs dried in the ſunſhine, or in an oven.

PRUNING, in gardening and agriculture, is the lopping off the ſuperfluous branches of trees, in order to make them bear better fruit, grow higher, or appear more regular.

Pruning, though an operation of very general uſe, is nevertheleſs rightly underſtood by few. Nor is it to be learned by rote, but requires a ſtrict obſervation of the different manners of growth of the ſeveral ſorts of fruit-trees; the proper method of doing which cannot be known without carefully obſerving how each kind is naturally diſpoſed to produce its fruit: for ſome do this on the ſame year's wood, as vines; others, for the moſt part, upon the former year's wood, as peaches, nectarines, &c.; and others upon ſpurs which are produced upon wood of three, four, &c. to fifteen or twenty years old, as pears, plums, cherries, &c. Therefore, in order to the right management of fruit-trees, proviſion ſhould always be made to have a ſufficient quantity of bearing wood in every part of the trees; and at the ſame time there ſhould not be a ſuperfluity of uſeleſs branches, which would exhauſt the ſtrength of the trees, and cauſe them to decay in a few years.

The reaſons for pruning of fruit-trees; are, 1. To preſerve them longer in a vigorous bearing-ſtate; 2. To render them more beautiful; and, 3. To cauſe the fruit to be larger and better taſted.

The general inſtructions for pruning are as follow. The greateſt care ought to be taken of fruit-trees in the ſpring, when they are in vigorous growth; which is the only proper ſeaſon for procuring a quantity of good wood in the different parts of the tree, and for diſplacing all uſeleſs branches as ſoon as they are produced, in order that the vigour of the tree may be entirely diſtributed to ſuch branches only as are deſigned to remain. For this reaſon trees ought not to be neglected in April and May, when their ſhoots are produced: however, thoſe branches which are intended for bearing the ſucceeding year ſhould not be ſhortened during the time of their growth, becauſe this would cauſe them to produce two lateral ſhoots, from the eyes below the place where they were ſtopped, which would draw much of the ſtrength from the buds of the firſt ſhoot: and if the two lateral ſhoots are not entirely cut away at the winter-pruning, they will prove injurious to the tree. This is to be chiefly underſtood of ſtone-fruit and grapes; but pears and apples, being much harder, ſuffer not ſo much, tho' it is a great diſadvantage to thoſe alſo to be thus managed. It muſt likewiſe be remarked, that peaches, nectarines, apricots, cherries, and plums, are always in the greateſt vigour when they are leaſt maimed by the knife; for where large branches are taken off, they are ſubject to gum and decay. It is therefore the moſt prudent method to rub off all uſeleſs buds when they are firſt produced, and to pinch others, where new ſhoots are wanted to ſupply the vacancies of the wall; by which management they may be ſo ordered as to want but little of the knife in winter-pruning. The management of pears and apples is much the ſame with theſe trees in ſummer; but in winter they muſt be very differently pruned: for as peaches and nectarines, for the moſt part, produce their fruit upon the former year's wood, and muſt therefore have their branches ſhortened according to their ſtrength, in order to produce new ſhoots for the ſucceeding year; ſo, on the contrary, pears, apples, plumbs, and cherries, producing their fruit upon ſpurs, which come out of the wood of five, ſix, and ſeven years old, ſhould not be ſhortened, becauſe thereby thoſe buds which were naturally diſpoſed to form theſe ſpurs, would produce wood-branches; by which means the trees would be filled with wood, but would never produce much fruit. The branches of ſtandard-trees ſhould never be ſhortened unleſs where they are very luxuriant, and, by growing irregularly on one ſide of the trees, attract the greateſt part of the ſap, by which means the other parts are either unfurniſhed with branches, or are rendered very weak; in which caſe the branch ſhould be ſhortened down as low as is neceſſary, in order to obtain more branches to fill up the hollow of the tree: but this is only to be underſtood of pears and apples, which will produce ſhoots from wood of three, four, or more years old; whereas moſt ſorts of ſtone-fruit will gum and decay after ſuch amputations:

Pruning. Prunus.

whenever this happens to ſtone-fruit, it ſhould be remedied by ſtopping or pinching thoſe ſhoots in the ſpring, before they have obtained too much vigour, which will cauſe them to puſh out ſide branches; but this muſt be done with caution. You muſt alſo cut out all dead or decaying branches, which cauſe their heads to look ragged, and alſo attract noxious particles from the air: in doing of this, you ſhould cut them cloſe down to the place where they were produced, otherwiſe that part of the branch which is left will alſo decay, and prove equally hurtful to the reſt of the tree; for it ſeldom happens when a branch begins to decay, that it does not die quite down to the place where it was produced, and if permitted to remain long uncut, often infects ſome of the other parts of the tree. If the branches cut off are large, it will be very proper, after having ſmoothed the cut part exactly even with a knife, chiſſel, or hatchet, to put on a plaſter of grafting clay, which will prevent the wet from ſoaking into the tree at the wounded part. All ſuch branches as run a-croſs each other, and occaſion a confuſion in the head of the tree, ſhould be cut off; and as there are frequently young vigorous ſhoots on old trees, which riſe from the old branches near the trunk, and grow upright into the head, theſe ſhould be carefully cut out every year, leſt, by being permitted to grow, they fill the tree too full of wood.

As to the pruning of foreſt-trees, if they be large, it is beſt not to prune them at all; yet, if there be an abſolute neceſſity, avoid taking off large boughs as much as poſſible. And, 1. If the bough be ſmall, cut it ſmooth, cloſe, and ſloping. 2. If the branch be large, and the tree old, cut it off at three or four feet from the ſtem. 3. If the tree grow crooked, cut it off at the crook, ſloping upward, and nurſe up one of the moſt promiſing ſhoots for a new ſtem. 4. If the tree grow top-heavy, its head muſt be lightened, and that by thinning the boughs that grow out of the main branches. But if you would have them ſpring, rub off the buds, and ſhroud up the ſide-ſhoots. 5. If the ſide-bough ſtill break out, and the top be able to ſuſtain itſelf, give the boughs that put forth in ſpring a pruning after Midſummer, cutting them cloſe.

PRUNUS, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the icoſandria claſs of plants.

Species. 1. The domeſtica, or common plum-tree, grows 20 or 30 feet high, graniſhed with oval, ſpear-ſhaped leaves, and with the pedunculi for the moſt part ſingle, terminated by flowers, ſucceeded by plums of many different colours, ſizes, and ſhapes in the varieties. 2. The inſititia, wild-plum, or bullace-tree, grows 12 or 15 feet high; the branches ſomewhat ſpinous; the leaves oval, hairy underneath; and the pedunculi by pairs, terminated by white flowers ſucceeded by ſmall, round, plum-like, fruit of different colours in the varieties. 3. The ſpinoſa, black-thorn, or ſloe-tree, grows 10 or 12 feet high, very branchy and buſhy quite from bottom, armed with ſtrong, ſharp ſpines, ſmall, ſpear-ſhaped, ſmooth leaves, pedunculi growing ſingly, terminated by flowers, ſucceeded by ſmall, round, black cherries in autumn. It grows wild every where in hedges and woods; and is very proper for planting field hedges, being of very quick and cloſe growth. 4. The cerafus, or common cherry-tree, grows 20 feet or more in height, garniſhed with oval cluſters of lanceolate, ſmooth leaves, umbellate flowers, ſucceeded by cluſters of red roundiſh fruit of different ſizes and properties in the varieties. 5. The avium, or great wild-cherry tree, grows 40 or 50 feet high, having oval, ſpear-ſhaped leaves, downy underneath, with umbellate ſeſſile cluſters of white flowers, ſucceeded by ſmall round fruit of different properties in the varieties. 6. The padus, or common bird-cherry tree, grows 15 or 20 feet high, of a ſhrub-like growth, with a ſpreading head, large, oblong, rough ferrated leaves, having two glands at the back of the baſe like the other, and with ſhorter, more compact cluſters of flowers, ſucceeded by large red fruit. This grows wild in hedges in the north parts of England. 7. The Virginiana, or Virginan bird-cherry, grows 30 feet high, dividing into a very branchy head, having a dark purple bark, oval, ſlightly ferrated, ſhining green leaves, having two glands at the forepart of the baſe, and long cluſters of white flowers, ſucceeded by ſmall, round, berry-like, black fruit. 8. The Canadenſis, or Canada dwarf bird cherry, grows but four or five feet high, branching horizontally near the ground with ſmooth branches; broad, ſpear-ſhaped, rough downy leaves without glands; and long cluſters of white flowers, ſucceeded by ſmall, round, berry-like, black fruit, ripe in autumn. 9. The mahaleb, or perfumed cherry, grows 10 or 15 feet high, with ſmooth whitiſh branches, ſmall, oval ſhining green leaves, and corymbous cluſters of white flowers, ſucceeded by ſmall fruit. 10. The armeniaca, or apricot tree, grows 20 feet high, with a large ſpreading head, having reddiſh ſhoots, large nearly heart ſhaped leaves, and cloſe-ſitting pale-red flowers riſing all along the ſides of the young branches; ſucceeded by large, roundiſh fruit of a yellow and reddiſh colour in different varieties.

Culture. All the different varieties of plums have at firſt been raiſed from the ſtones, and are afterwards preſerved by budding and grafting on any plum-ſtock. The ſame method is applicable to cherries; only theſe are grafted to moſt advantage upon ſtocks of the wild black and red cherry raiſed from the ſtones of the fruit. The apricot-trees are propagated by budding on any kind of plum-ſtocks.

Prunus || Pruſia.

PRUSA, (anc. geog.); a town ſituate at mount Olympus in Myſia, built by Pruſias, who waged war with Croeſus, (Strabo); with Cyrus, (Stephanus); both cotempory princes. Now called *Burſa* or *Pruſa*, capital of Bithynia, in Aſia Minor. E. Long. 29. 10. Lat. 40. 30.

PRUSIAS, the name of ſeveral king of BITHYNIA.

PRUSIAS, a town of Bithynia, anciently called *Cios*, from a cognominal river, and giving name to the Sinus Cianus of the Propontis; rebuilt by Pruſias the ſon of Zela, after having been deſtroyed by Philip, the ſon of Demetrius: it ſtood on the Sinus Cianus, at the foot of mount Arganthonius. This is the Pruſias who harboured Annibal, after the defeat of Antiochus.—Of this place was Aſclepiades, furnamed *Pruſieus*, the famous phyſician.

PRUSSIA, a modern, but deſervedly celebrated kingdom of Europe, whoſe monarch, along with Pruſſia Proper, poſſeſſes alſo the electorate of Brandenburg,

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denburg, and some other territories of considerable extent. The district properly called *Prussia* is of great extent, and divided into the Ducal and Regal Prussia, the latter belonging to the republic of Poland till the late partition of the Polish territories. Both together are of great extent; being bounded on the north by the Baltic, on the south by Poland and the duchy of Mazovia, on the west by Pomerania, and on the east by Lithuania and Samogitia. The name is by some thought to be derived from the *Borussi*, a tribe of the Sarmatians, who, migrating from the foot of the Riphæan mountains, were tempted by the beauty and fertility of the country to settle there. Others think that the name of this country is properly *Porussia*, *Po* in the language of the natives signifying *near*, and *Porussia* signifying *near Russia*. To the latter etymology we find the king of Prussia himself assenting in the treatise intitled *Memoirs of the House of Brandenburg*. However, it must be owned, that these or any other etymologies of the word are very uncertain, and we find nothing like it mentioned by historians before the tenth century.

1 Etymology of the name.

2 Extreme barbarity of the ancient inhabitants.

The ancient state of Prussia is almost entirely unknown. However, the people are said to have been very savage and barbarous; living upon raw flesh, and drinking the blood of horses at their feasts, according to Stella, even to intoxication (A). Nay, so extremely savage were this people, that they were even unacquainted with the method of constructing huts, and took up their dwelling in caves and cavities of rocks and trees, where they protected themselves and children from the inclemencies of the weather. Among such a people it is vain to expect that any transactions would be recorded, or indeed that any thing worthy of being recorded would be transacted. We shall therefore begin our history of Prussia with the time when the Teutonic knights first got footing in the country. (See TEUTONIC *Knights*).

3 Teutonic knights first get footing in the country.

On the expulsion of the Christians from the Holy Land by Saladin, a settlement was given to the Teutonic knights in Prussia by Conrade duke of Mazovia, the competitor of Boleslaus V. for the crown of Poland. Their first residence in this country was Culm; to which territory they were confined by the conditions of the donation, excepting what they could conquer from their pagan neighbours, all which the emperor granted to them in perpetuity.

Encouraged by this grant, the knights conquered the greatest part of the country which now goes by the name of *Prussia*; and, not content with this, become very troublesome to Poland, insomuch that the monarchs of that kingdom were sometimes obliged to carry on a dangerous and bloody wars with them; for an account of which, we refer to the article POLAND.

The Teutonic order continued in Prussia till the year 1531. Their last grand-master was Albert marquis of Brandenburg, and nephew to Sigismund I. king of Poland. He was preferred to this dignity in hopes that his affinity to Sigismund might procure a restitution of some of the places which had been taken from the order during the former unsuccessful wars with Poland; but in this the fraternity were disappointed. Albert, however, was so far from endeavouring to obtain any favour from his uncle by fair means, that he refused to do homage to him, and immediately began to make preparations for throwing off his dependence altogether, and recovering the whole of Prussia and Pomerania by force of arms. In this he was so far from succeeding, that, being foiled in every attempt, he was forced to resign the dignity of grand-master; in recompense for which, his uncle bestowed on him that part of Prussia now called *Ducal*, in quality of a secular duke. It was now the interest of the house of Brandenburg to assist in the expulsion of the fraternity; and accordingly, being at last driven out of Prussia and Pomerania, they transferred their chapter to Mariendal in Franconia; but in that and other provinces of the empire where they settled, little more than the name of the order once so famous now remains.

4 Expelled.

5 History of Brandenburg.

The other most considerable part of his Prussian majesty's dominions is the Electorate of Brandenburg. Like other parts of Germany, it was anciently possessed by Barbarians, of whom no history can be given. These were subdued by Charlemagne, as is related under the article FRANCE; but being on every occasion ready to revolt, in 927 Henry the Fowler established margraves, or governors of the frontiers, to keep the barbarians in awe. The first margrave of Brandenburg was Sigefroy brother-in-law to the above-mentioned emperor; under whose administration the bishoprics of Brandenburg and Havelberg were established by Otho I. From this Sigefroy to the succession of the house of Hohenzollern, from whom the present elector is descended, there are reckoned eight different families, who have been margraves of Brandenburg; namely, the family of the Saxons, of Walbeck, Staden, Plenck, Anhalt, Bavaria, Luxemburg, and Misnia. The margraves of the four first races had continual wars with the Vandals and other barbarous people; nor could their ravages be stopped till the reign of Albert surnamed *the Bear*, the first prince of the house of Anhalt. He was made margrave by the emperor Conrad III. and afterwards raised to the dignity of elector by Frederic Barbarossa, about the year 1100. Some years afterwards, the king of the Vandals dying without issue, left the middle March by his last will to the elector, who was besides possessed of the old March, upper Saxony, the country of Anhalt, and part of Lusace. In 1332 this line became extinct, and the electorate devolved to the empire. It was then given by the emperor Louis of Bavaria to his son Lonis, who was the first of the sixth race. Louis the Roman succeeded his brother; and as he also died without children, he was succeeded by Otho, his third brother, who sold the electorate to the emperor Charles IV. of the house of Luxemburg for 200,000 florins of gold. Charles IV. gave the March to his son Wenceslaus, to whom Sigismund succeeded. This elector, being embarrassed in his circumstances, sold the new March to the knights of the Teutonic order. Josse succeeded Sigismund; but, aspiring to the empire,

(A) This author does not mention any particular method by which they communicated an inebriating quality to the blood of animals. Possibly, however, the vital fluid may have a property of this kind, though unknown in our days where such barbarous customs are disused. Drunkenness from drinking blood is frequently mentioned in Scripture, but whether literally or metaphorically must be decided by the learned.

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empire, sold the electorate to William duke of Misnia; who, after he had possessed it for one year, sold it again to the emperor Sigismund. In 1417, Frederic VI. burgrave of Nuremberg received the investiture of the country of Brandenburg at the diet of Constance from the hands of the emperor Sigismund; who, two years before, had conferred upon him the dignity of elector, and arch-chamberlain of the Holy Roman empire.

This prince, the first of the family of Hohenzollern, found himself possessed of the Old and Middle Marche, but the dukes of Pomerania had usurped the March Ukrain. Against them, therefore, the elector immediately declared war, and soon recovered the province. As the New Marche still continued in the hands of the Teutonic knights, to whom it had been sold as we have already mentioned, the elector, to make up for this, took possession of Saxony, which at that time happened to be vacant by the death of Albert the last elector of the Anhalt line. But the emperor, not approving of this step, gave the investiture of Saxony to the duke of Misnia; upon which Frederic voluntarity desisted from his acquisitions. This elector made a division of his possessions by will. His eldest son was deprived of his right on account of his having too closely applied himself to search for the philosopher's stone; so he left him only Voigtland. The electorate was given to his second son Frederic; Albert, surnamed *Achilles*, had the duchies of Franconia; and Frederic, surnamed the *Fat*, had the old March; but by his death it returned to the electorate of Brandenburg.

Frederic I. was succeeded by his son called also *Frederic*, and surnamed *Iron-tooth* on account of his strength. He might with as great reason have been surnamed *the Magnanimous*, since he refused two crowns, viz. that of Bohemia, which was offered him by the pope, and the kingdom of Poland to which he was invited by the people; but Frederic declared he would not accept of it unless Casimir brother to Ladislaus the late king refused it. These instances of magnanimity had such an effect on the neighbouring people, that the states of Lower Lusatia made a voluntary surrender of their country to him. But as Lusatia was a fief of Bohemia, the king of that country immediately made war on the elector, in order to recover it. However, he was so far from being successful, that, by a treaty of peace concluded in 1462, he was obliged to yield the perpetual sovereignty of Corbus, Peits, Sommerfeld, and some other places, to the elector. Frederic then, having redeemed the new March from the Teutonic order for the sum of 100,000 florins, and still further enlarged his dominions, resigned the sovereignty in 1469 to his brother Albert, surnamed the *Achilles*.

6 Exploits of Albert surnamed the *Achilles*.

Albert was 57 years old when his brother resigned the electorate to him. Most of his exploits for which he had the surname of *Achilles* had been performed while he was burgrave of Nuremberg. He declared war against Lewis duke of Bavaria, defeated and took him prisoner. He gained eight battles against the Nurembergers, who had rebelled and contested his rights to the burgraviate. In one of these he fought singly against 16 men, till his people came up to his assistance. He made himself master of the town of Greiffenburg in the same manner that Alexander the Great took the capital of the Oxydracæ, by leaping from the top of the walls into the town, where he defended himself singly against the inhabitants, till his men forced the gates and rescued him. The confidence which the emperor Frederic III. placed in him, gained him the direction of almost the whole empire. He commanded the imperial armies against Lewis the Rich, duke of Bavaria; and against Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, who had laid siege to Nuis, but concluded a peace at the interposition of Albert. He gained the prize at 17 tournaments, and was never dismounted.

7 Prussia and Brandenburg united.

All these exploits, however, had been performed before Albert obtained the electorate. From that time we meet with no very important transactions till the year 1594, when John Sigismund having married Anne the only daughter of Albert duke of Prussia, this united that duchy to the electorate, to which it has continued to be united ever since; and obtained pretensions to the countries of Juliers, Berg, Cleves, Marck, Ravensburg, and Ravenstein, to the succession of which Anne was heiress.

8 Unfortunate reign of the elector George William.

Sigismund died in 1619, and was succeeded by his son George William; during whose government the electorate suffered the most miserable calamities. At this time it was that the war commenced between the Protestants and Catholics, which lasted 30 years. The former, although leagued together, were on the point of being utterly destroyed by the Imperialists under the command of Count Tilly and Wallenstein, when Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden turned the scale in their favour, and threatened the Catholic party with utter destruction *. But by his death at the battle of Lutzen, the fortune of war was once more changed. At last, however, peace was concluded with the emperor; and, in 1640, the elector died, leaving his dominions to his son Frederic William, surnamed the *Great*.

* See *Sweden*.

9 Reign of Frederic William the Great.

This young prince, though only 20 years of age at the time of his accession, applied himself with the utmost diligence to repair the losses and devastations occasioned by the dreadful wars which had preceded. He received the investiture of Prussia personally from the king of Poland, on condition of paying 100,000 florins annually, and not making truce or peace with the enemies of that crown. His envoy likewise received the investiture of the electorate from the emperor Ferdinand III. The elector then thought of recovering his provinces from those who had usurped them. He concluded a truce for 20 years with the Swedes, who evacuated the greatest part of his estates. He likewise paid 140,000 crowns to the Swedish garrisons, which still possessed some of his towns; and he concluded a treaty with the Hessians, who delivered up a part of the duchy of Cleves; and obtained of the Hollanders the evacuation of some other cities.

In the mean time the powers of Europe began to be weary of a war which had continued for such a length of time with such unrelenting fury. The cities of Osnaburg and Munster being chosen as the most proper places for negotiation, the conferences were opened in the year 1645; but, by reason of the multiplicity of business, they were not concluded till two

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years after. France, which had espoused the interests of Sweden, demanded that Pomerania should be ceded to that kingdom as an indemnification for the expences which the war had cost Gustavus Adolphus and his successors. Although the empire and the elector refused to give up Pomerania, it was at last agreed to give up to the Swedes Hither Pomerania, with the isles of Rugen and Wollin, also some cities; in return for which cession, the bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden, and Camin, were secularized in favour of the elector, of which he was put in possession, together with the Lordships of Hochenstein and Richenstein, with the reversion of the archbishopric of Magdeburg. This was the treaty of Westphalia, concluded in 1648, and which serves as a basis to all the possessions and rights of the German princes. The elector then concluded a new treaty with the Swedes, for the regulation of limits, and for the acquittal of some debts, of which Sweden would only pay a fourth; and next year the electorate, Pomerania, and the duchies of Cleves, were evacuated by the Swedes.

10 Treaty of Westphalia concluded.

11 The elector succeeds against the Swedes.

Notwithstanding all these treaties, however, the Swedes soon after invaded Pomerania, but were entirely defeated by the elector near the town of Fehrbellin. Three thousand were left dead on the spot, among whom were a great number of officers; and a great many were taken prisoners. The elector then pursued his victory, gained many advantages over the Swedes, and deprived them of the cities of Stralsund and Gripswald. On this the Swedes, hoping to oblige the elector to evacuate Pomerania, which he had almost totally subdued, invaded Prussia, from Livonia, with 16,000 men; and, advancing into the country, they burned the suburbs of Memel, and took the cities of Tilse and Insterburg. The elector, to oppose the invaders, left Berlin on the 10th of January 1679, at the head of 9000 men. The Swedes retired at his approach, and were greatly harrassed by the troops on their march. So successful indeed was the elector on this occasion, that the Swedes lost almost one half of their army killed or taken prisoners. At last, having crossed the bay of Frisch-haff and Courland on the ice, he arrived on the 19th of January, with his infantry, within three miles of Tilse, where the Swedes had their head-quarters. The same day, his general, Trefenfeldt, defeated two regiments of the enemy near Splitter; and the Swedes who were in Tilse abandoned that place, and retired towards Courland. They were pursued by General Gortz, and entirely defeated with such slaughter, that scarce 3000 of them returned to Livonia. Yet, notwithstanding all these victories, the elector, being pressed on the other side by the victorious generals of France M. Turenne and the prince of Conde, was obliged to make peace with the Swedes. The conditions were, that the treaty of Westphalia should serve for a basis to the peace; that the elector should have the property of the customs in all the ports of Further Pomerania, with the cities of Camin, Gartz, Grieffenburg, and Wildenbruck: on his part, he consented to give up to the Swedes all that he had conquered from them, and to give no assistance to the king of Denmark, upon condition that France delivered up to him his provinces in Westphalia, and paid him 300,000 ducats, as an indemnification for the damages done by the French to his states. This treaty was styled *the peace of St Germain.*

12 Is obliged to conclude a treaty with them.

With the treaty of St Germain terminated the military exploits of Frederic William, who passed the last years of his administration in peace. His great qualities had rendered him respected by all Europe, and had even been heard of in Tartary. He received an embassy from Murad Geray, cham of the Tartars, courting his friendship. The barbarian ambassador appeared in such tattered clothes as scarce covered his nakedness, so that they were obliged to furnish him with other clothes before he could appear at court. His interpreter had a wooden nose and no ears. In 1684, Frederic received into his dominions great numbers of Protestants who fled out of France from the persecutions of Lewis XIV. after he had revoked the edict of Nantes. Twenty thousand of them are said to have settled at this time in the electorate, where they introduced new arts and manufactures, that were of the utmost benefit to the country. By this, however, he disobliged Lewis XIV. for which reason he concluded an alliance with the emperor; and having furnished him with 8000 troops against the Turks in Hungary, the emperor yielded to him the circle of Schwibus in Silesia, as an equivalent for all his rights in that province.

13 A strange embassy from the cham of Tartary.

14 Frederic III. obtains the title of King of Prussia.

In 1688, the elector Frederic William died, and was succeeded by his son Frederic III. This prince was remarkably fond of show and ceremony, which during the course of his government, involved him in much expence. The regal dignity seemed to be the greatest object of his ambition. To obtain this, he joined with the emperor in the alliance against France, in which he was engaged by William III. king of Britain. He also yielded up the circle of Schwibus, which had been given to his predecessor; and, in 1700, obtained from the emperor that dignity which he had so earnestly desired. The terms on which it was obtained were, 1. That Frederic should never separate from the empire those provinces of his dominions which depended on it. 2. That he should not, in the emperor's presence, demand any other marks of honour than those which he had hitherto enjoyed. 3. That his Imperial majesty, when he wrote to him, should only give him the title of *Royal Dilection.* 4. That nevertheless the ministers which he had at Vienna should be treated like those of other crowned heads. 5. That the elector should maintain 6000 men in Italy at his own expence, in case the emperor should be obliged to make war on account of the succession of the house of Bourbon to the crown of Spain. 6. That those troops should continue there as long as the war lasted.

Thus was the kingdom of Prussia established thro' the friendship of the emperor, with whom Frederic I. so called as being the first king of Prussia, continued all his life in strict alliance. Indeed he was a pacific prince; and though contemptible in his person, and incapable of achieving great things, had this merit, that he always preserved his dominions in peace, and thus consulted the true interest of his subjects much more than those monarchs who have dazzled the eyes of the world by their military exploits. He was indeed vain, and fond of show, as we have already observed; but had a good heart, and is said never to have violated

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lated his conjugal vow; though it does not appear that he was greatly beloved by his royal consorts (of whom he had three) on that or any other account.

15 Frederic II. of Prussia martial prince.

Frederic I. died in the beginning of 1713, and was succeeded by Frederic II. father to the present monarch. He was in almost every thing the reverse of Frederic I. His dispositions were altogether martial; so that he applied himself entirely to the augmentation of his army, and perfecting them in their exercise, by which means they became the most expert soldiers in Europe. His foible was an ambition of having his army composed of men above the ordinary size: but as these could not be procured, he composed a regiment of the tallest men he could find; and as his officers made no scruple of picking up such men wherever they could find them, for his majesty's use, the neighbouring states were frequently offended, and a war was often likely to ensue even from this ridiculous cause. However, his Prussian majesty was never engaged in any martial enterprize of consequence; but having put his army on the most respectable footing of any in the world, and filled his coffers, for he was of a very saving disposition, he put it in the power of his son to perform those exploits which have been matter of astonishment of all Europe.

16 Enmity between Prussia and Austria.

It was in this king's reign, that Prussia first perceived her natural enemy and rival to be the house of Austria, and not France as had been formerly supposed. Hence frequent bickerings took place between these two powers, for which the persecution of the Protestants by some of the Catholic states of the empire afforded a pretence; and though a war never actually took place, yet it was easy to see that both were mortal enemies to each other. But when Frederic II. died in 1740, this enmity broke out in full force. The empress of Germany was then left in a very disagreeable situation, as has been observed under the article BRITAIN, n° 405. Of this Frederic III. took the advantage, to do himself justice, as he said, with regard to Silesia, of which his ancestors had been unjustly deprived. This province he seized at that time, but it cost him dear; for the empress, having at last overcome all difficulties, formed against him the most terrible combination that ever was known in Europe.

17 Frederic III seizes Silesia.

The treaty was hardly concluded with the king of Prussia, by which she reluctantly yielded up the province of Silesia, and with it a clear revenue of L. 800,000 a-year, before the queen of Hungary entered into another with the court of Petersburg, which was concluded May 22. 1746. This treaty, as far as it was made public, was only of a defensive nature; but six secret and separate articles were added to it. By one of these it was provided, that in case his Prussian majesty should attack the empress queen, or the empress of Russia, or even the republic of Poland, it should be considered as a breach of the treaty of Dresden, by which Silesia was given up. It was also stipulated, that, notwithstanding that treaty (which indeed had been dictated by the king of Prussia himself) the right of the empress-queen to Silesia still continued, and for the recovery of that province the contracting powers should mutually furnish an army of 60,000 men. To this treaty, called the treaty of Petersburg, the king of Poland was invited to accede; but he, being in a manner in the power of the king of Prussia, did not think proper to sign it: however, he verbally acceded to it in such a manner, that the other parties were fully convinced of his design to cooperate with all their measures; and in consideration of this intention, it was agreed that he should have a share in the partition of the king of Prussia's dominions, in case of a successful event of their enterprizes.

18 Combination against him.

In consequence of these machinations, every art was used to render the king of Prussia personally odious to the empress of Russia; the queen of Hungary made vast preparations in Bohemia and Moravia; and the king of Poland, under pretence of a military amusement, drew together 16,000 men, with whom he occupied a strong post at Pirna. The queen of Hungary, still further to strengthen herself, concluded a treaty with the court of France at Versailles, dated May 1. 1756. But in the mean time the king of Prussia, having understood by his emissaries what was going forward, resolved to be beforehand with his enemies, and at least to keep the war out of his own country; and therefore entered Saxony with a considerable army. At first he affected only to demand a free passage for his troops, and an observance of the neutrality professed by the king of Poland; but, having good reasons to doubt this neutrality, he demanded, as a preliminary, that these Saxon troops should immediately quit the strong post they occupied, and disperse themselves. This demand was refused; on which his Prussian majesty blockaded the Saxon camp at Pirna, resolving to reduce it by famine, since its strong situation rendered an attack very dangerous. At that time there were in Bohemia two Saxon armies, one under the command of M. Brown, and the other under M. Picolomini. To keep these in awe, the king had sent M. Schwerin with an army into Bohemia from the country of Glatz, and M. Keith had penetrated into the same kingdom on the side of Misnia. But still the king of Prussia did not entirely confide in these dispositions; and therefore, fearing lest M. Brown might afford some assistance to the Saxons, he joined his forces under Keith, and on December 1. attacked and defeated the Austrian general, so that the latter found it impossible to relieve the Saxons, who, after a vain attempt to retire from their post, were all taken prisoners. The king of Poland quitted his dominions in Germany, and the Prussians took up their winter-quarters in Saxony. Here they seized on the revenues, levied exorbitant contributions, and obliged the country to furnish them with recruits. The king of Prussia at this time made himself master of the archives of Dresden, by which means he procured the originals of those pieces abovementioned, which, when produced to the world, gave a full proof of the combination that had been formed against him, and consequently justified the measures he had taken for his own defence.

19 He invades Saxony.

20 And takes 16,000 Saxons prisoners.

No sooner had the king entered Saxony, in the manner already related, than a process was commenced against him in the emperor's Aulic council, and before the diet of the empire; where he was soon condemned for contumacy, and put to the ban of the empire. The various circles of the empire were ordered to furnish their contingents of men and money

21 He is prosecuted in the Aulic council, and put to the ban of the empire.

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to put this sentence in execution; but these came in so slowly, that, had it not been for the assistance of the French under the prince de Soubise, the army would probably have never been in a condition to act. The Austrians, in the mean time, made great preparations, and raised 100,000 men in Bohemia, whom they committed to the care of prince Charles of Lorrain assisted by M. Brown. The Czarina sent a body of 60,000 men under M. Apraxin, to invade the Ducal Prussia; whilst a strong fleet was equipped in the Baltic, in order to co-operate with that army. The king of Sweden also acceded to the confederacy, in hopes of recovering the possessions in Pomerania which his ancestors had enjoyed; and the duke of Mecklenburg took the same party, promising to join the Swedish army with 6000 men as soon as it should be necessary. On the king of Prussia's side appeared nobody excepting an army of between 30 and 40,000 Hanoverians commanded by the duke of Cumberland; and these were outnumbered and forced to yield to a superior army of French commanded by M. D'Etrees.

22 Prodigious preparations against him.

23 He invades Bohemia, and totally defeats the Austrian army.

In the mean time, his Prussian majesty, finding that he must depend for assistance solely on his own abilities, resolved to make the best use of his time. Accordingly, in the spring 1757, his armies poured into Bohemia from two different quarters, while the king himself prepared to enter it from a third. M. Schwerin entered from Silesia; the prince of Bevern from Lusatia, where he defeated an army of 28,000 Austrians that opposed his passage. As the intentions of the king himself were not known, the Austrians detached a body of 20,000 men from their main army to observe his motions. This was no sooner done than the king cut off all communication between the detachment and the main body; and having joined his two generals with incredible celerity, he engaged the Austrians near Prague, totally defeated them, took their camp, military chest, and cannon; but lost the brave general Schwerin, who was killed at the age of 82, with a colonel's standard in his hand. On the Austrian side M. Brown was wounded, and died in a short time, though, it is supposed, more from the chagrin he suffered than from the dangerous nature of the wound itself.

24 Besieges and bombards Prague.

About 40,000 of the Austrian army took refuge in Prague, while the rest fled different ways. The city was instantly invested by the king, and all succours were cut off. The great number of troops which it contained rendered an attack unadvisable, but seemed to render the reduction of it by famine inevitable; however, the king, to accomplish his purpose the more speedily, prepared to bombard the town. On the 29th of May, after a most dreadful storm of thunder and lightning, four batteries began to play on the city. From these were thrown, every 24 hours, 288 bombs, besides a vast number of red-hot balls, so that it was soon on fire in every quarter. The garrison made a vigorous defence, and one well-conducted sally; but had the misfortune to be repulsed with great loss. The magistrates, burghers, and clergy, seeing their city on the point of being reduced to an heap of rubbish, supplicated the commander in the most earnest manner to capitulate; but he was deaf to their intreaties, and drove 12,000 of the most useless mouths out of town, who were quickly driven in again by the Prussians.

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25 Count Daun takes the command of the Austrian army.

Thus the affairs of the empress queen seemed verging to destruction, when Leopold count Daun took upon him the command of the remains of M. Brown's army. This general had arrived within a few miles of Prague the day after the great battle. He immediately collected the scattered fugitives with the greatest diligence, and retired with them to a strong post in the neighbourhood, from whence he gave the troops in Prague hopes of a speedy relief. It was now the king of Prussia's business, either to have attempted to make himself master of the city by one desperate effort, or entirely to have abandoned the enterprize, and driven count Daun from his post before his troops had recovered from the terror of their late defeat; but, by attempting to do both, he rendered himself incapable of doing either. Though the army of count Daun already amounted to 60,000 men, and though they were strongly entrenched, and defended by a vast train of artillery, his majesty thought proper to send no more than 32,000 men. This body made the arduous attempt on the 18th of June; but though they did all that human courage and conduct could do, and though the king himself at last charged at the head of his cavalry, the Prussians were driven out of the field with great loss. This engagement was named *the battle of Colin.*

26 Defeats the Prussians at Colin.

27 Siege of Prague raised.

The first consequence of the battle of Colin was, that the king of Prussia was obliged to raise the siege of Prague; soon after which, he was obliged to quit Bohemia, and take refuge in Saxony. The Austrians harrassed him as much as possible; but, notwithstanding their great superiority, their armies were not in a condition to make any decisive attempt upon him, as the frontiers of Saxony abounded with situations easily defended. In the mean time the Russians, who had hitherto been very dilatory in their motions, began to exert themselves, and enter Ducal Prussia, under M. Apraxin and Fermor, where they committed innumerable cruelties and excesses. A large body of Austrians entered Silesia, and penetrated as far as Breslau. Then they made a turn backwards, and besieged Schweidnitz. Another body entered Lusatia, and made themselves masters of Zittau. An army of 22,000 Swedes entered Prussian Pomerania, took the towns of Anclam and Demmein, and laid the whole country under contribution. The French too, being freed from all restraint by the capitulation of the duke of Cumberland at Closter Seven †, made their way into Halberstadt and the Old Marche of Brandenburg, first exacting contributions, and then plundering the towns. The army of the empire, being reinforced by that of the prince de Soubise, after many delays, was on full march to enter Saxony; which left the Austrians at liberty to exert the greatest part of their force in the reduction of Silesia. General Haddick penetrated through Lusatia, passed by the Prussian armies, and suddenly appeared before the gate of Berlin, which city he laid under contribution. He retired on the approach of a body of Prussians; yet he still found means to keep such a post as interupted the king's communication with Silesia. The destruction of the king of Prussia therefore now seemed inevitable. Every exertion which he had made, though brave and

† See BRITAIN, nº 438.

28 Berlin laid under contribution.

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and well-conducted, had been unsuccessful. His general Lehwald, who opposed the Russians, had orders to attack them at all events. He obeyed his orders; and with 30,000 men attacked 60,000 of the enemy strongly entrenched at a place called *Norkitten*. The Prussians behaved with the greatest valour; but after having killed five times more of the enemy than they themselves lost, they were obliged to retire, though more formidable after their defeat than the Russians after their victory. The king, in the mean time, exerted himself on every side, and his enemies fled every where before him; but whilst he pursued one body, another gained upon him in some other part, and the winter came on fast, while his strength decayed, and that of his adversaries seemed to increase on every quarter.

29 Lehwald, Prussian, general defeated by the Russians.

The Prussian monarch, however, though distressed, did not abandon himself to despair, or lose that wonderful presence of mind which has so eminently distinguished him in all his military enterprises. He industriously delayed a decisive action till the approach of winter; but at last, after various movements, on November 5th 1757, he met at Rosbach with the united army of his enemies commanded by the Prince of Saxe Hilburghausen and the Prince de Soubise. The allied army amounted to 50,000 men complete; but most of the troops of the Circles were new-raised, and many of them not well affected to the cause. The Prussians did not exceed 25, 000 men; but they were superior to any troops in the world, and were inspired, by the presence of their king, with the most enthusiastic valour. The Austrians were defeated, with the loss of 3000 killed, eight generals, 250 officers of different ranks, and 6000 private soldiers taken prisoners, while night alone prevented the total destruction of the army.

30 The king gains a great victory at Rosbach.

By this battle the king was set free on one side, but this only gave him an opportunity of renewing his labours on another. The Austrians had a great force, and now began to make a proportionable progress in Silesia. After a siege of 16 days, they had reduced the strong fortress of Schweidnitz, and obliged the Prussian garrison of 4000 men to surrender prisoners of war. Hearing then of the victory at Rosbach, and that the king of Prussia was in full march to relieve Silesia, they resolved to attack the Prince of Bevern in his strong camp under the walls of Breslau. They attacked the Prince's army on November 22d; but their attack was sustained with the greatest resolution. The slaughter of the Austrians was prodigious. A great part of the enemy had retired from the field of battle, and the rest were preparing to retire, when all at once the Prussian generals took the same resolution. Their army had suffered much in the engagement, and they became apprehensive of a total defeat in case their intrenchments should be forced in any part; for which reason they quitted their strong post, and retired behind the Oder. Two days after, the prince of Bevern, going to reconnoitre without escort, attended only by a groom, was taken prisoner by an advanced party of Croats, a small body of whom had crossed the Oder.

31 Schweidnitz taken by the Austrians.

32 Battle with the prince of Bevern.

On this the town of Breslau immediately surrendered; where, as well as at Schweidnitz, the Austrians found great quantities of provisions, ammunition, and money. All Silesia was on the point of falling into their hands, and the Prussian affairs were going into the utmost distraction, when the king himself by a most rapid march passed through Thuringia, Misnia, and Lusatia, in spite of the utmost efforts of the generals Haddick and Marshal, who were placed there to oppose him; and, entering Silesia on the 2d of December, joined the prince of Bevern's corps, who repassed the Oder to meet him. The garrison of Schweidnitz, who, as we have already observed, had been made prisoners of war, also joined the king's army unexpectedly; and their presence contributed not a little, notwithstanding the smallness of their number, to raise the spirits of the whole army. They had submitted to the capitulation with the greatest reluctance; but as the Austrians were conducting them to prison, they happened to receive intelligence of the victory at Rosbach: on which they immediately rose on the escort that conducted them, and entirely dispersed it; and afterwards marching in such a direction as they thought might most readily lead them to their king, they accidentally fell in with his army.

33 Breslau taken by the Austrians.

34 Garrison of Schweidnitz recover their liberty.

His Prussian majesty now approached Breslau; on which the Austrians, confiding in their superiority, (for they exceeded 70,000, while the Prussians scarce amounted to 36,000) abandoned their strong camp, the same which the prince of Bevern had formerly occupied, and advanced to give him battle. The king did not intend by any means to disappoint them, but advanced on his part with the greatest celerity. The two armies met on December 5th, near the village of Leuthen. Count Daun made the best dispositions possible. The ground occupied by his army was a plain, with small eminences in some parts. These eminences they surrounded with artillery; and as the ground was also interspersed with thickets, they sought to turn these likewise to their advantage. On their right and left were hills, on which they planted batteries of cannon. The ground in their front was intersected by many causeways; and to make the whole more impracticable, the Austrians had felled a great number of trees, and scattered them in the way. It was almost impossible at the beginning of the engagement for the Prussian cavalry to act, on account of these impediments; but, by a judicious disposition made by the king himself, all difficulties were overcome. His majesty had placed four battalions behind the cavalry of his right wing; foreseeing that General Nadasti, who was placed on the enemy's left with a corps de reserve, designed to attack him in flank. It happened as he had foreseen: that general's cavalry attacked the Prussian right wing with great fury; but he was received with such a severe fire from the four battalions, that he was obliged to retire in disorder. The king's flank then, well covered and supported, was enabled to act with such order and vigour as repulsed the enemy. The Austrian artillery was also silenced by that of the Prussians; however, the Austrians continued to make a gallant resistance during the whole battle. After having been once thrown into disorder, they rallied all their forces about Leuthen, which was defended on every side by entrenchments and redoubts. The Prussians attacked them with the utmost impetuosity, and at last became masters of the post; on which the enemy fled on all sides, and a total rout ensued. In this battle the Austrians

35 Count Daun defeated by the king of Prussia at Leuthen.

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ſtrians loſt 6000 killed on the ſpot, 15,000 taken priſoners, and upwards of 200 pieces of cannon.

36 Breſlau retaken.

The conſequences of this victory were very great. Breſlau was immediately inveſted, and ſurrendered on December 29th; the garriſon, amounting to 13,000 men, were made priſoners of war. The blockade of Schweidnitz was formed as cloſely as the ſeaſon of the year would permit; while detached Pruſſian parties over-ran the whole country of Sileſia, and reduced every place of leſs importance. The Ruſſian, who had ravaged and deſtroyed the country in ſuch a manner that they could not ſubſiſt in it, thought proper to retire out of the Pruſſian dominions altogether. Thus General Lehwald was left at liberty to act againſt the Swedes; and them he quickly drove out of Pruſſian Pomerania, the whole of which country he not only recovered, but alſo ſome part of Swediſh Pomerania. Thus the duchy of Mecklenburg being left quite expoſed, the king took ample vengeance on it by exacting the moſt ſevere contributions of men and money. To complete this monarch's good fortune alſo, the French, who had retired after the battle of Roſbach, were now oppoſed by the Hanoverians under prince Ferdinand, who kept them ſo well employed, that, during the reſt of the war, the king of Pruſſia had no more trouble from them. See BRITAIN, n° 439.

37 Swedes driven out of Pomerania

The beginning of the year 1758 was favourable to the arms of his Pruſſian majeſty. On the 3d of April he commenced his operations againſt Schweidnitz, and puſhed the ſiege ſo vigorouſly, that the place ſurrendered in 13 days. He then diſpoſed his forces in ſuch a manner as might beſt guard his dominions againſt his numerous enemies. For this purpoſe count Dohna commanded a body of troops on the ſide of Pomerania; another conſiderable body was poſted between Wohlau and Glogau, in order to cover Sileſia from the Ruſſians, in caſe they ſhould make their inroad that way. An army, in a little time after, was formed in Saxony, commanded by the king's brother prince Henry. This army conſiſted of 30 battalions and 45 quadrons, and was deſigned to make head againſt the army of the empire; which, by great efforts made during the winter, and the junction of a large body of Auſtrians, was again in a condition to act. Between all theſe armies a ready communication was kept up by a proper choice of poſts. After the reduction of Schweidnitz, the king having made a ſhow of invading Bohemia, ſuddenly burſt into Moravia, where in a ſhort time he made himſelf maſter of the whole country, and on the 27th of May laid ſiege to Olmutz the capital. Of this M. Daun was no ſooner informed, than he took his route to Moravia through Bohemia: and, though he was not in a condition to riſk a battle, nor indeed would have done ſo unleſs he had had a very conſiderable advantage; yet, by placing himſelf in a ſtrong ſituation where he could not be attacked, by haraſſing the king's troops and cutting off their convoys, he at laſt obliged him to abandon the enterprize. The king, however, who frequently owed a good part of his ſucceſs to the impenetrable ſecrecy with which he covered all his deſigns, gave not the leaſt hint of his intention to raiſe the ſiege of Olmutz. On the contrary, the very day before the ſiege was raiſed, the firing continued as briſk as ever; but in the night, (July 1.) the whole army took the road to Bohemia in two columns, and gained an entire march upon the Auſtrians. Thus, notwithſtanding the utmoſt efforts of his enemies, the Pruſſian army reached Bohemia with very little moleſtation. Here he ſeized upon a large magazine at Lieutomiſſel; defeated ſome corps of Auſtrians who had attempted to interrupt his progreſs; and arrived at Koniglgratz, of which he took poſſeſſion, after driving from it 7000 Auſtrians who were intrenched there. This city and ſeveral other diſtricts he laid under contribution: but ſoon after entered Sileſia, and marched with the utmoſt rapidity to encounter the Ruſſians, who had at that time united their forces under generals Brown and Fermor, entered the New Marche of Brandenburg, and laid ſiege to Cuſtrin.

38 Schweidnitz retaken.

39 The king beſieges Olmutz without ſucceſs.

40 The Ruſſians beſiege Cuſtrin.

The king arrived at this city at a very critical period. The Ruſſians had laid ſiege to it on the 15th of Auguſt; and though they were not well ſkilled in managing artillery, yet, by furious and unremitting diſcharges at random, they threw in ſuch a number of bombs and red-hot balls, that the town was ſoon on fire in every quarter. Some of the wretched inhabitants were burned; others buried in the ruins of their houſes, or killed by the balls which fell like hail in the ſtreets; while many of the ſurvivors abandoned their habitations, and fled out of the town on that ſide where it was not inveſted. The governor did every thing for the defence of the place; but as the walls were built after the old manner, it was impoſſible that the town could have made a defence for any length of time, eſpecially as the principal magazine of the beſieged had been blown up. The avenger of all theſe injuries, however, was now at hand. The king came in ſight of the Ruſſians on the 25th of Auguſt, after a march of 56 days, and beheld the country every where deſolated and the villages in flames by the depredations of his cruel enemy, who had raiſed the ſiege at his approach, and retired towards a neighbouring village named *Zorndorff*. At 9 o'clock in the morning, a moſt terrible fire of cannon and mortars poured deſtruction on the right wing of the Ruſſian army for two hours without intermiſſion. The ſlaughter was ſuch as might have been expected; but the Ruſſians kept their ground with aſtoniſhing reſolution, new regiments ſtill preſſing forward to ſupply the places of thoſe that fell. When the firſt line had fired away all their charges, they ruſhed forward on the Pruſſians with their bayonets; and all at once theſe brave troops, though encouraged by the preſence of their king, gave way and fled before an enemy already half defeated. The Ruſſian generals ought now to have attacked with their cavalry the diſordered infantry of their enemies, which would have completed the defeat, and in all probability given the finiſhing ſtroke to the king of Pruſſia's affairs. This opportunity, however, they loſt: but the king was not ſo negligent; for, by a very rapid and maſterly motion, he brought all the cavalry of his right wing to the centre, and falling on the Ruſſian foot uncovered by their horſe, and even diſordered by their own ſucceſs, they puſhed them back with moſt miſerable ſlaughter, at the ſame time that the repulſed battalions of infantry, returning to the charge, and exaſperated at their late diſgrace, rendered the victory no longer doubtful. The Ruſſians were now thrown into the moſt dreadful confuſion. The wind blew the duſt and

41 But are defeated at Zorndorff.

ſmoke

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smoke into their faces, so that they could not distinguish friends from foes; they fired on each other, plundered their own baggage which stood between the lines, and intoxicated themselves with brandy: the ranks fell in upon one another; and, being thus crammed together into a narrow space, the fire of the Prussians had a full and dreadful effect, while their enemies kept up only a scattered and ineffectual fire, generally quite over their heads. Yet even in this dismal situation the Russians did not fly; but suffered themselves to be slaughtered till seven at night, when their generals having caused an attack to be made on the Prussian right wing, the attention of the enemy was drawn to that quarter, and they had time to retire a little from the field of battle to recover their order.

In this engagement, which was called the *battle of Zorndorff*, the Russians lost 21,529 men, while that of the Prussians did not exceed 2000. A vast train of artillery was taken, together with the military chest, and many officers of high rank. The consequence was, that the Russian army retreated as far as Landsperg on the frontiers of Poland, and the king was left at liberty to march with his usual expedition to the relief of prince Henry in Saxony.

42 Operations of count Daun.

The Prince was at this time sorely pressed by M. Daun. As soon as the king had left Bohemia in the manner already related, M. Daun, considering that it would have been to no purpose to follow him, resolved to turn his arms towards Saxony. Towards that country, therefore, he took his route through Lusatia, by Zittau, Gorlitz, and Bautzen. On the 3d of September he invested the strong fortress of Sonnestein; which unaccountably surrendered, after a single day's resistance, to one of his generals named *Macguire*. He then began to favour the operations of general Laudohn, who had advanced through the Lower Lusatia to the confines of Brandenburg; and, by drawing the attention of the Prussian forces which were left in Silesia to the northward of that duchy, he facilitated the progress of the generals Harsch and de Ville in the southern parts. He then proposed that prince Henry should be attacked by the army of the empire, while that of the Austrians should pass the Elbe, and, falling at the same time on the Prussians, second the attack of the Imperialists, and cut off the retreat of their enemies from Dresden. The sudden appearance of the king of Prussia, however, put an end to this plan; general Laudohn abandoned all his conquests in Lower Lusatia, and retired towards M. Daun, while that general himself retired from the neighbourhood of Dresden as far as Zittau. The army of the empire only kept its ground; possessing itself of the strong post at Pirna, formerly mentioned, but did not undertake any thing. As for the Swedes, who had directed their motions by those of the Russians, they no sooner heard of the victory of Zorndorff, than they retreated with much more expedition than they had advanced.

43 Rendered abortive by the king of Prussia.

Thus the king of Prussia's affairs seemed to be pretty well retrieved, when by one fatal piece of negligence he was brought to the verge of ruin. M. Daun had possessed himself of an advantageous camp at Stolphen, by which he preserved a communication with the army of the empire. On the other hand, the king of Prussia, having taken possession of an important post at Bautzen, extended his right wing to the village of Hochkirchen, by which he preserved a communication with his brother prince Henry, protected Brandenburg, and was better situated than he could be any where else for throwing succours into Silesia. The two armies kept a watchful eye on the motions of each other; and as the principal aim of M. Daun was to cut off the king's communication with Silesia, and of the king to cut off M. Daun's communication with Bohemia, a battle seemed inevitable, though great danger seemed to await that party which should begin the attack.

44 Who is surprised and defeated at Hochkirchen.

In this critical posture of affairs the Austrian general formed a design of attacking the Prussian camp in the night. In what manner he came to surprise such a vigilant enemy, has never been accounted for; but that such a surprise was actually accomplished on the 14th of October, is certain. In the dead of the preceding night, the Austrian army began to march in three columns towards the camp of the king of Prussia: and though the night was exceedingly dark, and they had a considerable way to go, they all arrived at the same time, in safety, without being discovered, and without the least confusion; and at five in the morning, began a regular and well-conducted attack. The Prussians were in a moment thrown into confusion; Marshal Keith, one of their best generals, received two musquet balls, and fell dead on the spot. Prince Francis of Brunswick had his head shot off by a cannon-ball as he was mounting his horse; and every thing seemed to announce the total destruction of the army. Still, however, the king preserved his wonderful presence of mind, which indeed he never appears to have lost on any occasion. He ordered some detachments from his left to support his right wing; but the moment that these orders were received, the left itself was furiously attacked. General Ketzow, who commanded in that quarter, repulsed the Austrians with difficulty, and was not able to afford any considerable assistance to the right; which alone was obliged to sustain the weight of the grand attack. The Austrians, in the beginning of the engagement, had driven the Prussians out of the village of Hoch-kirchen; and as the fate of the day depended on the possession of that post, the hottest dispute was there. The Prussians made three bloody and unsuccessful attacks on the village; on the fourth they carried it; but the Austrians, continually pouring in fresh troops, at last drove them out with prodigious slaughter on all sides. The king then ordered a retreat, which was conducted in good order, without being pursued; however, this bloody action cost him 7000 men, together with a great number of cannon. The Austrians computed their own loss at 5000.

His Prussian majesty, having thus happily escaped such imminent danger, took every possible measure to prevent the enemy from gaining any considerable advantage from his defeat. Perceiving that the only advantage they wished to derive from it was to cover the operations of their armies in Silesia, and that he had now nothing to fear on the side of Saxony, he largely reinforced his own army from that of prince Henry, and hastened into Silesia, in order to raise the siege of Neiss, which had been completely invested on the 4th of October. On the 24th of that month, therefore, he quitted his camp, and, making a great compass, to avoid obstructions from the enemy, arrived in the plains of Gorlitz. A body of the Austrians had in vain attempted

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tempted to secure this post before him, and some who arrived after him were defeated with the loss of 800 men. From this place the king pursued his march with the utmost diligence; but was followed by general Laudohn, at the head of 24,000 men, who constantly hung on his rear, and harassed his army. The king, however, knowing the importance of his expedition, continued his march without interruption, and suffered his antagonist to obtain many little advantages without molestation. Daun, however, not content with the opposition given by Laudohn, sent a large body of horse and foot by another rout to reinforce the generals Karsch and de Ville, who had formed the siege of Niess and the blockade of Cosel, while he himself passed the Elbe and advanced towards Dresden.

All these precautions, however, were of little avail. The generals Karsch and de Ville, notwithstanding their reinforcement, no sooner heard of the king of Prussia's approach, than they raised the siege of both places, and retired, leaving behind them a considerable quantity of military stores. The end of the Prussian monarch's march being thus accomplished, he instantly returned by the same way he came, and hastened to the relief of Saxony, the capital of which (Dresden) was in great danger from Marshal Daun. The place was but indifferently fortified, and garrisoned only by 12,000 men; so that it could not promise to hold out long against a numerous and well-appointed army. It was besides commanded by a large suburb, of which, if once the enemy got possession, all defence of the city must then be vain. For this reason M. Schmettau, the Prussian governor, determined to set these suburbs on fire, which was actually done November 10th, with an incredible loss to the inhabitants, as in the suburbs were carried on most of those valuable manufactures which render the city of Dresden remarkable. This disappointed the designs of M. Daun; but, though the action was agreeable to the laws of war, and had been executed with all the caution and humanity of which such an action was capable, yet the Austrians exclaimed against it as a piece of the most unprovoked and wanton cruelty recorded in history.

45 Suburbs of Dresden burnt.

46 Saxony oppressed by the king of Prussia.

After the king of Prussia had approached Dresden, all the Austrian armies retired into Bohemia, where they took up their winter-quarters, as the king of Prussia did in Saxony. This unhappy country he said he would now consider as his own by right of conquest. But instead of treating the conquered people as his lawful subjects, he oppressed them in all possible ways, by levying the most severe and exorbitant contributions, surrounding the exchange with soldiers, and confining the merchants in narrow lodgings on straw beds till they drew upon their correspondents for such sums as he wanted.

In 1759, as early as the 23d of February, the Prussians commenced their military operations. General Woberson marched with a body of troops into Poland, where he destroyed several very large magazines belonging to the Russians, and returned into Silesia without any loss on the 18th of April. In the mean time, by some movements of the king of Prussia himself, the greatest part of the Austrian troops had been drawn towards the frontiers of Silesia. Prince Henry immediately took advantage of this opening, and on the 15th of April entered Bohemia with his army divided into two columns. One, commanded by himself, marched towards Peterswade; the other, under general Hulsen, passed by the towns of Passberg and Commottau. That commanded by prince Henry himself penetrated as far as Loboschutz and Leitmeritz; the enemy flying every where before them, and burning or abandoning the vast magazines which they had amassed in these parts. The body under general Hulsen had a more active employment. A strong pass at Passberg was defended by a considerable body of Austrians. General Hulsen, having conducted his cavalry by another way in such a manner as to fall directly on their rear, attacked them in front with his infantry, drove them out of their intrenchments, and totally defeated them with the loss of a great number killed and 2000 taken prisoners, while that of the Prussians did not exceed 70 in killed and wound. After this exploit they returned into Saxony, with hostages for the contributions which they had largely exacted during the course of their expedition.

47 Bohemia invaded by prince Henry.

48 A body of Austrians defeated by general Hulsen.

Some other successes obtained by Prince Henry cleared the country of Franconia of his enemies; but now the approach of the Russians seemed once more to bring the affairs of the king of Prussia to a crisis. Notwithstanding the destruction of their magazines, they had continued to advance into Silesia, where they were opposed by count Dohna; but as the troops he had with him were very far inferior to his enemies, he found it impossible to do more, at least with any appearance of success, than to observe their motions and harass them on their march. But this was so displeasing to the king, that he disgraced this general, and appointed Wedel to succeed him, with orders to attack the Russians at all events. To enable him, however, in some measure to comply with this desperate order, he sent him some reinforcements, which brought his army up to near 30,000. With these, on the 23d of July 1759, general Wedel attacked 70,000 Russians posted in the most advantageous manner at Zulichau, and defended by a numerous artillery. Tho' the Prussians marched on to certain destruction and disgrace, they sustained the attack for a long time with unparallelled resolution. At last, however, they gave way, and were obliged to retire with the loss of 4700 killed or taken prisoners, and 3000 wounded.

49 Prussians defeated at Zulichau.

50 The Russians take Crossen and Frankfort on the Oder.

The consequences of this victory were, that the Russians penetrated into the king's territories, and took possession of the towns of Crossen and Frankfort on the Oder, which made it absolutely necessary for the king to come in person to oppose them. Accordingly, on the 4th of August, he joined Wedel with a considerable body of forces, having left the best part of his army in Saxony under prince Henry. But as Marshal Daun had sent a body of 12,000 horse and 8000 foot under general Laudohn to the assistance of the Russians, the king still found himself unable to fight them; as, with this and some other reinforcements, their army now amounted to upwards of 90,000. He therefore recalled general Finck, whom he had sent into Saxony with 9000 men; but with all his reinforcements, it was found impossible to augment his army to 50,000 complete. His situation, however, was now so critical, that a battle was unavoidable; and therefore, on the 12th of August, with this inferiority of number, the king attacked his enemies strongly

Prussia.

strongly intrenched, and defended by a prodigious number of cannon. In this action his principal effort was against the left wing of the Russian army. He began the attack, according to custom, with a heavy cannonade; which having produced the desired effect, he attacked that wing with several battalions disposed in columns. The Russian entrenchments were forced with great slaughter, and 72 pieces of cannon were taken. But still there was a defile to be passed, and several redoubts which covered the village of Cunnersdorf to be mastered. These were attacked with the same resolution, and taken one after another. The enemy made another stand at the village, and endeavoured to preserve their ground there by pushing forward several battalions of horse and foot: but this also proved unsuccessful; they were driven from post to post quite to the last redoubts. For upwards of six hours the Prussians were successful, and every where broke the enemy with prodigious slaughter; drove them from almost all the ground they had occupied before the battle, took more than half their artillery, and scarce any thing seemed wanting to make the victory complete. In these circumstances, the king wrote the following billet to the queen: "Madam, we have beat the Russians from their intrenchments. In two hours expect to hear of a glorious victory." Of this victory, however, he deprived himself, by an excessive eagerness for conquest. The enemy, defeated in almost in every quarter, found their left wing, shattered as it was, to be more entire than any other part of their army. Count Soltikoff, the Russian general, therefore assembled the remains of his right wing, and, gathering as many as he could from his centre, reinforced the left, and made a stand at a redoubt which had been erected on an advantageous eminence in a place called *the Jews burying-ground*. All the king's generals are said to have been of opinion that he ought to allow the Russians the peaceable possession of this post. Their army had already suffered so much, that it would have been impossible for them to have attempted any enterprize of consequence after the battle; but their artillery was still numerous, the post very strong, and the Prussian troops greatly fatigued. These reasons for a few moments had some weight with the king: but the natural impetuosity of his temper getting the better of his reason, he led on his wearied troops again and again; till at last, when their strength was in a manner totally exhausted, they were attacked and utterly routed by the Austrian and Russian cavalry, the former of which had hitherto remained quite inactive, and were therefore quite fresh, and irresistible by the enfeebled Prussians. The night, and the prudent use of some eminences, prevented the total destruction of the army; however, their loss amounted to 20,000 men killed and wounded. The king, when he found the victory totally lost, sent another billet to the queen, expressed in the following manner: "Remove from Berlin with the royal family; let the archives be carried to Potsdam; the town may make conditions with the enemy."

51 King of Prussia defeated by the Russians at Cunnersdorf.

Immediately after this defeat, the king set himself about repairing his losses with the utmost diligence. In a few days every thing was again put in order in his camp. He replaced his artillery from Berlin; recalled general Kliest with 5000 men from Pomerania; detached 6000 from his own army to the defence of Saxony; and, with the remainder put himself between the Russians and Great Glogau, covering that city which had been the chief object of their designs; and in short, notwithstanding their victory, obliged them to return to Poland without accomplishing any thing besides the carnage at Cunnersdorf.

The misfortunes of the Prussian monarch, however, were not at an end. Prince Henry indeed, by a most extraordinary and well-conducted march, entered Saxony, which was now totally over-run by the armies of the enemy. At the same time, strong detachments having been sent into that country under generals Finck and Wunsch, the whole was in a short time recovered except Dresden. Towards this place Marshal Daun retired, and in all probability would soon have been obliged to leave Saxony entirely. But the king's impatience could not be satisfied without cutting off his retreat, and forcing him to a battle; for which purpose he sent general Finck with upwards of 12,000 men according to the Prussian account, but 20,000 according to the Austrians, to seize some passes thro' which M. Daun could only take his route towards Bohemia. This commission was executed with great exactness; but the Prussian general, having probably advanced too far into these defiles, and neglected to preserve a communication with the main army, gave his enemy an opportunity of surrounding him, and at last forcing him and his whole army to surrender prisoners of war. This disaster was soon after followed by another. General Durcke was posted at the right of the Elbe, opposite to Messen; but on the approach of a large body of Austrians, they prepared to retreat over the river into a place where they hoped to be more secure. But having been obliged by an hard frost to withdraw their bridge of boats, a thaw supervened, when they attempted to lay a bridge of pontoons, so that they were again obliged to have recourse to their boats. In this situation their rear-guard was attacked with great fury by the Austrians, and all the soldiers who composed it killed or taken. The loss of the Prussians on this occasion was computed at 3000 men.

52 General Finck with 12,000 Prussian troops surrenders to the Austrians.

The year 1760 showed the Prussian monarch in a more dangerous situation than he had ever yet experienced. Indeed his affairs now seemed to be altogether desperate. His losses were not to be measured by the number of the killed or prisoners, but by armies destroyed or taken. Forty generals had died or been killed in his service since the beginning of October 1756, exclusive of those who were wounded or taken prisoners. This of itself would have been an irreparable loss, had not the very wars which destroyed these furnished others equally capable of filling their places. But another deficiency, which could not be remedied, still remained. The king had, by his indefatigable industry and exertions, supplied all the deficiences of men in his armies, but they were not the same men as before. The hardy veterans, with whom he had originally taken the field, were now no more, and their places were supplied by others who had neither the same experience nor discipline; so that now he was obliged to supply this deficiency by his own genius and heroism.

53 Desperate situation of the king of Prussia.

But whatever abilities the Prussian monarch might

54 Prussians defeated at Landshut.

55 Glatz taken by the Austrians.

56 Dresden besieged, but without success, by the king of Prussia.

57 Three Austrian generals join their forces against him.

possess, and though he undoubtedly exerted them to the utmost, it seemed only to be contending against fate, and his enemies gained still greater and greater advantages. General Laudohn, with whom none but the king himself seems to have been able to cope, by a series of artful movements, drew into a disadvantageous situation M. Fouquet, one of the Prussian generals, with a strong body of forces. Perceiving it impossible for them to escape, Laudohn then made a violent attack on their entrenchments in the dead of the night of June 23. The Prussians made a gallant defence, but at last were all killed or taken prisoners except about 300. Of the Prussians were killed 4000, and 7000 taken prisoners; 58 pieces of cannon, and a great number of colours, were also lost. The victory, however, was dear bought: for the Austrians lost above 12,000 men in killed and wounded; whom, however, they could better spare than the Prussians, on account of their numbers.—This action was called *the battle of Landshut*.

Baron Laudohn failed not to improve this victory to the utmost. He instantly turned back from Landshut, and fell upon the city of Glatz; which he took in a very short time, with the garrison who defended it, consisting of 2000 men. In the place were found 101 pieces of brass cannon, with immense quantities of provisions and military stores. From thence he marched against Breslau, and immediately invested it. But in the mean time the king of Prussia, whose motions had been all this time counteracted by M. Daun in Saxony, marched with his usual rapidity towards Silesia. By this means he drew M. Daun out of Saxony; and indeed the Austrian general used such expedition, that he gained two full days on the king. This was no sooner known to his Prussian majesty, than he returned with the same expedition that he had advanced, and sat down before Dresden. Of this M. Daun soon received intelligence, and returned also. In the mean time, however, the buildings of the city were terribly shattered by the king's cannon and bombs which continually played on it. His endeavours, however, proved ineffectual to reduce it before the arrival of M. Daun. The siege had been begun on the 13th of July, and on the 19th M. Daun appeared within a league of Dresden. The Prussians then redoubled their efforts. They had that day received reinforcements of heavy cannon and mortars, with which they battered the place incessantly. The cathedral church, new Square, several principal streets and some palaces, and the noble manufactory of porcelain, were entirely destroyed. The siege was continued till the 22d: but, on the night of the 21st, M. Daun had thrown 16 battalions into the city; which rendered it impossible for the king to continue longer before it with any prospect of success. He therefore raised the siege, and retired without molestatation, though there were three considerable armies of the enemy in the neighbourhood. Breslau was fiercely bombarded by Laudohn, but the approach of prince Henry obliged him to desist from his enterprise on the 5th of August.

But in the mean time the fortune of the king seemed likely to be terminated by one fatal stroke. Finding it impossible for him to carry on a defensive war, he marched towards Silesia with such astonishing rapidity, that before the middle of August he had advanced 200 miles, leaving marshal Daun with his army far behind him. This expedition he undertook in order to engage general Laudohn before he could have time to affect a junction with Daun and Lacy, another Austrian general, which triple union seemed to threaten him with unavoidable destruction at once. This, however, he found it impossible to prevent: and the three armies, when joined, formed a most tremendous line of encampments, extending no less than 30 English miles; at the same time that every one of their posts was strong, and the communication between them easy. The king was strongly encamped at Lignitz; and for several days employed all his military skill in attempting to induce one of the bodies to detach itself from the rest, or to attack them at some disadvantage; but without effect. At last, the Austrian generals, having maturely weighed all circumstances, resolved to attack the king's camp itself, strong as it was; and marshal Daun, remembering the advantage he had gained at Hoch-kirchen by an attack in the night-time, resolved to follow the same plan now. The plan therefore was laid in the following manner. The whole army, as soon as it should begin to grow dark, was to march from their several posts to such situations as were marked out for each corps: they were to strike their tents, but yet to keep up the fires in their camps, and to have the drums beat the tattoo as usual, by which means they had a probabilty of surprising the enemy; or if not, they judged it absolutely impossible for him to escape them, though he should be ever so much on his guard. In what manner the king of Prussia became acquainted with this plan, is not known. His friends attributed it to his own penetration and knowledge of the stratagems of war; the Austrians, to intelligence given him by deserters. But, in whatever way he became acquainted with this design, it is certain that he took the most effectual methods of preventing it. As the Austrian plan was to surround his camp, and this could not be done without the division of their army which he had so long desired, he resolved to intercept one of the parties; and if that should be disabled from acting, he could then more easily deal with the other two. Therefore, in the very evening calculated for the decisive attack on his camp, he quitted it with the utmost privacy, and took an advantageous post on the road through which general Laudohn was to pass. The nature of this post was such, that at the same time that it stopped the progress of Laudohn in front, Daun would lie under great difficulties if he should attempt his rear; at the same time that for his further security the king strengthened the rear with several batteries. As soon as his army was drawn up, he divided it; leaving his right on the ground where it had been formed, to observe marshal Daun, and to maintain that post; whilst with his left he turned in order to fall on the corps under general Laudohn. In the mean time that commander, ignorant of the fate which was awaiting him, advancing with the utmost expedition towards the place which had been assigned him, in order to share in the glory of destroying the Prussian monarch; when, at three in the morning, on the 15th of August, a thick fog which covered the ground, suddenly clearing up, dis-

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Prussia.

58 e defeats eneral audohn, d intimi- tes the ussians.

covered, like the opening of a great scene, the dreadful front of the Prussian army regularly embattled and advantageously posted. Laudohn, though surprised, made the best dispositions that circumstances would admit of, and an obstinate engagement ensued; in which, however, he was at last obliged to yield to the superior skill of his adversary, with the loss of 10,000 killed, wounded, and prisoners, 82 pieces of cannon, and 23 pair of colours.

The victory, though complete, gave but a partial relief to the king of Prussia. The most essential service it did was the preventing of the Russians from joining those enemies which he already had. Count Czernichew had been advancing with 24,000 men, and had even passed the Oder; but was so intimidated by this news, that he instantly repassed that river on the same bridges which he had lately built, even though M. Daun sent him a strong body of troops in order to encourage him to advance. Soon after this battle, the king joined his brother prince Henry at New Marcke; and marched against Daun, who had begun to form the blockade of Schweidnitz, fell upon a corps under general Beck, made two battalions of Croats prisoners, and dispersed the rest, which obliged the enemy to abandon the enterprise they had just undertaken. About the same time General Hulsen gained a considerable advantage over the imperial army in Saxony, with very trifling loss on his part, by which he effectually prevented them from cutting off his communication with the city of Torgau.

By these successes the affairs of his Prussian majesty seemed to revive: but there was no end of his enemies. The late manœuvres had drawn him so far into Silesia, that his communication with Brandenburg was almost wholly cut off. The Russian army, which after it had repassed the Oder began to move out of Silesia, sent forward a powerful detachment under Count Czernichew towards the march of Brandenburg. A body of 15,000 Austrians, under the generals Lacy and Brentano, and the whole united body of Austrians and Imperialists which acted in Saxony, began their march in concert with the Russians, and proposed to unite at the gates of Berlin. These armies amounted to 40,000 men. To oppose this formidable power, general Hulsen called to his assistance general Werner, who had been sent with a body of troops into Pomerania; but, after being joined by him, their united forces were found not to exceed 15,000 or 16,0000 men. To attempt a defence of the capital with this force would have been little short of madness: and therefore these commanders were obliged to leave Berlin to its fate; which indeed, considering the barbarity of the Russians and the animosity of the Austrians, seemed to be a dreadful one. However, by the powerful mediation of several foreign ministers, the town obtained terms which were not altogether intolerable; but the magazines, arsenals, and founderies, were destroyed, and an immense quantity of military stores seized, with a number of cannon and other arms. The city was first obliged to pay 800,000 guilders, after which a contribution of 1,900,000 crowns was laid on: yet, notwithstanding this, many violences were committed, and the king's palace was plundered and the furniture abused in a scandalous manner.

59 lin ta- by the strians Russ- s.

The combined armies staid in Berlin only four days; dreading the severe vengeance of the king of Prussia, who they heard was advancing towards that place with great expedition. But so great were the embarrassments which now attended that monarch, that it seemed absolutely beyond human power to retrieve his affairs. The Imperialists, on their return from Berlin, having no army to oppose them, made themselves masters of Leipsic, Torgau, Meissen, and Wirtemberg; in which last city they found the grand magazine of the Prussians immensely stored with provisions, ammunition, &c. M. Stainville also, with a detachment from Broglio the French general's army, laid the city and duchy of Halberstadt under contribution. In Eastern Pomerania, the Russians had besieged Colberg by sea and land. In the Western Pomerania, the Swedes advanced with great celerity, hoping to share in the plunder of Berlin. In Silesia, the king no sooner began his march to the northward, than Laudohn advanced, and laid siege to the important fortress of Cosel; and, to complete this distress and embarrassment, the king himself was attended at every step by count Daun with a superior army well prepared to take every advantage.

60 Extreme embarrassment of the king.

In this desperate situation the king, being joined by his generals Hulsen and prince Eugene of Wittemberg with the corps under their command, advanced up the Elbe, while M. Daun fell back to cover Leipsic and Torgau: but the latter, finding that the Prussians directed their march towards the Elbe, encamped within reach of Torgau; one part of his army extending to the Elbe, by which he was covered on that side, whilst on the other he was covered by hills and woods, so that it was impossible to choose a more advantageous situation. The Prussian army did not amount to 50,000 men, whilst that of the Austrians exceeded 86,000: yet such were the unfortunate circumstances of the king, that he was obliged to fight under all these disadvantages; and therefore he caused his army to be informed, that he was now to lead them to a most desperate attempt, that his affairs required it, and that he was determined to conquer or die. His soldiers unanimously declared that they would die with him.

61 He defeats Count Daun at Torgau.

The 3d of November 1760, was the day on which this important affair was decided. The king divided his forces into three columns. General Hulsen was to take post with one in a wood that lay on the left of the Austrian army, and had orders not to move until he found the rest of the Prussians engaged. General Ziethen was to charge on the right; and the great attack in front was to be conducted by the king in person. His forces were disposed in such a manner, that either his right or left must take the enemy in rear and close them in, so as to disable them from undertaking any thing against the part where he intended to effect his principal attack. On the other hand, M. Daun perceiving the king to be serious in his design of fighting, to prevent confusion, sent all his baggage over the Elbe, across which he threw three bridges in case a retreat should be necessary. At the same time he caused Torgau to be evacuated; and then, extending his first line to a village called *Zinne* on the left, he stretched it to another called *Crosswitz* on the right; supporting the right of his second line upon the Elbe. In this disposition he was found, when, about two o'clock in the

Prussia. the afternoon, the king begun his attack. He was received by the fire of 200 pieces of cannon, which were disposed along the Austrian front. The Prussians were thrice led on to the attack; but were every time repulsed and broken with terrible slaughter. The king at length commanded a fresh body of troops to advance, which at first compelled the Austrians to retire; but new reinforcements continually coming in, this cavalry was in its turn obliged to fall back, and the Prussians maintained themselves with extreme difficulty, until General Ziethen, with the right wing, attacked the enemy in the rear, repulsed them, and possessed himself of some eminences which commanded the whole Austrian army. Encouraged by this success, the Prussian infantry once more advanced, mastered several of the enemy's intrenchments, and made way for a new attack of their cavalry, which broke in with irresistible fury on the Austrians, and threw several bodies of them into irreparable disorder. It was now about 9 o'clock, and of consequence both armies were involved in thick darkness; yet the fire continued without intermission, and the battalions with a blind rage discharged at one another without distinguishing friend from foe. M. Daun received a dangerous wound in the thigh, and was carried from the field, which probably hastened the defeat of his troops. The command then devolved on Count O'Donnell; who, finding the greatest part of his troops in disorder, the night advanced, and the enemy possessed of some eminences which commanded his camp, and from which it was in vain to think of driving them, ordered a retreat, which was conducted with wonderful order and exactness; none were lost in passing the bridges, and by far the greater part of their artillery was preserved. The loss of the Prussians was estimated at 10,000 killed and wounded, and 3000 taken prisoners. That of the Austrians in killed and wounded is not known; but 8000 were taken prisoners, with 216 officers, among which were four generals.

The consequence of the victory of Torgau was, that the king recovered all Saxony except Dresden; and in the mean time General Werner having marched into Pomerania, the Russians raised the siege of Colberg, and retired into Poland, without having effected any thing further than wasting the open country. Werner then flew to the assistance of Western Pomerania, where he defeated a body of Swedes, and at last drove them totally out of the country. General Laudohn too abruptly raised the blockade of Cosel; and afterwards, abandoning Landshut, he retired into the Austrian Silesia, leaving the Prussian part entirely in quiet. M. Daun placed one part of his army in Dresden, and the other in some strong posts which lie to the south and west of it, by which he commanded the Elbe, and preserved his communication with Bohemia. The army of the empire retired into Franconia, and placed its headquarters at Bamberg.

Though these successes had, to appearance, retrieved the king's affairs in some measure, yet his strength seemed now to be wholly exhausted; and in the campaign of 1761, he made no such vigorous efforts as he had formerly done. The Russians, dividing themselves into two bodies, invaded Silesia and Pomerania. In the former country they laid siege to Breslau, and in the latter to Colberg. Tottleben also, who had commanded the Russian armies, was now removed on a suspicion that he had corresponded with the king of Prussia, and general Romanzow put in his place; by which it was expected that the Russian operations would be more brisk this year than formerly. Prussia.

The king continued strongly encamped near Schweidnitz; where he was so closely watched by generals Daun and Laudohn, that he could attempt nothing. However, he defeated the designs of the Russians against Breslau, by sending general Platen to destroy their magazines; which he accomplished with great success, at the same time cutting off a body of 4000 of their troops. But this only brought the more sure destruction upon Colberg; to which place that body of Russians immediately marched, cruelly wasting the country as they went along. The king of Prussia could do nothing but send detachments of small parties, which, though they could not oppose their enemies in the field, yet he hoped, by cutting off the convoys of the enemy, might distress them to such a degree as to oblige them to abandon the siege, or at least protract it till the severity of the winter should render it impossible for them to carry on their operations. Thus he weakened his own army so much, that it was found requisite to draw 4000 men out of Schweidnitz in order to reinforce it; and no sooner was this done, than general Laudohn suddenly attacked and took that fortress by a coup de main. Colberg made a brave defence; but the troops sent to its relief being totally unable to cope with the Russian army consisting of 50,000 men, it was obliged to surrender on the 3d of December; and thus the fate of the Prussian monarch seemed to be decided, and almost every part of his dominions lay open to the invaders. 62 Schweidnitz and Colberg taken.

In the midst of these gloomy appearances the empress of Russia, the king's most inveterate and inflexible enemy, died on the 2d of January 1762. Her successor, Peter III. instead of being the king's enemy, was his most sanguine friend. As early as the 23d of February, in a memorial delivered to the ministers of the allied courts, he declared, that, "in order to the establishment of peace, he was ready to sacrifice all the conquests made in this war by the arms of Russia, in hopes that the allied courts will on their parts equally prefer the restoration of peace and tranquillity, to the advantages which they might expect from the continuance of the war, but which they cannot obtain but by a continuance of the effusion of human blood."—This address was not so well relished by the allies: however, they were very willing to make peace, provided it was for their own interest; but they recommended to his attention fidelity to treaties, which constitutes a no less valuable part of the royal character, than humanity and disinterestedness. This answer made no impression on the czar; a suspension of hostilities took place on the 16th of March, which was followed by a treaty of alliance on the 5th of May. In this treaty the czar stipulated nothing in favour of his former confederates; on the contrary, he agreed to join his troops to those of the king of Prussia, in order to act against them. Sweden, which had for a long time acted under the direction of Russian counsels, now followed the example of her mistress, and concluded a peace with Prussia on the 22d of May. 63 Empress of Russia dies. 64 Peace between Russia, Sweden, and Prussia.

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Prussia.

It is not to be supposed that the king of Prussia would remain long inactive after such an unexpected turn in his favour. His arms were now every where attended with success. Prince Henry drove the Imperialists from some important posts in Saxony, by which he secured all that part which the Prussians possessed; and though the Austrians frequently attempted to recover these posts, they were constantly repulsed with great slaughter. The king was not joined by his new allies till the latter end of June; after which he drove M. Daun before him to the extremity of Silesia, leaving the town of Schweidnitz entirely uncovered, and which the king immediately prepared to invest. In the mean time different detachments of Prussians, some on the side of Saxony, and others on that of Silesia, penetrated deep into Bohemia, laid many parts of the country under contribution, and spread an universal alarm. A considerable body of Russian irregulars also made an irruption into Bohemia, where they practised on the Austrians the same cruelties which they had long been accustomed to practise on the Prussians.

65 Successes of the king of Prussia.

But while the king was thus making the best use of his time, he was all at once threatened with a fatal reverse of fortune by a new revolution in Russia. The emperor was deposed, and his deposition was soon after followed by his death. The empress, who succeeded him, suspected that her husband had been mislied by the counsels of his Prussian majesty, against whom, therefore, she entertained a mortal enmity. She could not, however, in the very beginning of her reign, undertake again a war of so much importance as that which had been just concluded. She therefore declared her intention of observing the peace concluded by the late emperor; but, at the same time, of recalling her armies from Silesia, Prussia, and Pomerania; which indeed the unsettled state of the kingdom now made in some degree necessary. At the same time a discovery was made with regard to the king of Prussia himself, which turned the scale greatly in his favour. The Russian senate, flaming with resentment against this monarch, and against their late unfortunate sovereign; and the empress, full of suspicion that the conduct of the latter might have been influenced by the councils of the former, searched eagerly amongst the papers of the late emperor for an elucidation or proofs of this point. They found indeed many letters from the Prussian monarch; but in a strain absolutely different from what they had expected. The king had, as far as prudence would permit, kept a reserve and distance with regard to the too rash advances of this unhappy ally; and, in particular, counselled him to undertake nothing against the empress his consort. The hearing of these letters read is said to have had such an effect upon the empress, that she burst into tears, and expressed her gratitude towards the Prussian monarch in the warmest terms. Still, however, the Russian army was ordered to separate from the Prussians; but all the important places which the former had taken during the whole war were faithfully restored.

66 A new revolution in Russia.

The king, finding that the Russians were no more to take an active part in his favour, resolved to profit by their appearance in his camp; and therefore, the very day after the order for their return had arrived, he attacked the Austrian army, and drove their right wing from some eminences and villages where they were advantageously posted; by which means he entirely cut off their communication with Schweidnitz, so that nothing could be attempted for its relief. Prince Henry kept them in continual alarms for Bohemia; and a great part of their attention, and no small part of their forces, were engaged on that side. Marshal Daun, now finding himself rendered almost incapable of undertaking any thing, detached general Laudohn, with a force very much superior, to attack the prince of Bevern, and drive him from the advantageous post he occupied. But the prince defended himself with such resolution, that all the efforts of Laudohn could not succeed before the king had time to come to his assistance. The Austrians, being then put between two fires, were routed and pursued with terrible slaughter; after which, the king met with no more disturbance in his preparations for the siege, and the trenches were opened on the 18th of July. Marshal Daun made no attempts to relieve the place; but the garrison being very strong, it held out for near two months from the opening of the trenches. It is said that the attack was conducted, and the defence made, by two engineers who had written on the subject of the attack and defence of fortified places; and they were now practically engaged to prove the superiority of their systems. At last, however, the garrison, to the number of 8000 men, surrendered prisoners of war; and the whole body, except nine, were soon after drowned at the mouth of the Oder, on their passage to their intended confinement at Konigsberg.

67 General Laudohn utterly defeated.

The king of Prussia, now become master of Schweidnitz, turned his attention towards Saxony, where he considerably reinforced his brother's army, and made preparations for laying siege to Dresden. In this country the Austrians had lately met with some success, and driven prince Henry back as far as Freyberg; but on the 29th of October, they were attacked by the Prussian army thus reinforced, and totally routed. Great numbers were slain, and near 6000 taken prisoners. This victory proved decisive; and the empress-queen, finding herself deserted by all her allies, was glad to conclude a treaty; the substance of which was, that a mutual restitution and oblivion should take place, and both parties sit down at the end of the war in the same situation in which they began it. This treaty is called the *peace of Hubertsburg*.

67 Austrians entirely defeated at Freyberg, which produces a peace.

The war was no sooner concluded than the king of Prussia turned his attention to domestic policy, and the recovery of his dominions from those innumerable calamities which had befallen them during the war. He immediately distributed lands to his disbanded soldiers, and gave them the horses of his artillery to assist them in their cultivation. By his wise and prudent management, the horrors of war were soon forgot; and the country is now in as flourishing a state as ever. Notwithstanding this pacific disposition, however, the king has never slackened his endeavours for the defence of his country, by keeping a respectable army on foot; Indeed it is probable that his army is now much more formidable than ever.

68 A new war commences, but produces no memorable event.

In the year 1778, a new difference with the house of Austria took place, concerning the duchy of Bavaria. But tho' the most enormous warlike preparations were made on both sides, and immense armies brought into the field, nothing of consequence was effected. What little advantage

Pruſſia. advantage there was, ſeems to have been on the Pruſſian ſide, ſince they made themſelves maſters of ſeveral towns, and kept the war in the enemy's country. However, the emperor acted with ſo much caution, and ſhowed ſuch ſkill in a defenſive war, that all the manœuvres of his Pruſſian Majeſty could gain no material advantage; as, on the other hand, his adverſary was too wiſe to venture an engagement. A peace therefore was very ſoon concluded, and ſince that time the hiſtory of Pruſſia has afforded no remarkable event.

69 Air, ſoil, and population of Pruſſia.

The air of Pruſſia is wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful in grain; affording, beſides, plenty of pitcoal and other fuel. The rivers and lakes are well ſtored with fiſh; and amber is found on its coaſt towards the Baltic. The principal rivers are the Viſtula, Bregel, Memel, the Paſſarge, and the Elbe; all of which frequently do damage by their inundations.

The inhabitants of this country were, by Dr Buſching, computed at 635,998 perſons capable of bearing arms; and by another German author, at 450,000. Since the year 1719 it is computed that about 34,000 coloniſts have removed hither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number one half were Saltzburgers. Theſe emigrants have built 400 ſmall villages, 11 towns, 50 new churches, and founded 1000 village-ſchools. The manners of the people differ but little from thoſe of the Germans. The eſtabliſhed religions are thoſe of Luther and Calvin, but chiefly the former; though almoſt all other ſects are tolerated.

70 Commerce and manufactures.

The preſent king of Pruſſia, by the aſſiſtance of an excellent police, has brought the commerce and manufactures of this country to a very flouriſhing ſtate, which is daily improving. The manufactures, of Pruſſia conſiſt in glaſs, iron-work, paper, gun-powder, copper, and braſs-mills; manufactures of cloth, camblet, linen, ſilk, gold and ſilver lace, ſtockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval ſtores; amber, lint-ſeed and hemp-ſeed, oat-meal, fiſh, mead, tallow, and caviar; and it is ſaid that 500 ſhips are loaded with thoſe commodities every year, chiefly from Koningſberg.

71 Conſtitution.

His Pruſſian majeſty is abſolute through all his dominions, but is too wiſe to oppreſs his ſubjects, though he avails himſelf to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of ſtate, *viz.* 1. The great-maſter; 2. The great-burgrave; 3. The great-chancellor; and, 4. The great-marſhal. There are alſo ſome other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The ſtate conſiſts, 1. Of counſellors of ſtate; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Beſides theſe inſtitutions, his majeſty has erected a board for commerce and navigation.

72 Revenues.

His Pruſſian majeſty, by means of the happy ſituation of his country, its inland navigation, and his own excellent regulations, derives an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the ſeat of boors and barbariſm. It is ſaid, that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues ariſe from his demeſnes, his duties of cuſtoms and tolls, and the ſubſidies yearly granted by the ſeveral ſtates; but the exact ſum is not known, though we may conclude that it is very conſiderable, from the immenſe charges of the late war.

The military regulations introduced by his majeſty, have a wonderful quick operation in forming his troops and recruiting his armies. Every regiment has a particular diſtrict aſſigned it, where the young men proper for bearing arms are regiſtered; and when occaſion offers, they join their regiment, and being incorporated with veterans they ſoon become well diſciplined troops. The Pruſſian army, in time of peace, conſiſts of 175,000 of the beſt diſciplined troops in the world; and during the laſt war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men.

Pruſſian, Prynne.

73 Military ſtrength, &c.

The royal arms of Pruſſia are argent, an eagle diſplayed ſable, crowned, or, for Pruſſia: azure, the Imperial ſceptre, or, for Courland: argent, an eagle diſplayed, gules, with ſemi-circular wreaths, for the marquiſate of Brandenburg: to theſe are added the reſpective arms of the ſeveral provinces ſubject to the Pruſſian crown.

There are two orders of knighthood; the firſt, that of the Black Eagle, inſtituted by Frederic I. on the day of his coronation at Koningſberg, with this motto, *Suum cuique*. The ſovereign is always grand-maſter; and the number of knights, excluſive of the royal family, is limited to 30. Next to this is the order of Merit, inſtituted by his preſent majeſty; the motto is, *Pour le merite*.

PRUSSIAN BLUE. See CHEMISTRY, n° 287.

PRYNNE (William), an Engliſh lawyer, much diſtinguiſhed in the civil commotions under Char. I. was born at Swainſwick in Somerſetſhire in 1600. His *Hiſtriomaſtix*, written againſt ſtage-plays in 1632, containing ſome reflections that offended the court, he was ſentenced by the ſtar-chamber to pay a fine of 5000 l. to ſtand in the pillory, to loſe his ears, and to perpetual impriſonment. During his confinement, he wrote ſeveral more books; particularly, in 1637, one entitled *News from Ipſwich*, which reflecting ſeverely on the biſhops, he was again ſentenced by the ſtar-chamber to another fine of 5000 l. to loſe the remainder of his ears in the pillory, to be branded on both cheeks with S. L. for ſeditious libeller, and to be perpetually impriſoned in Caernarvon caſtle. Nothing but cutting off his hands could have prevented Prynne from writing: he wrote ſtill; and in 1640, being ſet at liberty by the houſe of commons, he entered London in a kind of triumph, was elected into parliament for Newport in Cornwal, and oppoſed the biſhops with great vigour, being the chief manager of archbiſhop Laud's trial. In the long parliament he was zealous in the Preſbyterian cauſe; but when the independents gained the aſcendency, he oppoſed them warmly, and promoted an agreement with the king. When the army garbled the houſe and refuſed him entrance, he became a bitter enemy to them and their leader Cromwel, and attacked them with his pen ſo ſeverely that he was again impriſoned: but he pleaded the liberty of the ſubject ſo ſucceſſfully, that he was enlarged, to write more controverſial books. Being reſtored to his ſeat after Cromwel's death, with the other ſecluded members, he aſſiſted in promoting the reſtoration, and was appointed keeper of the Tower records; a place excellently well calculated for him, and where he was very uſeful by the collections he publiſhed from them. He preſented 40 volumes of his works, in folio and 4to, to

Lincoln's-

Lincoln's-inn library, of which society he was a member; and, dying in 1669, was buried under the chapel.

PRYTANES, in Grecian antiquity, were the presidents of the senate, whose authority consisted chiefly in assembling the senate; which, for the most part, was done once every day.

The senate consisted of 500, 50 senators being elected out of each tribe: after which, lots were cast, to determine in what order the senators of each tribe should preside; which they did by turns, and during their presidentship were called *prytanes*. However, all the 50 prytanes of the tribes did not govern at once, but one at a time, viz. for seven days; and after 35 days, another tribe came into play, and presided for other five weeks; and so of the rest.

PSALM, a divine song or hymn; but chiefly appropriated to the 150 Psalms of David, a canonical book of the Old Testament.

Most of the psalms have a particular title, signifying either the name of the author, the person who was to set it to music or sing it, the instrument that was to be used, or the subject and occasion of it. Some have imagined that David was the sole author of the Book of Psalms; but the titles of many of them prove the contrary, as psalm xix. which appears to have been written by Moses. Many of the psalms are inscribed with the names *Korah*, *Jeduthun*, &c. from the persons who were to sing them.

PSALMANAZAR (George), the fictitious name of a pretended Formosan, a person of learning and ingenuity. He was born in France, and educated in a free-school, and afterwards in a college of Jesuits, in an archiepiscopal city, the name of which, as likewise those of his birth-place and of his parents, are unknown. Upon leaving the college, he was recommended as a tutor to a young gentlemen; but soon fell into a mean rambling life, that involved him in disappointments and misfortunes. His first pretence was that of being a sufferer for religion. He procured a certificate that he was of Irish extraction, that he left that country for the sake of the Catholic faith, and was going on a pilgrimage to Rome. Being unable to purchase a pilgrim's garb, and observing one in a chapel, dedicated to a miraculous saint, which had been set up as a monument of gratitude by some wandering pilgrim, he contrived to take both the staff and cloak away; and, being thus accoutred, begged his way in fluent Latin, accosting only clergymen or persons of figure, whom he found so generous and credulous, that, before he had gone 20 miles, he might easily have saved money, and put himself in a much better dress: but as soon as he had got what he thought was sufficient, he begged no more; but viewed every thing worth seeing, and then retired to some inn, where he spent his money as freely as he had obtained it. Having heard the Jesuits speak much of China and Japan, he started the wild scheme, when he was in Germany, of passing for a native of the island of Formosa; and what he wanted in knowledge, he supplied by a pregnant invention. He formed a new character and language on grammatical principles, which, like other oriental languages, he wrote from right to left with great readiness; and planned a new religion, and a division of the year into 20 months, with other novelties, to credit his pretensions. He was now a Japanese convert to Christianity, travelling for instruction, with an appearance more wretched than even that of common beggars. He then entered as a soldier in the Dutch service: but, still desirous of passing for a Japanese, he altered his plan to that of being an unconverted heathen; and at Sluys, brigadier Lauder, a Scots colonel, introduced him to the chaplain, who, with a view of recommending himself to the bishop of London, resolved to carry him over to England. At Rotterdam, some persons having put shrewd questions to him, that carried the air of doubt, he took one more whimsical step, which was to live upon raw flesh, roots, and herbs; which strange food he thought would remove all scruples. The bishop of London patronized him, with credulous humanity; and Psalmanazar found a large circle of friends, who extolled him as a prodigy. Yet were there some who entertained a just opinion of him, particularly the Drs Halley, Mead, and Woodward; but their endeavours to expose him as a cheat, only made others think the better of him, especially as those gentlemen were esteemed no great admirers of revelation. But in this instance at least, easiness of belief was no great evidence of penetration. He was employed to translate the church-catechism into the Formosan language, which was examined, approved, and laid up as a valuable MS; and the author, after writing his well-known *History of Formosa*, was rewarded and sent to Oxford to study what he liked, while his patrons and opponents were learnedly disputing at London on the merits of his work. The learned members of the university were no better agreed in their opinions, than those at London; but at length the scepticks triumphed. Some absurdities were discovered in his history, of such a nature as to discredit the whole narration, and saved him the trouble of an open declaration of his imposture, which however he owned at length to his private friends. For the remainder of his life, his learning and ingenuity enabled him to procure a comfortable support by his pen; he being concerned in several works of credit, particularly *The Universal History*. He lived irreproachably for many years, and died in 1763.

PSALMODY, the art or act of singing psalms. See PSALMS.

Psalmody was always esteemed a considerable part of devotion, and usually performed in the standing posture: and as to the manner of pronunciation, the plain song was sometimes used, being a gentle inflection of the voice, not much different from reading, like the chant in cathedrals; at other times more artificial compositions were used, like our anthems.

As to the persons concerned in singing, sometimes a single person sung alone; sometimes the whole assembly joined together, which was the most ancient and general practice. At other times, the psalms were sung alternately, the congregation dividing themselves into two parts, and singing verse about, in their turns. There was also a fourth way of singing, pretty common in the fourth century, which was, when a single person began the verse, and the people joined with him in the close: this was often used for variety, in the same service with alternate psalmody.

The use of musical instruments, in the singing of psalms, seems to be as ancient as psalmody itself; the first

Psalter ‖ Pseudo.

first psalm we read of, being sung to the timbrel, viz. that of Moses and Miriam, after the deliverance of the Israelites from Egypt: and afterwards, musical instruments were in constant use in the temple of Jerusalem. When the use of organs was introduced into the Christian church, is not certainly known; but we find, about the year 660, that Constantine Copronymus, emperor of Constantinople, sent a present of an organ to Pepin king of France.

PSALTER, the same with the book of psalms. See the article PSALM.

Among the religious in the Popish countries, the term *psalter* is also given to a large chapelet or rosary, consisting of 150 beads, according to the number of psalms in the psalter.

PSALTERY, a musical instrument, much in use among the ancient Hebrews, who called it *nebel*.

We know little or nothing of the precise form of the ancient psaltery. That now in use is a flat instrument, in form of a trapezium or triangle truncated at top: it is strung with 13 wire-chords, set to unison or octave, and mounted on two bridges, on the two sides: it is struck with a plectrum, or little iron rod, and sometimes with a crooked stick. Its chest or body resembles that of a spinet.

PSAMMETICUS, or PSAMMITICHUS, a renowned conqueror, who, subduing 11 other petty kings of Egypt, became the founder of the kingdom of Egypt, about 670 B. C. He is memorable likewise for taking the city of Azot, after a siege of 29 years; and for discovering the sources of the river Nile.

PSEUDO, from ψευδω, a Greek term used in the composition of many words, to denote *false* or *spurious*: as the pseudo-acacia, or bastard-acacia; pseudo-fumaria, or bastard-fumitory; pseudo-ruta, or bastard-rue, &c.

We also say a pseudo-apostle, or false apostle; a pseudo-prophet, or false prophet, &c.

PSEUDO-*Tinea*, in natural history, the name of a very remarkable species of insect described by M. Reaumur, approaching to the nature of the *tinea*, or *clothes-moth* while in the worm-state, but not making themselves coats of the substance of leaves, cloth, &c. tho' they form a sort of cases for their defence against a very terrible enemy.

These creatures are of the caterpillar kind, and have, in the manner of many of these insects, 16 legs. They feed on wax, and for food enter the bee-hives; where they boldly engage the bees, and are not to be prevented by them from feeding, though at the expence of their habitations and the cells of their reservoirs of honey: so that it is no uncommong thing for a swarm of bees to be forced to change their place of habitation, and make new combs elsewhere; leaving the old ones to this contemptible victor, whom they know not how to drive out or dispossess.

Virgil and Aristotle, and all the authors who have written on bees, have complained of this destructive animal. It never eats the honey, but feeds only on the wax; attacking principally those waxy cells where the female bee deposits her eggs for the future progeny.

The bees, who are a match for most other creatures by means of their stings, would easily destroy these weak creatures, were it not for the impervious armour they are covered with. They form themselves a coat of armour of a double matter. The first, which immediately covers the body, is of a kind of silk of their own spinning; and the outer covering over this is of the bees wax: this is laid considerably thick; and the creature, just thrusting out its head to feed, goes on devouring the cells undisturbed, while a whole army of the inhabitants are in vain buzzing about him, and attempting to pierce him with their stings. He never forsakes his covering, but lengthens and enlarges it as he goes; and gnawing down the sides of the cells in his march, without staying to eat them one by one, the havock and destruction he occasions are scarce to be conceived. When the time of the change of this creature approaches, it contracts its body within its double covering, and there changes into the nymph state; whence, after a proper time, it comes forth in form of a moth, with granulated horns and a crooked proboscis.

Pseudo, Pseudonymus.

The bees have cunning enough to know their destructive enemy in this new form; and as this is a weak and defenceless state, they attack and destroy all the moths of this species they can meet with. They seldom are so fortunate, however, as to kill the whole race as soon as produced; and if only one escapes, it is able to lay a foundation of revenge for the death of its brethren. All the flies of the moth kind lay a vast number of eggs, and this is behind hand with none of them in that particular: the young ones produced from the eggs of one surviving female of this species, are sufficient to destroy many honey-combs; nay, many hives of them. The moth produced by this caterpillar flies but little; yet it is very nimble in avoiding danger, by running, which it does with great swiftness.

There is a species of these pseudo-tineæ, or wax-eating caterpillars, which infest the subterraneous hives of wasps and other creatures which make wax: the manner of living, feeding, and defending themselves from their enemies, is the same in all the species. These last, if they are at any time distressed for food, will eat their own dung; the wax having passed almost unaltered through their bodies, and being still wax and capable of affording them more nourishment on a second digestion. These species, though they naturally live on this soft food, yet if by any accident they meet with harder only, they know how to live upon it; and can eat a way into the covers and leaves of books, and make themselves cases and coverings of the fragments of these substances. The accurate author † of these observations describes also a kind of *pseudo-tineæ* which feeds on wool, and another that eats leather; both making themselves houses also on the materials they feed on.

† Reaumur, Hist. of Insects.

There is also another kind very destructive of corn: these make themselves a covering by fastening together a great number of the grains, and there living and eating in secret. All these creatures, whatever be their food or habitation, finally become *phalenæ*, or moths; and may be distinguished, even in this state, from the other species, by having granulated horns of a remarkable structure, and all of them a proboscis, or trunk, more or less incurvated.

PSEUDONYMUS, among critics, an author who publishes a book under a false or feigned name: as

cryptonymus is given to him who publishes one under a disguised name, and *anonymus* to him who publishes without any name at all.

PSIDIUM, the GUAVA; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the icosandria class of plants. There are two species: 1. The pyriferum, or white guava; 2. The pomiferum, or red guava. Both these are thought to be only varieties of the same plant. The red guava rises to the height of 20 feet, and is covered with a smooth bark; the branches are angular, covered with oval leaves, having a strong midrib, and many veins running towards the sides, of a light green colour, standing opposite upon very short footstalks. From the wings of the leaves the flowers come out upon footstalks an inch and a half long: they are composed of five large roundish concave petals, within which are a great number of stamina shorter than the petals, and tipped with pale yellow tops. After the flower is past, the germen becomes a large oval fruit shaped like a pomegranate.

A decoction of the roots of guava, is employed with success in dysenteries: a bath of a decoction of the leaves is said to cure the itch and other cutaneous eruptions. Guayava, or guava, is distinguished, from the colour of the pulp, into the two species abovementioned, the white and the red; and, from the figure of the fruit, into the round, and the pear-fashioned or perfumed guava. The latter has a thicker rind, and a more delicate taste than the other. The fruit is about the bigness of a large tennis-ball; the rind or skin generally of a russet stained with red. The pulp within the thick rind is of an agreeable flavour, and interspersed with a number of small white seeds. The rind, when stewed, is eaten with milk, and preferred to any other stewed fruit. From the same part is made marmalade; and from the whole fruit is prepared the finest jelly in the world. The fruit is very astringent, and nearly of the same quality with the pomegranate; so should be avoided by all who are subject to be costive. The seeds are so hard as not to be affected by the fermentation in the stomachs of animals; so that when voided with the excrements, they take root, germinate, and produce thriving trees. Whole meadows in the West Indies are covered with guavas, which have been propagated in this manner. The buds of guava, boiled with barley and liquorice, produce an excellent ptisan for diarrhœas, and even the bloody-flux, when not too inveterate. The wood of the tree, employed as fuel, makes a lively, ardent, lasting fire.

PSYLLI, (Strabo, Ptolemy): a people in the south of Cyrenaica, so called from king Psyllus, (Agathargides, quoted by Pliny;) almost all overwhelmed by sand driven by a south wind, (Herodotus). They had something in their bodies fatal to serpents, and their very smell proved a charm against them, according to Pliny, Lucan, &c.

Though we may justly look upon it as fabulous that these people had any thing in their bodies different from others, it is however certain that there are in Egypt at this day some persons who have a method of handling the most poisonous serpents without any hurt. Of these Mr Hasselquist gives the following account.

"They take the most poisonous vipers with their bare hands, play with them, put them in their bosoms, and use a great many more tricks with them, as I have often seen. I have frequently seen them handle those that were three or four feet long, and of the most horrid sort. I inquired and examined whether they had cut out the vipers poisonous teeth; but I have with my own eyes seen they do not. We may therefore conclude, that there are to this day Psilli in Egypt; but what art they use, is not easily known. Some people are very superstitious, and the generality believe this to be done by some supernatural art which they obtain from invisible beings. I do not know whether their power is to be ascribed to good or evil; but I am persuaded that those who undertake it use many superstitions." He afterwards says, "He had vipers of four different sorts brought him by a Psilli, who put him, together with the French consul Lironcourt, and all the French nation present, in consternation. They gathered about us to see how she handled the most poisonous and dreadful creatures alive and brisk, without their doing, or even offering to do, her the least harm. When she put them into the bottle where they were to be preserved, she took them with her bare hands, and handled them as our ladies do their laces. She had no difficulty with any but the *viperæ officinales*, which were not fond of their lodging. They found means to creep out before the bottle could be corked. They crept over the hands and bare arms of the woman, without occasioning the least fear in her: she with great calmness took the snakes from her body, and put them into the place destined for their grave. She had taken these serpents in the field with the same ease she handled them before us: this we were told by the Arab who brought her to us. Doubtless this woman had some unknown art which enabled her to handle these creatures. It was impossible to get any information from her; for on this subject she would not open her lips. The art of fascinating serpents is a secret amongst the Egyptians. It is worthy the endeavours of all naturalists, and the attention of every traveller, to learn something decisive as to this affair. How ancient this art is among the Africans, may be concluded from the ancient Marii and Psylli, who were from Africa, and daily showed proofs of it at Rome. It is very remarkable that this should be kept a secret for more than 2000 years, being known only to a few, when we have seen how many other secrets have within that time been revealed. The circumstances relating to the fascination of serpents in Egypt, related to me, were principally, 1. That the art is only known to certain families, who propagate it to their offspring. 2. The person who knows how to fascinate serpents, never meddles with other poisonous animals, such as scorpions, lizards, &c. There are different persons who know how to fascinate these animals; and they again never meddle with serpents. 3. Those that fascinate serpents, eat them both raw and boiled, and even make broth of them, which they eat very commonly amongst them; but in particular, they eat such a dish when they go out to catch them. I have been told, that serpents fried or boiled are frequently eat by the Arabians both in Egypt and Arabia, though they know not how to fascinate them, but catch them either alive or dead. 4. After they have eat their soup, they procure a blessing from their schelk (priest or lawyer) who

uses some superstitious ceremonies, and amongst others spits on them several times with certain gestures. This manner of getting a blessing from the priest is pure superstition, and certainly cannot in the least help to fascinate serpents; but they believe, or will at least persuade others, that the power of fascinating serpents depends upon this circumstance."

PSITTACUS, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of picæ. The beak is hooked, the superior mandible being furnished with a moveable wax; the nostrils are placed at the base of the beak; the tongue is fleshy, blunt, and entire; and the feet are fitted for climbing. There are 45 species, distinguished by their colour and the length of their tails. This genus includes the parrot kind, which are all natives of warm climates.

The parrot is a well-known bird, of which there are several very beautiful kinds. Its head is large, and beak and skull extremely hard and strong. It might seem a wonder why nature has destined to this, which is not naturally a bird of prey, but feeds on fruits and vegetable substances, the crooked beak allotted to the hawk and other carnivorous birds: but the reason seems to be, that the parrot being a heavy bird, and its legs not very fit for service, it climbs up and down trees by the help of this sharp and hooked bill, with which it lays hold of any thing and secures itself before it stirs a foot; and besides this, it helps itself forward very much, by pulling its body on with this hold.

Of all animals, the parrot and crocodile are the only ones which move the upper jaw; all creatures else moving the lower only. As some particular animals beside are fond of particular foods, so the parrot loves nothing so much as the seeds of the carthamus, or bastard-saffron; and eats them without any hurt, though they are a purge when given to other creatures.

The parrots are common both in the East and West Indies: they are a brisk and lively bird in the warmer countries; but with us lose much of their vigour. They lay two or three eggs in the hollow of a tree.

In all the known parrots the nostrils are round, and placed very high upon the beak, and very near one another.

Parrots are divided into three kinds: 1. The larger, which are as big as a moderate fowl, called *macaos* and *cocketoons*; these have very long tails. 2. The middle-sized ones, commonly called *parrots*, which have short tails, and are a little larger than a pigeon. And, 3. The small ones, which are called *paroquets*, and have long tails, and are not larger than a lark or blackbird.

PSOAS, in anatomy. See there, *Table of the Muscles*.

PSORALEA, in botany, a genus of the decandria order, belonging to the diadelphia class of plants. The most remarkable species are, 1. The primata, or pinnated psoralea, rises with a woody soft stem, branching five or six feet high, pinnated leaves of three or four pair of narrow lobes terminated by an odd one, and at the axillas close-fitting blue flowers with white keels. It is a native of Ethiopia. 2. The bituminosa, or bituminous trifoliate psoralea, rises with a shrubby stalk, branching sparingly, about two or three feet high, with ternate or three-lobed leaves of a bituminous scent, and blue flowers in close heads. Grows in Italy and in France. 3. The aculeata, or aculeated prickly psoralea, rises with a shrubby branching stem three or four feet high, with ternate leaves, having wedge-shaped lobes, terminating in a recurved sharp point, and the branches terminated by roundish heads of blue flowers. Grows in Ethiopia. These plants flower here every summer; the first sort greatest part of that season, and the others in July and August; all of which are succeeded by seeds in autumn. Keep them in pots in order for removing into the green-house in winter. They are propagated by seeds, sown in a hot-bed in the spring; and when the plants are two or three inches high, prick them in separate small pots, and gradually harden them to the open air, so as to bear it fully by the end of May or beginning of June. They may also be propagated by cuttings any time in summer, planted in pots and plunged in a little heat, or covered close with hand-glasses, shaded from the sun and watered.

PTARMIGAN, in ornithology. See TETRAO.

PTELEA, SHRUB-TREFOIL; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the tetrandria class of plants. The species are, 1. The trifoliata, or Carolina shrub-trefoil, hath a shrubby upright stem, dividing into a branchy head eight or ten feet high, covered with a smooth purplish bark, trifoliate leaves formed of oval-spear-shaped folioles, and the branches terminated by large bunches of greenish-white flowers, succeeded by roundish, bordered capsules. 2. The viscosa, or viscous Indian ptelea, rises with several strong shrubby stems, branching erectly 12 or 15 feet high, having a light brown bark, spear-shaped, stiff, simple leaves, and the branches terminated by clusters of greenish flowers.

The first species is a hardy deciduous shrub, and a proper plant for the shrubbery and other ornamental plantations to increase the variety. It is propagated by seeds, layers, and cuttings.

The second species is a stove-plant, and is propagated commonly by seeds.

PTERIS, in botany, a genus of the order of filices, belonging to the cryptogamia class of plants. There are 19 species; the most remarkable is the aquilina, or common female fern. The root of this is viscid, nauseous, and bitterish; and like all the rest of the fern tribe, has a salt, mucilaginous taste. It creeps under the ground in some rich soils to the depth of five or six feet, and is very difficult to be destroyed. Frequent mowing in pasture-grounds, plentiful dunging in arable lands, but, above all, pouring urine upon it, are the most approved methods of killing it. It has, however, many good qualities to counterbalance the few bad ones. Fern cut while green, and left to rot upon the ground, is a good improver of land; for its ashes, if burnt, will yield the double quantity of salt that most other vegetables will.—Fern is also an excellent manure for potatoes; for if buried beneath their roots, it never fails to produce a good crop.—Its astringency is so great, that it is used in many places abroad in dressing and preparing kid and chamois leather.—In several places in the north, the inhabitants mow it green, and, burning it to ashes, make those

ashes

ashes up into balls, with a little water, which they dry in the sun, and make use of them to wash their linen with instead of soap. In many of the western isles the people gain a very considerable profit from the sale of the ashes to soap and glass makers.—In Glen Elg in Inverness-shire, and other places, the people thatch their houses with the stalks of this fern, and fasten them down with ropes made either of birch-bark or heath. Sometimes they use the whole plant for the same purpose, but that does not make so durable a covering.—Swine are fond of the roots, especially if boiled in their wash.—In some parts of Normandy we read that the poor have been reduced to the miserable necessity of mixing them with their bread. And in Siberia, and some other northern countries, the inhabitants brew them in their ale, mixing one-third of the roots to two-thirds of malt.—The ancients used the root of this fern, and the whole plant, in decoctions and diet-drinks, in chronic disorders of all kinds, arising from obstructions of the viscera and the spleen. Some of the moderns have given it a high character in the same intentions, but it is rarely used in the present practice. The country people, however, still continue to retain some of its ancient uses; for they give the powder of it to destroy worms, and look upon a bed of the green plant as a sovereign cure for the rickets in children.

PTISAN, is properly barley decorticated, or deprived of its hulls, by beating in a mortar, as was the ancient practice: though the cooling potion obtained by boiling such barley in water, and afterwards sweetening the liquor with liquorice-root, is what at present goes by the name of *ptisan;* and to render it laxative, some add a little sena or other ingredient of the same intention.

PTOLEMAIC *System of Astronomy*, is that invented by Claudius Ptolemæus. See PTOLEMY (Claudius).

PTOLEMAIS, (anc. geog.); the port of Arsinoe, situated on the west branch of the Nile, which concurs to form the island called *Nomos Heracleotes*, to the south of the vertex of the Delta.

PTOLEMAIS, (Strabo); the largest and most considerable town of the Thebais, or Higher Egypt, and in nothing short of Memphis; governed in the manner of a Greek republic: situated on the west side of the Nile, almost opposite to Coptos.—Another, of Cyrenaica, anciently called *Barce*.—A third of the Troglodytica, surnamed *Epitheras*, from the chace of wild beasts, as elephants: lying in the same parallel with Meroë, (Strabo); on the Arabian gulf, (Pliny); 4820 stadia to the south of Berenice.—A fourth, of Galilee, anciently called *Aca*, or *Acon;* made a Roman colony under the emperor Claudius, (Pliny).—A fifth, of Pamphylia; situate near the river Melas, on the borders of Cilicia Aspera.

PTOLEMY (Soter, or Lagus), king of Egypt, a renowned warrior, and an excellent prince: he established an academy at Alexandria, and was himself a man of letters. Died 284 B. C. aged 92.

PTOLEMY (Philadelphus), his second son, succeeded him to the exclusion of Ptolemy Ceraunus. Renowned as a conqueror, but more revered for his great virtues and political abilities. He established and augmented the famous Alexandrian library, which had been begun by his father. He greatly increased the commerce of Egypt, and granted considerable privileges to the Jews, from whom he obtained a copy of the Old Testament, which he caused to be translated into Greek, and deposited in his library. This is supposed to have been the version called the *Septuagint*. He died 246 years B. C. aged 64.

PTOLEMY (Ceraunus), the elder brother, fled to Seleucus king of Macedon, who received him hospitably; in return for which he assassinated him, and usurped his crown. He then invited Arsinoë, who was his widow and his own sister, to share the government with him; but as soon as he got her in his power, he murdered her and her children. He was at length defeated, killed, and torn limb from limb by the Gauls, 279 B. C.

PTOLEMY (Claudius), a celebrated mathematician and astrologer, was born at Pelusium, and surnamed by the Greeks *Most Divine* and *Most Wise*. He flourished at Alexandria in the second century, under the reigns of Adrian and Marcus Aurelius, about the 138th year before the Christian æra. There are still extant his Geography, and several learned works on astronomy, the principal of which are, 1. The Almagest. 2. *De Judiciis Astrologicis*. 3. *Planisphærium*. His system of the world was for many years adopted by the philosophers and astronomers; but the learned have rejected it for the system of Copernicus. See ASTRONOMY, p. 748, 770.

PTYALISM, in medicine, a salivation, or frequent and copious discharge of saliva. The word is Greek, formed from πτυω "to spit."

PUBERTY, denotes the age at which a person is capable of procreating or begetting children.

PUBERTY, in law, is fixed at the age of 12 in females, and 14 in males; after which they are reckoned to be fit for marriage. But as to crimes and punishments, the age of puberty is fixed at 14 in both sexes.

PUBES, in anatomy, denotes the middle part of the hypogastric region in men or women, lying between the two inguina or groins.

Section of the PUBES. See MIDWIFERY, p. 528. and SIGAULTIAN *Operation*.

PUBES, in botany, the hair or down on the leaves of some plants. See HAIR.

PUBLICAN, among the Romans, one who farmed the taxes and public revenues.

PUBLICATION, the art of making a thing known to the world, the same with promulgation.

PUCERONS, VINE-FRETTERS, or *Plant-lice*. See APHIS.

PUDENDA, the parts of generation in both sexes. See ANATOMY, nº 371, 372.

PUERILITY, in discourse, is defined by Longinus to be a thought, which, by being too far fetched, becomes flat and insipid. Puerility, he adds, is the common fault of those who affect to say nothing but what is brilliant and extraordinary.

PUFFENDORF (Samuel de) was born in 1631 at Fleh, a little village in Misnia, a province in Upper Saxony; and was son of Elias Puffendorf, minister of that place. After having made great progress in the sciences at Leipsic, he turned his thoughts to the study of the public law, which in Germany consists of

Puffendorf, Puget.

the knowledge of the rights of the empire over the princes and ſtates of which it is compoſed, and thoſe of the princes and ſtates with reſpect to each other. But though he uſed his utmoſt efforts to diſtinguiſh himſelf, he deſpiſed thoſe pompous titles which are ſo much ſought for at univerſities, and never would take the degree of doctor. He accepted the place of governor to the ſon of Mr Coyet, a Swediſh nobleman, who was then ambaſſador from Sweden to the court of Denmark. For this purpoſe he went to Copenhagen, but continued not long at eaſe there; for the war being renewed ſome time after between Denmark and Sweden, he was ſeized with the whole family of the ambaſſador. During his confinement, which laſted eight months, as he had no books, and was allowed to ſee no perſon, he amuſed himſelf by meditating on what he read in Grotius's treatiſe *De Jure Belli et Pacis*, and the political writings of Mr Hobbes. Out of theſe he drew up a ſhort ſyſtem, to which he added ſome thoughts of his own, and publiſhed it at the Hague in 1660, under the title of *Elementa Juriſprudentiæ Univerſalis*. This recommended him to the elector Palatine, who invited him to the univerſity of Heidelberg, where he founded in his favour a profeſſorſhip of the law of nature and nations, which was the firſt of that kind eſtabliſhed in Germany. Puffendorf remained at Heidelberg till 1673, when Charles XI. of Sweden gave him an invitation to be profeſſor of the law of nature and nations at Lunden, which place the elector Palatine reluctantly allowed him to accept. He went thither the ſame year, and after that time his reputation greatly increaſed. Some years after, the king of Sweden ſent for him to Stockholm, and made him his hiſtoriographer, and one of his counſellors. In 1688, the elector of Brandenburg obtained the conſent of his Swediſh Majeſty, that he ſhould come to Berlin, in order to write the hiſtory of the elector William the Great; and in 1694, made him a baron. But he died that ſame year, of an inflamation in his feet, occaſioned by cutting his nails; having attained his grand climacteric. Of his works, which are numerous, the following are the principal: 1. A treatiſe on the Law of Nature and Nations, writen in German; of which there is an Engliſh tranſlation with Barbeyrac's Notes. 2. An Introduction to the Hiſtory of the Principal States which at preſent ſubſiſt in Europe; written in German; which has been alſo tranſlated into Engliſh. 3. The Hiſtory of Sweden, from Guſtavus Adolphus's expedition into Germany, to the abdication of Queen Chriſtina. 4. The Hiſtory of Charles Guſtavus, in two volumes folio, &c.

PUGET (Peter Paul), one of the greateſt painters and ſculptors France ever produced, though but little noticed by their own writers, was born at Marſeilles in 1623. In his youth he was the diſciple of Roman, an able ſculptor; and then went to Italy, where he ſtudied painting and architecture. In painting he ſo well imitated the manner of Peter de Cortona, that this painter deſired to ſee him, and entered into a friendſhip with him. In 1657, a dangerous diſorder obliged him to renounce the pencil, and devote himſelf to ſculpture; and his reputation cauſing him to be invited to Paris, he enjoyed a penſion of 1200 crowns, as ſculptor and director of the works relating to veſſels and galleys. He died at Marſeilles in 1695, and has left a number of admirable ſtatues behind him both in France and Italy.

Pugil || Pulex.

PUGIL, in phyſic, &c. ſuch a quantity of flowers, ſeeds, or the like, as may be taken up between the thumb and two fore-fingers. It is reckoned the eighth part of the manipulus or handful.

PULTENEY (William), the famous oppoſer of Sir Robert Walpole in parliament, and afterward earl of Bath, was deſcended from one of the moſt ancient families in the kingdom, and was born in 1682. Being well qualified in fortune, he early procured a ſeat in the houſe of commons, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a warm partiſan againſt queen Anne's miniſtry; whoſe errors he had ſagacity to detect, and ſpirited eloquence to expoſe. When king George I. came to the throne, Mr Pulteney was made ſecretary at war, and ſoon after cofferer to the king's houſehold; but the good underſtanding between this gentleman and Sir Robert Walpole, who then acted as prime miniſter, was interrupted in 1725, on a ſuſpicion that Walpole was deſirous of extending the limits of prerogative, and of promoting the intereſts of Hanover to the prejudice of thoſe of Britain. His oppoſition to Sir Robert was indeed carried to ſuch indiſcriminate lengths, that ſome have been of opinion he often acted againſt meaſures beneficial to the public merely from perſonal motives. It would be impracticable here to trace his parliamentary conduct: ſo it muſt ſuffice to obſerve in general, that he became ſo obnoxious to the crown, that in 1731 the king called for the council-book, and with his own hand ſtruck out his name from the liſt of privy-counſellors; a proceeding that only ſerved to inflame his reſentment and increaſe his popularity. Thus he ſtill continued to attack the miniſter with a ſeverity of eloquence and ſarcaſm that worſted every antagoniſt; ſo that Sir Robert was heard to declare, he dreaded that man's tongue, more than another man's ſword. At length when Walpole found the place of prime miniſter no longer tenible, and reſigned in 1741, among other promotions Mr Pulteney reſumed his place in the privy-council, and was created earl of Bath; a title purchaſed at the expence of that popularity which afterward he naturally enough affected to contemn. In 1760, toward the cloſe of the laſt war, he publiſhed *A Letter to two great men*, recommending proper articles to be inſiſted on in a treaty of peace; which, though the writer was then unknown, was greatly applauded, and went through ſeveral impreſſions. He died in 1764; and as his only ſon died before him, the title became extinct.

PULEX, the FLEA, in zoology, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of aptera. It has two eyes, and ſix feet fitted for leaping; the feelers are like threads; the roſtrum is inflected, ſetaceous, and armed with a ſting; and the belly is compreſſed.

The generation of this familiar vermin affords ſomething very curious, firſt diſcovered by Sig. Diaciento Ceſtore.

Fleas bring forth eggs, or nits, which they depoſit on animals that afford them a proper food: theſe eggs being very round and ſmooth, uſually ſlip ſtraight down; unleſs detained by the piles, or other inequalities, of the cloaths, hairs, &c.

Of

Pulex. Of these eggs are hatched white worms, of a shining pearl colour, which feed on the scurfy substance of the cuticle, the downy matter gathered in the piles of clothes, or other the like substances.

In a fortnight they come to a tolerable size, and are very lively and active; and, if at any time disturbed, they suddently roll themselves into a kind of ball.

Soon after this, they come to creep, after the manner of silk-worms, with a very swift motion. When arrived at their size, they hide themselves as much as possible, and spin a silken thread out of their mouth, wherewith they form themselves a small round bag, or case, white within as paper, but without always dirty, and fouled with dust. Here, after a fortnight's rest, the animalcule bursts out, transformed into a perfect flea; leaving its exuviæ in the bag.

While it remains in the bag, it is milk-white, till the second day before its eruption; when it becomes coloured, grows hard, and gets strength; so that upon its first delivery, it springs nimbly away.

The flea, when examined by the microscope, affords a very pleasing object. It is covered all over with black, hard, and shelly scales or plates, which are curiously jointed, and folded over one another in such a manner, as to comply with all the nimble motions of the creature. These scales are all curiously polished, and are beset about the edges with short spikes in a very beautiful and regular order. Its neck is finely arched, and much resembles the tail of a lobster: the head also is very extraordinary; for from the snout-part of it there proceed the two fore-legs, and between these is placed the piercer or sucker with which it penetrates the skin to get its food.

Its eyes are very large and beautiful, and it has two short horns or feelers. It has four other legs joined all at the breast. These, when it leaps, fold short one within another; and then, exerting their spring all at the same instant, they carry the creature to a surprising distance. The legs have several joints, and are very hairy, and terminate in two long and hooked sharp claws.

The piercer or sucker of the flea is lodged between its fore-legs, and includes a couple of darts or lancets; which, after the piercer has made an entrance, are thrust farther into the flesh, to make the blood flow from the adjacent parts, and occasion that round red spot, with a hole in the centre of it, vulgarly called a *flea-bite*.

This piercer, its sheath opening sidewise and the two lancets within it, are very difficult to be seen; unless the two fore-legs, between which they are hid, be cut off close to the head: for the flea rarely puts out its piercer, except at the time of feeding, but keeps it folded inwards; and the best way of seeing it is by cutting off first the head, and then the fore-legs, and then it is usually seen thrust out in convulsions.

By keeping fleas in a glass tube corked up at both ends, but so as to admit fresh air, their several actions may be observed, and particularly their way of coupling, which is performed tail to tail; the female, which is much the larger, standing on the male. They may also be thus seen to lay their eggs, not all at once, but ten or twelve in a day, for several days successively; which eggs will be afterwards found to hatch successively in the same order. The flea may easily be dissected in a drop of water; and by this means the stomach and bowels, with their peristaltic motion, may be discovered very plainly, as also their testes and penis, with the veins and arteries, though minute beyond all conception. Mr Lieuwenhoek affirms also, that he has seen innumerable animalcules, shaped like serpents, in the semen masculinum of a flea.

PULEX-*Arborum*, in natural history, the name given by Mr Reaumur to a very large genus of small animals. They are a kind of half-winged creatures: they have granulated antennæ; and some of them, in their most perfect state, have complete wings. These are distinguish from the others by the name of *musca-pulex* or the *winged-pulex*.

The several species of these creatures are of different colours: some are brown, others yellow; but the most frequent are green. They all feed upon the leaves of trees, which become withered and curled up on their eroding them; and they are so common, that wherever a leaf of a tree is found curled up, or of a different form from the others, it is highly probable these animals are on it, or that it is their work. Among trees the willow and the rose are the most infected by them; and among plants, the bean and the poppy. They live a social life, multitudes of males and females being found together. The females are easily distinguished from the males, by their being thicker in the body, and having larger bellies.

It is very wonderful, that of all the known animals of the winged kind, these are the only ones which are viviparous. This is easily seen beyond a possibility of doubt: for, on examining a cluster of them together, it is a common thing to see, by the help of a small magnifier, a female in the act of parturition; and the author † of this account frequently saw the young pulex protruded out, from a passage near the anus of the female, perfectly formed. He had suspected this from the total want of eggs among so numerous a tribe of animals, and from their remarkably speedy propagation, and was thus convinced of it by ocular demonstration.

† Reaumur, *History of Insects*.

They are armed with a tender and flexile proboscis; with which they seize hold of the young shoots of the tree they live upon, twisting the proboscis round it. These creatures are always seen naked and exposed, standing on the outside of the stalks and leaves, and sucking in their juices for nourishment with their proboscis. But there is another species of them, which are alike viviparous, and agree with them in all respects except in their manner of living. These get into the inner substance of the leaves, like the worms called *oscarides*; and feed on the parenchyma, being defended from all injuries by living between the integuments. In this case, the leaves they bury themselves in become scabrous and deformed, and produce a sort of galls: so that Malpighi erred in supposing all the galls of trees to be produced by the animals hatched of the eggs of ichneumon flies; since these animals, which are viviparous, and are of a very different kind from the worms of the ichneumon flies, equally produce them. A female of the species here treated of has been seen to bring forth seven young ones in a day: and thus, from residing alone in the tubercles which she had formed on a leaf, she in a little time becomes the mother of

Pulex || Pulp.

of a numerous family; each of which raises its own tumour or gall on the leaf, which at first are small and round, and of a beautiful red like kermes.

Such of these as are of the male species have a certain time of rest, in which they lie buried in a silky matter, and afterwards become winged, flying nimbly about; whereas the females never are able to fly, but remain always half-winged. It is to be observed, however, that there is a different species of winged insects frequently found flying about the female pulices, as well as their own males; so that all the small-winged insects about them are not to be thought of their own species. These do not greatly differ in figure; but the one are harmless, and the others have stings, and hurt any part of the body on which they fix.

Pulex-*Eaters*, a name given by naturalists to a sort of worms frequently found on the leaves of trees, where they devour the animals called *pulices arborei*.

Of these there are several species, which owe their origin to the eggs of different creatures; for there are none of them in their ultimate state in this their time of feeding. According to the different animals whose eggs they are hatched from, these are of different form and structure. Some are hexapodes, or endued with six feet: these belong to the beetle-tribe, and finally change into beetles like the parent-animal from whose eggs they sprung. Others have no legs, and are produced from the eggs of flies of various kinds. And finally, others are genuine caterpillars, though small; but these are the most rare of all.

The two general kinds are the hexapodes, or beetle-worms; and the apodes, or fly-worms. The fly which gives origin to the last of these is a four-winged one, and takes care always to deposit her eggs in a place where there are plenty of the pulices, usually on the stalk or young branches of a tree in the midst of large families of them. The worm, as soon as hatched, finds itself in the midst of abundance of food, preying at pleasure on these animals, which are wholly defenceless. The stalks of the elder and woodbine are frequently found covered over with these pulices; and among them there may usually be found one or more of these destroyers feeding at will, sucking in the juices from their bodies, and then throwing away the dry skins. Besides the worms of this four-winged fly, there is one of a two-winged wasp-fly, very destructive of these animals.

PULLEY, in mechanics, one of the five mechanical powers. See Mechanics, n° 51.

PULMO, the Lungs, in anatomy. See there, n° 381.

PULMONARIA, Lungwort; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. There are several species; of which the most remarkable is the officinalis, common spotted lungwort, or Jerusalem cowslip. This is a native of woods and shady places in Italy and Germany, but has been cultivated in Britain for medicinal use. The leaves are of a green colour, spotted with white; and of a mucilaginous taste, without any smell. They are recommended in phthisis, ulcers of the lungs, &c. but their virtues in these diseases are not warranted by experience.

PULP, in pharmacy, the fleshy and succulent parts of fruits extracted by infusion or boiling, and passed through a sieve.

Pulpit, Pulse.

PULPIT, an elevated place in a church, whence sermons are delivered. The French give the same name to a reading-desk.

PULSE, in the animal œconomy, denotes the beating or throbbing of the heart and arteries.

No doctrine has been involved in more difficulties than that of pulses; since, in giving a physiological account of them, physicians have espoused quite opposite sentiments; whilst some doubt whether the pulse is owing to the systole or diastole; as also, whether the motion of the heart and arteries, is one and the same, for a moment of time.

With regard to motion, the pulses are reckoned only four; great and little, quick and slow. When quickness and greatness are joined together, it becomes violent; and when it is little and slow, it is called a *weak pulse*. They are also said to be *frequent* and *rare*, *equal* and *unequal*; but these are not the essential affections of motion. Frequency and quickness are often confounded with each other. A pulse is said to be *hard* or *soft*, with regard to the artery, according as it is tense, renitent, and hard, or flaccid, soft, and lax: for the disposition of the arteries contributes greatly to the change of the pulse; wherefore it sometimes happens, that the pulse in both arms is not alike, which is very common in a hemiplexy. Add to these a convulsive pulse, which does not proceed from the blood, but from the state of the artery; and is known by a tremulous subsultory motion, and the artery seems to be drawn upwards: this, in acute fevers, is the sign of death; and is said to be the pulse in dying persons, which is likewise generally unequal and intermitting. A *great* pulse shews a more copious afflux of the blood to the heart, and from thence into the arteries; a *little* pulse, the contrary.

The pulses of persons differ according to the largeness of the heart and vessels, the quantity and temperies of the blood, the elastic force of the canals; as also with regard to the sex, age, season, air, motion, food, sleep, watchings, and passions of the mind. The pulse is larger and more quick in men than in women; in the bilious and sanguineo-bilious, than in the phlegmatic and melancholic. Those who are lean, with tense fibres and large vessels, have a greater and a stronger pulse, than those that are obese, with lax fibres and small vessels; whence they are more healthy, robust, and apt for labour. In children, the pulse is quick and soft; in adults, greater and more violent. In the old, it is commonly great, hard, and slow. Labour, motion, and exercise of the body, increase the circulation of the blood, the excretions, and particularly respiration; rest renders the circulation slow and weak; intense speaking increases the circulation, and consequently renders the pulse large and quick. In watching, the pulse is more evident; in sleep, more slow and languid. After drinking hot things, such as coffee and tea, or hot bath-waters, as well as after meals, the pulse vibrates more quick. But nothing produces a greater change in the pulse than affections of the mind: in terror, it is unequal, small, and contracted; in joy, frequent and great; in anger, quick and hard; in sadness, slow, small, deep, and weak; and in intense study, languid and weak. With regard to the air, when, after the predominancy of a west or south

Pulse || Pumice.

ſouth wind, it becomes north or eaſt, the pulſe is ſtronger and larger; as alſo when the quickſilver riſes in the barometer. But when the atmoſphere is denſe, humid, rainy, with a long ſouth wind; as alſo where the life is ſedentary, the ſleep long, and the ſeaſon autumnal, the pulſe is languid and ſmall, and the perſpiration decreaſed. In May it is great, and ſometimes violent; in the middle of ſummer, quick but weak; in the autumn, ſlow, ſoft, and weak; in the winter, hard and great. A draſtic purge and an emetic render the pulſe hard, quick, and weak, with loſs of ſtrength; chalybeates, and the bark, render it great and robuſt, and the complexion lively; volatiles amplify and increaſe the pulſe; acids and nitrous remedies refrigerate the body, and appeaſe the pulſe; opiates and the like, render it ſmall and weak, and decreaſe the elaſticity of the ſolids; and poiſons render it ſmall, contracted, and hard. When the quantity of the blood is too great, bleeding raiſes the pulſe.

PULSE, is alſo uſed for the ſtroke with which any medium is affected by the motion of light, ſound, &c. through it.

Sir Iſaac Newton demonſtrates, that the velocities of the pulſes in an elaſtic fluid medium (whoſe elaſticity is proportionable to its denſity) are in a ratio compounded of half the ratio of the elaſtic force directly, and half the ratio of the denſity inverſely; ſo that in a medium whoſe elaſticity is equal to its denſity, all pulſes will be equally ſwift.

PULSE, in botany, a term applied to all thoſe grains or ſeeds which are gathered with the hand; in contradiſtinction to corn, &c. which are reaped, or mowed: or, It is the ſeed of the leguminous kind of plants, as beans, vetches, &c. but is by ſome uſed for artichokes, aſparagus, &c.

PULVERIZATION, the art of pulverizing, or reducing a dry body into a fine powder; which is performed in friable bodies, by pounding or beating them in a mortar, &c. but to pulverize malleable ones, other methods muſt be taken. To pulverize lead, or tin, the method is this: Rub a round wooden box all over the inſide, with chalk; pour a little of the melted metal nimbly into the box; when ſhutting the lid, and ſhaking the box briſkly, the metal will be reduced to powder.

PUMICE, in natural hiſtory, a ſlag or cinder of ſome foſſil originally bearing another form, and only reduced to this ſtate by the action of the fire, though generally ranked by authors among the native ſtones. It is a lax and ſpungy matter, frequently of an obſcure, ſtriated texture in many parts, and always very cavernous and full of holes; it is hard and harſh to the touch, but much lighter than any other body that comes under the claſs of ſtones. It is found in maſſes of different ſizes, and of a perfectly irregular ſhape, from the bigneſs of a pigeon's egg to that of a buſhel. We have it from many parts of the world, but particularly from about the burning mountains Ætna, Veſuvius, and Hecla, by whoſe eruptions it is thrown up in vaſt abundance; and being by its lightneſs ſupported in the air, is carried into ſeas at ſome diſtance by the winds, and thence to diſtant ſhores. The great uſe of the pumice among the ancients ſeems to have been as a dentifrice, and at preſent it is retained in the ſhops on the ſame account.

Pump.

PUMP, an hydraulic machine for raiſing water by means of the preſſure of the atmophere. See HYDROSTATICS, n° 23, &c.

Naval PUMP, a well-known machine, uſed to diſcharge the water from the ſhip's bottom into the ſea.

The common pump is a long wooden tube, whoſe lower end reſts upon the ſhip's bottom, between the timbers, in an apartment called the *well*, incloſed for this purpoſe near the middle of the ſhip's length.

This pump is managed by means of the brake, and the two boxes or piſtons. Near the middle of the tube, in the chamber of the pump, is fixed the lower box, which is furniſhed with a ſtaple, by which it may at any time be hooked and drawn up in order to examine it. To the upper box is fixed a long bar of iron, called the *ſpear*, whoſe upper end is faſtened to the end of the brake, by means of an iron bolt paſſing through both. At a ſmall diſtance from this bolt the brake is confined by another bolt between two cheeks, or ears, fixed perpendicularly on the top of the pump. Thus the brake acts upon the ſpear as a lever, whoſe fulcrum is the bolt between the two cheeks, and diſcharges the water by means of the valves, or clappers, fixed on the upper and lower boxes.

Theſe ſorts of pumps, however, are very rarely uſed in ſhips of war, unleſs of the ſmalleſt ſize. The moſt uſeful machine of this kind, in large ſhips, is the chain-pump, which is univerſally uſed in the navy. This is no other than a long chain, equipped with a ſufficient number of valves, at proper diſtances, which paſſes downward through a wooden tube, and returns upward in the ſame manner on the other ſide. It is managed by a roller or winch, whereon ſeveral men may be employed at once; and thus it diſcharges, in a limited time, a much greater quantity of water than the common pump, and that with leſs fatigue and inconvenience to the labourers.

This machine is nevertheleſs expoſed to ſeveral diſagreeable accidents by the nature of its conſtruction. The chain is of too complicated a fabric, and the proket-wheels employed to wind it up the ſhip's bottom, are deficient in a very material circumſtance, viz. ſome contrivance to prevent the chain from ſliding or jerking back upon the ſurface of the wheel, which frequently happens when the valves are charged with a conſiderable weight of water, or when the pump is violently worked. The links are evidently too ſhort; and the immechanical manner in which they are connected, expoſes them to a great friction in paſſing round the wheels. Hence they are ſometimes apt to break or burſt aſunder in very dangerous ſituations, when it is extremely difficult or impracticable to repair the chain.

The conſideration of the known inconveniences of the above machine has given riſe to the invention of ſeveral others which ſhould better anſwer the purpoſe. They have been offered to the public one after another with pompous recommendations by their reſpective projectors, who have never failed to report their effects as conſiderably ſuperior to that of the chain-pump with which they have been tried. It is, however, much to be lamented, that in theſe ſort of trials there-

there is not always a scrupulous attention to what may be called *mechanical justice*. The artist, who wishes to introduce a new piece of mechanism, has generally sufficient address to compare its effects with one of the former machines which is crazy or out of repair. A report of this kind indeed favours strongly of the evidence of a false witness; but this finesse is not always discovered. The persons appointed to superintend the comparative effects of the different pumps, have not always a competent knowledge of hydraulics to detect these artifices, or to remark with precision the defects and advantages of those machines as opposed to each other. Thus the several inventions proposed to supplant the chain-pump have hitherto proved ineffectual, and are now no longer remembered.

Of late, however, some considerable improvements have been made on the naval chain-pump, by Mr Cole, under the direction of Captain Bentinck. The chain of this machine is more simple and mechanical, and much less exposed to damage. It is exactly similar to that of the fire engine; and appears to have been first applied to the pump by Mr Mylne, to exhaust the water from the caissons at Blackfriars bridge. It has thence been transferred to the marine by Captain Bentinck, after having received some material additions to answer that service. The principal superiority of this pump to the former is, 1. That the chain is more simple and more easily worked, and of course less exposed to injuries by friction. 2. That the chain is secured upon the wheel, and thereby prevented from jerking back when charged with a column of water. 3. That it may be easily taken up and repaired when broken or choaked with ballast, &c. 4. That it discharges a much greater quantity of water with an inferior number of men.

In Plate CCXLVII. a section of this machine at large is exhibited, as fixed in a frigate of war, fig. 5. wherein A is the keel, V the floor-timbers, X the kelson, *a a a* the several links of the chain, *b b* the valves, C the upper wheels, D the lower wheels, *c c* the cavities upon the surface of the wheels to receive the valves as they pass round thereon, and *d d* the bolts fixed across the surface of the wheels to fall in the interval between every two links to prevent the chain from sliding back.

The links of the chain, which are no other than two long plates of iron with a hole at each end, and fixed together by two bolts serving as axles are represented on a larger scale, as *a a*. The valves are two circular plates of iron with a piece of leather between them: these are also exhibited at large by *b b*.

Upon a trial of this machine with the old chain-pump aboard the Seaford frigate, it appears, in a report signed by rear-admiral Sir John Moore, 12 captains, and 11 lieutenants of his majesty's navy, that its effects, when compared with the latter, were as follow.

New Pump.			Old Pump.		
Number of Men.	Tons of Water.	Seconds of Time.	Number of Men.	Tons of Water.	Seconds of Time.
4	1	$43\frac{1}{2}$	7	1	76
2	1	55	4	1	81

The subscribers further certify, that the chain of the new pump was dropped into the well, and afterwards taken up and repaired and set at work again in two minutes and a half; and that they have seen the lower wheel of the said pump taken up to show how readily it might be cleared and refitted for action after being choaked with sand or gravel, which they are of opinion may be performed in four or five minutes.

*Air-*Pump. See Pneumatics, sect. ii.

One of the principal causes of imperfection in the common air-pump, arises from the difficulty of opening the valves at the bottom of the barrels: to avoid which inconvenience, Mr Smeaton has made use of seven holes instead of one; by which means, the valve is supported at proper distances, by a kind of grating, made by the solid parts between these holes: and to render the points of contact, between the bladder and grating, as few as possible, the holes are made hexagonal, and the partitions filed almost to an edge. He has also made the breadth of each hexagon $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch, so that its surface is more than nine times greater than common; upon which account, as well as by reason of the greater number of holes, the valve may be raised with a sixth part of the force commonly necessary.

Another imperfection is owing to the piston's not fitting exactly, when put down close to the bottom; which leaves a lodgment for air that is not got out of the barrel, and proves of bad effect by hindering the rarefaction from being carried on beyond a certain degree: for as the piston rises, the air will expand itself; but still pressing upon the valve, according to its density, it hinders the air within the receiver from coming out. Hence, were this vacancy to equal the 150th part of the capacity of the whole barrel, no air could ever come out of the receiver when once expanded 150 times; though the piston were constantly drawn to the top. This inconvenience Mr Smeaton has endeavoured to overcome, by shutting up the top of the barrel with a plate, having in the middle a collar of leathers, thro' which the cylindrical rod works, that carries the piston. By this means the external air is prevented from pressing upon the piston; but that the air which passes through the valve of the piston from below may be discharged out of the barrel, there is also a valve applied to the plate at the top, that opens upwards. The consequence of this construction is, that when the piston is put down to the bottom of the cylinder, the air in the lodgment under the piston will evacuate itself so much the more as the valve of the piston opens more easily, when pressed by the rarified air above it, than when pressed by the whole weight of the atmosphere. Hence, as the piston may be made to fit as nearly to the top of the cylinder as it can to the bottom, the air may be rarified as much above the piston as it could before have been in the receiver. It follows, therefore, that the air may now be rarified in the receiver, in the duplicate proportion of what it could be upon the common principle; every thing else being supposed perfect.

Mr Smeaton has also improved upon the gages commonly used for measuring the expansion of the air; which his gage will do with much certainty, to much less than the 1000th part of the whole. It consists of a bulb of glass, something in the shape of a pear, and sufficient

Fig. 4.
Machine for boring wooden PIPES.

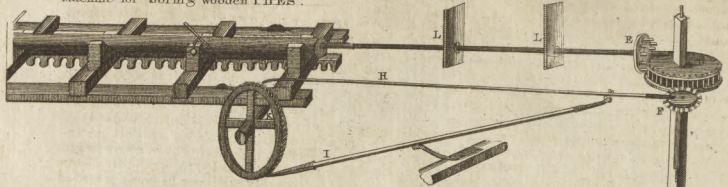
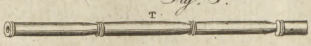


Fig. 5.



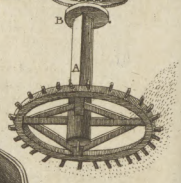


Fig. 1
Mr. Smeaton's
Air-PUMP.

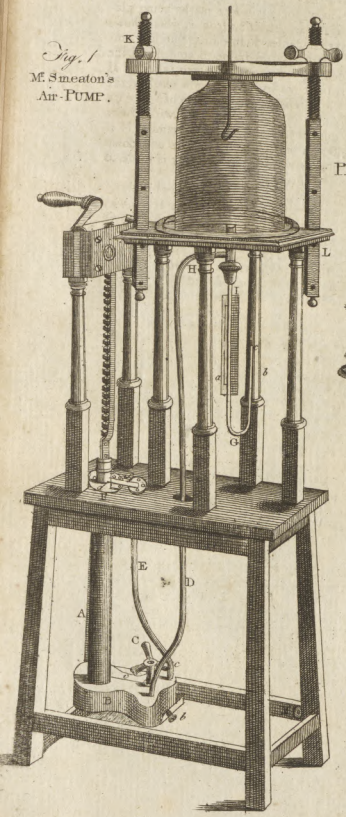


Fig. 3.
PLATALEA or Spoon Bill.

Fig. 2.
POE-BIRD.

ABell Sculp.

Pump. sufficient to hold about half a pound of quickſilver. It is open at one end, and at the other end is a tube hermetically cloſed at top. By the help of a nice pair of ſcales, he found what proportion of weight a column of mercury of a certain length, contained in the tube, bore to that which filled the whole veſſel; and, by theſe means, was enabled to mark diviſions upon the tube; anſwering to the $\frac{1}{1000}$th part of the whole capacity; which being about $\frac{1}{15}$th of an inch each, may, by eſtimation, be eaſily ſubdivided into leſſer parts. This gage, during the exhauſting of the receiver, is ſuſpended therein by a ſlip-wire; and when the pump is worked as much as ſhall be thought neceſſary, the gage is puſhed down, till the open end is immerged in a ciſtern of quickſilver placed underneath: the air being then let in, the quickſilver will be driven into the gage, till the air remaining in it becomes of the ſame denſity with the external air; and as the air always takes the higheſt place, the tube being uppermoſt, the expanſion will be determined by the number of diviſions occupied by the air at top.

He has alſo endeavoured to render the pneumatic apparatus more ſimple and commodious, by making the air-pump act as a condenſing engine at pleaſure, by only turning a cock: this renders the pump an univerſal engine for ſhowing any effect that ariſes from an alteration in the denſity or ſpring of the air; and with a little addition of apparatus, it ſhows the experiments of the air-fountain, wind-gun, &c. This is done in the following manner: The air above the piſton being forcibly driven out of the barrel at each ſtroke, and having no where to eſcape but by the valve at top; if this valve be connected with the receiver by means of a pipe, and at the ſame time the valve at the bottom, inſtead of communicating with the receiver, be made to communicate with the external air, the pump will then perform as a condenſer. The mechaniſm is thus ordered: There is a cock with three pipes placed round it, at equal diſtances. The key is ſo pierced, that any two may be made to communicate, while the other is left open to the external air. One of theſe pipes goes to the valve at the bottom of the barrel; another goes to the valve at the top; and a third goes to the receiver. Thus, when the pipe from the receiver, and that from the bottom of the barrel, are united, the pump exhauſts: but turn the cock round till the pipe from the receiver and that from the top of the barrel communicate, and it then condenſes. The third pipe in one caſe, diſcharges the air taken from the receiver into the barrel; and, in the other, lets it into the barrel, that it may be forced into the receiver.

But the following figures will ſerve to render the ſtructure and uſe of this excellent machine ſtill more plain. Fig. 1. is a perſpective view of the ſeveral parts of the pump together. A is the barrel; B the ciſtern, in which are included the cock, with ſeveral joints: theſe are covered with water, to keep them air-tight. A little cock to ſet the water out of the ciſtern, is marked *b*. C*cc* is the triangular handle of the key of the cock; which, by the marks on its arms, ſhows how it muſt be turned, that the pump may produce the effect deſired. DH is the pipe of communication between the cock and the receiver; E is the pipe that communicates between the cock and the valve, on the upper plate of the barrel. F is the upper plate of the pump, which contains the collar of leathers *d*; and V, the valve, which is covered by the piece *f*. GI is the ſiphon-gage, which ſcrews on and off, and is adapted to common purpoſes. It conſiſts of a glaſs tube hermetically ſealed at *c*, and furniſhed with quickſilver in each leg; which, before the pump begins to work, lies level in the line *ab*; the ſpace *bc* being filled with air of the common denſity. When the pump exhauſts, the air in *bc* expands, and the quickſilver in the oppoſite leg riſes till it become a counterbalance to it. Its riſe is ſhown upon the ſcale I *e*, by which the expanſion of the air in the receiver may be nearly judged of. When the pump condenſes, the quickſilver riſes in the other leg, and the degree may be nearly judged of by the contraction of the air in *bc*; marks being placed at $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ of the length of *bc* from *c*, which ſhows when the receiver condenſes double or treble its common quantity. KL is a ſcrew-frame to hold down the receiver in condenſing experiments, which takes off at pleaſure; and is ſufficient to hold down a receiver, the diameter of whoſe baſe is 7 inches, when charged with a treble atmoſphere: in which caſe it acts with a force of about 1200 pounds againſt the ſcrew-frame. M is a ſcrew that faſtens a bolt, which ſlides up and down in that leg, by means whereof the machine is made to ſtand faſt on uneven ground.

Plate CCXLIV.

Fig. 1. repreſents a perpendicular ſection of the barrel and cock, &c. of the pump; where AB is the barrel, CD the rod of the piſton, which paſſes through MN, the plate that cloſes the top of the barrel. K is the collar of leathers through which the piſton-rod paſſes. When the piſton is at the bottom of the cylinder, the upper part of K is covered by the cap at D, to keep out duſt, &c. L is the valve on the upper plate, which is covered by the piece OP, which is connected with the pipe QR, which makes the communication between the valve and cock. CE is the piſton, and EFF the piſton-valves. II are two little holes to let the air paſs from the piſton-valves into the upper part of the barrel. GG is the principal valve at the bottom of the cylinder. HH is a piece of metal, into which the valve GG is ſcrewed, and cloſes the bottom of the cylinder; out of which is alſo compoſed SS the cock, and KTT the duct from the cock to the bottom of the barrel. WW is the key of the cock, X the ſtem, and VV the handle.

Fig. 2. is an horizontal ſection of the cock, through the middle of the duct TT. AB repreſents the bigneſs of the circular plate that cloſes the bottom of the barrel, and CD the bigneſs of the inſide of the barrel. EFG is the body of the cock; the outward ſhell being pierced with three holes at equal diſtances, and correſponding to the three ducts HH, II, KK, whereof HH is the duct that goes to the bottom of the barrel; II, the duct that communicates with the top of the barrel; and KK, the duct that paſſes from the cock to the receiver. LMN is the key, or ſolid part of the cock, moveable round in the ſhell EFG. When the canal LM anſwers to the ducts HH and KK, the pump exhauſts, and the air is diſcharged by the perforation N. But the key LMN being turned till the canal LM anſwers to the ducts II and KK, the perforation N will then anſwer to the duct HH, and in this

this case the pump condenses. Lastly, when N answers to KK, the air is then left in or discharged from the receiver, as the circumstance requires.

Fig. 3. is the plan of the principal valve; where ABCD represents the bladder fastened in four places, and stretched over the seven holes IK, formed into an hexagonal grating, which Mr Smeaton chooses to call the *honeycomb*. EFGH, shows where the metal is a little protuberant, to hinder the piston from striking against the bladder.

Fig. 4. represents the new gage, called from its shape the *pear-gage*, which is open at A. BC is the graduated tube, which is hermetically closed at C, and is suspended by the piece of brass DE; which is hollowed into a cylinder, and clasps the tube.

In the 67th volume of the philosophical transactions we have an account of a number of experiments made by Mr Nairne with an air-pump constructed after the method recommended by Mr Smeaton; in which several unexpected and for some time unaccountable anomalies were observed. These consisted in certain differences between Mr Smeaton's pear-gage, and the common barometer gage. By the former, a degree of exhaustion would be indicated equal to 4000, 10,000, or perhaps 100,000; while the barometer gage indicated only an exhaustion of 200 or 300, or perhaps much less. The reason of this phenomenon was at last explained by Mr Cavendish in the following manner. "Water, whenever the pressure of the atmosphere on it is diminished to a certain degree, is immediately turned into vapour; and is as immediately turned back again into water, on restoring the pressure. This degree of pressure is different according to the heat of the water: when the heat is 72° of Fahrenheit's scale, it turns into vapour as soon as the pressure is no greater than three quarters of an inch of quicksilver, or one-fortieth part of the usual pressure of the atmosphere; but when the heat is only 41°, the pressure of the atmosphere must be reduced to that of a quarter of an inch before it turns into vapour. Hence it follows, that when the receiver is exhausted to the abovementioned degree, the moisture adhering to the various parts of the machine will turn into vapour, and supply the place of the air which is continually drawn away by the working of the pump; so that the fluid in the pear-gage, as well as that in the receiver, will consist in a good measure of vapour. Now, letting the air into the receiver, all the vapour in the pear-gage will be reduced to water, and only the real air will remain uncondensed. Consequently the pear-gage shows only how much real air is left in the receiver, and not how much the pressure or spring of the included fluid is diminished; whereas the common gages shew how much the pressure of the included fluid is diminished, and that equally whether it consist of air or vapour."

To put the truth of this theory to the test, Mr Nairne having wiped the receiver and every part of the machine as clean as possible from moisture, excluded the air by a cement put round the outside of the receiver. In these circumstances the pump being worked for 10 minutes, both the barometer and pear-gage indicated very nearly the same degree of exhaustion, viz. 600. He then began to inquire how far different substances, which might occasionally be put into the receiver, would produce this vapour; and the results of his experiments were as follow.

1. A piece of white sheep-skin, of about four inches diameter, soaked in oil and tallow about a year before, being put into the receiver, and the pump worked for 10 minutes, the barometer-gage indicated an exhaustion of about 300, and the pear-gage of 4000. 2. The piece of leather being taken out, and the pump worked as before, both gages stood at 600. 3. A cylindrical piece of boxwood, an inch in diameter, and three inches broad, being put into the receiver, the barometer gage indicated 300, and the pear-gage 16,000. 4. With two ounces of tallow, the barometer gage was 431, the pear-gage 600. 5. With two ounces of oil the numbers were 377 and 480. 6. With two ounces of alum they were 370 and 580. 7. But with a piece of leather, weighing 100 grains, in the same state in which it came from the leather-sellers, the numbers were 152 and 100,000. 8. With the same piece of leather soaked in the tallow and oil which had been already tried, the exhaustions were 432 and 800.

"From these experiments (say our author) it appears, that the elastic vapour which caused so great a difference in the testimony of the gages, arose principally from the leather, and but little from the tallow, oil, or alum: it even appears by the seventh experiment, that it came from the leather, and supplied the place of the exhausted air so fast, that I could not (at least in the 10 minutes) make the barometer gage indicate a degree of exhaustion of more than 159.

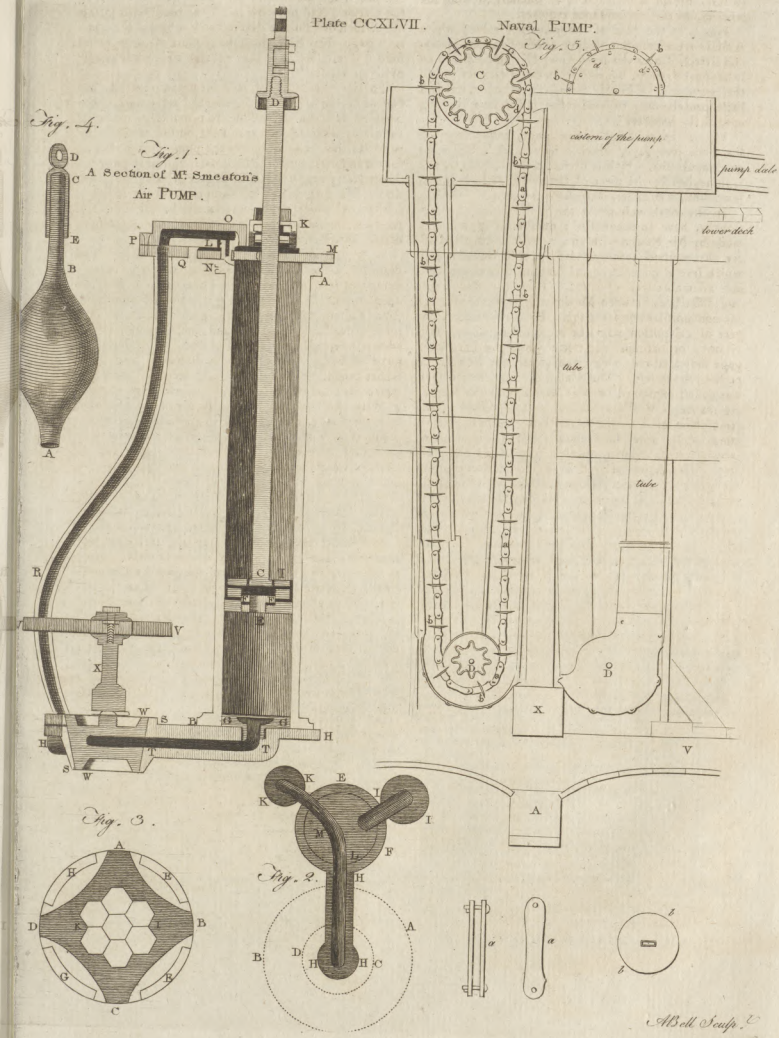
"To determine whether it was the moisture in the leather from which the vapour arose, I made the following experiments.

Substances put into the receiver.	Weight when put into the receiver.	Degrees of exhaustion according to		Variation in weight during the experiments.
		Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.	
Exp. 9. A piece of white leather, fresh from the leather-sellers, - - -	100 grains	134	100,000	lost 2 grains.
Exp. 10. The same piece of leather, dried by the fire till it would lose no more of its weight,	80 grains	268	280	gained 2 grs.
Exp. 11. The same piece of leather held in the steam of hot water till it had regained the 20 grains it had been deprived of, -	100 grains	147	100,000	lost 2 grains.

"In

Plate CCXLVII.

Naval PUMP.



ABell Sculp.

"In this last experiment, it was full three quarters of an hour before the leather regained the 20 grains of weight, although it was held very near the surface of the hot water.

"The same piece of leather used in the 8th experiment was put into a damp cellar, where it was left till the next day; it was then put again into the receiver, and the degree of exhaustion according to the barometer-gage was 300, and according to the pear-gage 3500.

"Being now perfectly satisfied that the variation in the testimony of the pear and barometer gages was occasioned by the moisture contained in the substances I had put into the receiver assuming the form of vapour, I determined next to try what would be the effect of the vapour which might arise from small quantities of different fluids, and from some other substances containing moisture of various kinds.

Substances put into the receiver.	Weight when put in.	Degree of exhausting according to Barom. gage.	Degree of exhausting according to Pear-gage.	Change in weight during the experiment.
Exp. 12. Water in a watch-glass, -	3 grains	148	24,000	lost $1\frac{1}{2}$ grain.
Exp. 13. Water in a glass cup, diameter two inches - - -	100 grains	89	8000	lost 2 grains.
Exp. 14. Spirit of wine in the same cup, -	100 grains	54	6000	lost 9 grains.
Exp. 15. Vitriolic acid, - -	100 grains	340	220	gained 1 gr.
Exp. 16. A piece of the inside of a China orange with some of the rind, - -	100 grains	160	100,000	lost $2\frac{1}{2}$ grs.
Exp. 17. A piece of the inside of an onion,	100 grains	160	100,000	lost $1\frac{1}{2}$ grain.
Exp. 18. A piece of tainted beef, -	100 grains	152	100,000	lost $2\frac{1}{2}$ grs.
Exp. 19. A piece of fresh beef, - -	100 grains	136	100,000	lost $2\frac{1}{2}$ grs.
Exp. 20. Spirit of turpentine, - -	100 grains	301	1800	lost 2 grains.
Exp. 21. Pearl-ash, - - -	2 ounces	118	5000	
Exp. 22. The same pearl-ash made very hot,		198	420	
Exp. 23. A lighted candle held in the receiver till it went out, - - -		297	1800	
Exp. 24. A piece of charcoal, -		129	1800	
Exp. 25. The receiver heated by holding several pieces of lighted charcoal in it, and then the above piece being thoroughly lighted was put into the receiver, and the pump worked,		650	600	
Exp. 26. Camphire, - -	100 grains	304	520	lost barely $\frac{1}{2}$ a grain.
Exp. 27. Sulphur made to burn on a piece of brass - - -		247	320	

"Observing by these experiments, that the small quantity of moisture which exhaled from the substances under the receiver prevented the pump from exhausting it to any very considerable degree, I began to suspect, that whenever wet leather had been used to connect the receiver with the plate, there must have risen to so great a quantity of vapour as to have prevented the degree of exhaustion from being near so great as in some of the foregoing instances. These suspicions induced me to make the following experiments.

	Degrees of exhaustion according to Barom. gage.	Degrees of exhaustion according to Pear-gage.
Exp. 28. The receiver was taken off, and after the cement was wiped clean from it, and every part made perfectly dry, it was put again on the pump plate, and a little oil only was poured round the outside edge,	nearly 600	full 600
Exp. 29. The receiver was taken off again; and instead of the oil it was set on a piece of leather, which had been soaked two days in water,	51	16,000
Exp. 30. The last experiment repeated with the same piece of leather,	51	1500
Exp. 31. The last experiment repeated again with the same piece of leather,	51	1000
Exp. 32. The receiver was taken off, and instead of the leather soaked in water, there was put on a piece of the same sort of leather soaked in a mixture of water and spirit of wine, such as Mr Smeaton used,	47	12,000
Exp. 33. The last experiment repeated with the same leather,	47	1150
Exp. 34. The last experiment repeated again with the same leather,	47	500

"The great difference in the testimony of the pear-

Pump. gage in these six last experiments appeared to me exceedingly astonishing, for the leathers seemed each of them to be as moist at last as at first.

" By these experiments I was convinced how effectually the use of leather soaked in water, or in water and spirit of wine, prevents the pump from exhausting to any considerable degree. I have made a number of experiments of the same kind as these; but have never been able to exhaust, under such circumstances, to a greater degree than between 50 and 60, when the heat of the room was about 57° by a thermometer of Fahrenheit's scale: but the following experiments will show how much some different degrees of heat affect the degree of exhaustion.

	Height of the Therm.	Degrees of exhaustion according to	
		Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.
Exp. 35. Receiver set on leather which had lain all night in water,	46	84	20,000
Exp. 36. Receiver set on a leather soaked all night in two parts water and one of spirit of wine, -	46	76	8000

" The pump having been put in a room of the heat of 57° of Fahrenheit's scale for seven hours together, with the leathers put in the same water and the same spirit of wine and water which they had been soaked in all night, and which had been used in the two last experiments, the following experiments were made.

	Height of the Therm.	Degree of exhaustion according to	
		Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.
Exp. 73. The receiver set on the leather soaked in water,	57	56	16,000
Exp. 38. Receiver placed on a leather soaked in water and spirit of wine, -	57	49	1200

" The following table will show the comparative excellency between the pump on Mr Smeaton's principle with which the chief of these experiments have been tried, and one of my common double-barreled table air-pumps under the same circumstances. The leather on the pistons of both was soaked in oil and tallow, and the receiver cemented down to each plate; the pumps were both of them fresh oiled.

	Pump on Mr Smeaton's principle. Degrees of exhaustion according to		Common pump. Degrees of exhaustion according to	
	Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.	Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.
Exp. 39. A piece of leather, weighing 100 grains, as it came from the leather-sellers, was put into the receiver of each pump, both pieces being cut from the same skin close by each other, -	152	100,000	108	12,000
Exp. 40. The same pieces of leather dried by the fire till they would lose no more of their weight,	506	520	160	165

" The following experiments will show the effect of water used in the barrels of pumps to make the pistons move air-tight in them.

" I took the same common air-pump used in the last experiment, and having taken off the leathers soaked in oil and tallow from the pistons of this pump, and wiped the barrels as clean as possible, I then put new leathers which had been soaked in water, and new bladder valves; the receiver was then cemented to the pump-plate as before.

	Degrees of exhaustion according to	
	Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.
Exp. 41. The pump was then worked as usual, -	37	38
Exp. 42. The last experiment repeated with another common pump, the leathers of the pistons of which were also soaked in water, - -	34	37

" From these experiments it evidently appears, that the air-pump of Otto Guericke, and those contrived by Mr Gratorix and Dr Hooke, and the improved one by Mr Pappin, both used by Mr Boyle, also Hauksbee's, S'Gravesande's, Muschenbrook's, and those of all who have used water in the barrels of their pumps, could never have exhausted to more than between 40 and 50, if the heat of the place was about 57: and although Mr Smeaton, with his pump, where no water was in the barrel, but where leather soaked in a mixture of water and spirit of wine was used to set the receiver on the pump-plate, may have exhausted all

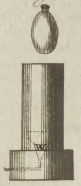
Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

Fig. 4.

Fig. 5.



2. Fig. 9.

Fig. 10.

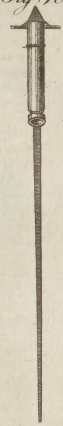


Fig. 6.

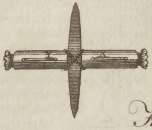


Fig. 8.

Fig. 7.

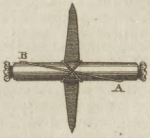


Fig. 9.

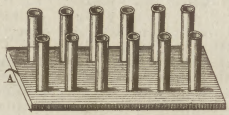


Fig. 11.

Fig. 12.

Fig. 13.

Fig. 14.

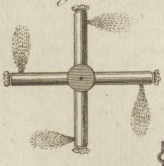


Fig. 18.

Fig. 15.

Fig. 16.

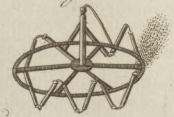


Fig. 17.

A Bell Sculp.

all but a thousandth or even a ten-thousandth part of the common air, according to the testimony of his pear-gage; yet so much vapour must have arisen from the wet leather, that the contents of the receiver could never be less than a 70th or 80th part of the density of the atmosphere. Nevertheless, it does not seem that any deficiency in the construction of Mr Smeaton's pump was the cause of his not being able to exhaust beyond the low degrees of 70 or 80. Had he been aware of the bad effects of setting the receiver upon leather soaked in water and spirit of wine, and had he made use of the precaution to free all parts of his pump as much as possible from moisture, I make not the least doubt but the air-pump which he executed himself would have exhausted to as great a degree, as that pump has been seen to have done with which the chief of these experiments were made.

"Having read the principal part of this paper to Mr Smeaton, and shown him some of the experiments; one, in particular, where the pear-gage, as he observed himself, was filled to no less than 100,000th part of the whole content; he remarked from memory, that he had in several trials exceeded 1000 times, and once, as he remembered, near or about 10,000 times; but as he never could account how this happened, which appeared to him perfectly accidental, and therefore could not depend upon doing it at pleasure, he contented himself with putting down 1000 times, as being what (under the circumstances mentioned in his papers) he had a tolerable certainty of.

"I must here again observe, that if we only wish to know the quantity of permanent air remaining in the receiver after it is as much exhausted as possible, it seems that it is by Mr Smeaton's gage only that we can know it. Again, when, by the assistance of his gage and the barometer-gage together, we have discovered that there is a vapour which arises and occupies the place of the permanent air which is exhausted, it seems that it is by the means of his gage only that we can discover what part of the remaining contents of the receiver consists of this vapour, and what part of permanent air."

In some other experiments the case was surprisingly reversed; for the pear-gage indicated a less degree of exhaustion than the barometer. This happened particularly when the vitriolic acid was put into the receiver. When 100 grains of this acid were put into the receiver in a glass cup of two inches diameter, the acid gained one grain in weight, the barometer gage indicated an exhaustion of 602, and the pear-gage only of 380. The same experiment being repeated in the same cup, and with the acid which had already gained one grain, the barometer indicated an exhaustion of 502, the pear-gage only of 350, and the acid gained half a grain more. On a third trial with the same materials, the acid gained a quarter of a grain, the barometer indicated an exhaustion of 502, and the pear-gage of 340. Neither was this circumstance entirely removed by taking away the vitriolic acid; for even when this was done, and the receiver and plate of the pump wiped as clean as possible, the barometer gage indicated an exhaustion of 502, and the pear-gage only of 370.

On this experiment Mr Nairne has the following remarks. "I know of no circumstance attending this experiment that differed from those in which my former experiments were made when the gages agreed so nearly, unless it was that of the weather: I recollect that it was then very damp, and now it had been very dry for some time. How this circumstance could make so great an alteration in the result of these experiments, I cannot pretend to say." The true reason, however, seems to be this. Air, though it will expand itself to a great degree, yet has a certain limit to its expansion; that is, if we suppose any quantity of air to be included in a vessel, and the capacity of that vessel to be increased indefinitely, we must at last arrive at a certain bulk, when the gravity of the aerial particles would overcome their repulsive power, and the air would expand no farther though the vessel should be enlarged ever so much. If this is the case, it must follow, that when we come near to this limit, the resistance of the air will be less in proportion than at a considerable distance from it. Thus, let us suppose the resistance of air in its natural state to be 100, and the utmost limit of expansion also to be 100: we cannot imagine, that, at the expansion of 100, the resistance would be 1; for air can only resist by the difference between the gravity and repulsive power of its particles. As, therefore, at the expansion of 100 the gravitating and repulsive powers of the aerial particles exactly balance each other, the resistance could be nothing. In like manner, at the expansion 98, the difference between the powers above-mentioned being only $\frac{1}{50}$, the resistance could be no more than 1.02, instead of 2 which it ought to be if the air's expansion was unlimited. By the same method we shall find, that when the expansion is only 10, the resistance is 90; but this is greater than the other proportion, for according to it the resistance should only have been 88. Hence we may see, that in great degrees of exhaustion, when the spring of the air is much weakened, the instrument which measures the resistance in the expanded state must always indicate a greater degree of exhaustion, or a smaller degree of resistance, than that which measures the resistance of the small quantity of air which remains in the receiver after it has been again condensed.

Hence we see, that, in all cases where the air is very pure, the pear-gage will indicate a smaller degree of exhaustion than the barometer; but where there is a quantity of water mixed with it, it may show an equal, or much greater degree of exhaustion than the other. This seems to have been the reason of the difference between Mr Nairne's experiments when the air was moist, and when it was dry. For air always contains some quantity of water, part of which is deposited on the receiver and plate of the pump when the elasticity of the air begins to be weakened. When this water is again changed into vapour in consequence of a greater degree of exhaustion, it affects the barometer but not the pear-gage, and thus the degrees of exhaustion indicated by both may be equal, as was the case with Mr Nairne's experiment in damp weather, when the quantity of water in the air was considerable; but in dry weather, when the quantity of water was less, or rather when the air was less readily disposed to part with it, the pear-gage indicated a smaller degree of exhaustion than the barometer. The same thing necessarily happened when vi-

triolic

triolic acid was put into the receiver; for thus the air was deprived of that quantity of water which it was moſt readily diſpoſed to part with, and thus the difference became very remarkable.

To the ſame cauſe, viz. the extrication of ſome quantity of elaſtic vapour, are we to aſcribe that other phenomenon likewiſe taken notice of by Mr Nairne, viz. that when he had worked the pump for ſome minutes, it would indicate a pretty perfect degree of exhauſtion, which would afterwards become conſiderably leſs by working it farther. But for a full account of the generation of vapours in the vacuum of an air-pump, ſee the articles EVAPORATION, VACUUM, and VAPOUR.

PUN, or PUNN, a conceit ariſing from the uſe of two words that agree in ſound but differ in ſenſe. Ariſtotle deſcribes two or three kinds of puns among the beauties of good writing, and produces inſtances of them out of ſome of the greateſt authors in the Greek tongue. Cicero has ſprinkled ſeveral of his works with puns; and, in that work where he lays down the rules of Oratory, quotes abundance of ſayings, which he calls *pieces of wit*, that upon examination prove perfect puns.

PUNCH, an inſtrument of iron or ſteel, uſed in ſeveral arts, for the piercing or ſtamping holes in plates of metal, &c. being ſo contrived as not only to perforate, but to cut out and take away the piece. The punch is a principal inſtrument of the metal-button makers, ſhoe-makers, &c.

PUNCH, is alſo a name for a ſort of compound drink, much uſed here, and in many parts abroad, particularly in Jamaica and ſeveral other parts of the Weſt Indies.

Its baſis is ſpring-water; which being rendered cooler, briſker, and more acid, with lemon or lime juice, and ſweetened again to the palate with fine ſugar, makes what they call *ſherbet*; to which a proper quantity of ſpirituous liquor, as brandy, rum, or arrack, being added, the liquor commences punch.

PUNCHEON, PUNCHIN, or *Punchion*, a little block or piece of ſteel, on one end whereof is ſome figure, letter, or mark, engraven either in creux or relievo, impreſſions whereof are taken on metal, or ſome other matter, by ſtriking it with a hammer on the end not engraved. There are various kinds of theſe puncheons uſed in the mechanical arts; ſuch, for inſtance, are thoſe of the goldſmiths, cutlers, pewterers, &c.

The puncheon, in coining, is a piece of iron ſteeled, whereon the engraver has cut in relievo the ſeveral figures, arms, effigy, inſcription, &c. that there are to be in the matrices, wherewith the ſpecies are to be marked. Minters diſtinguiſh three kinds of puncheons, according to the three kinds of matrices to be made; that of the effigy, that of the croſs or arms, and that of the legend or inſcription. The firſt inculdes the whole portrait in relievo: the ſecond are ſmall, each only containing a piece of the croſs or arms; for inſtance, a fleur-de-lis, an harp, a coronet, &c. by the aſſemblage of all which the entire matrice is formed. The puncheons of the legend only contain each one letter, and ſerve equally for the legend on the effigy ſide and the croſs ſide. See the article COINING.

For the puncheons uſed in ſtamping the matrices wherein the types of printing characters are caſt, ſee *Letter*-FOUNDERY.

PUNCHEON is alſo uſed for ſeveral iron-tools, of various ſizes and figures, uſed by the engravers in creux on metals. Seal-gravers particularly uſe a great number for the ſeveral pieces of arms, &c. to be engraven, and many ſtamp the whole ſeal from a ſingle puncheon,

PUNCHEON, is alſo a common name for all thoſe iron inſtruments uſed by ſtone-cutters, ſculptors, blackſmiths, &c. for the cutting, incidiog, or piercing their ſeveral matters.

Thoſe of ſculptors and ſtatuaries ſerve for the repairing of ſtatues when taken out of the moulds. The lockſmiths uſe the greateſt variety of puncheons; ſome for piercing hot, others for piercing cold; ſome flat, ſome ſquare, ſome rounds, others oval, each to pierce holes of its reſpective figure in the ſeveral parts of locks.

PUNCHEON, in carpentry, is a piece of timber placed upright between two poſts, whoſe bearing is too great, ſerving, together with them, to ſuſtain ſome large weights.

This term is alſo uſed for a piece of timber raiſed upright, under the ridge of a building, wherein the little forces, &c. are jointed.

PUNCTUATION, in grammar, the art of pointing, or of dividing a diſcourſe into periods, by points expreſſing the pauſes to be made thereof.

The points uſed herein are four, viz. the period, colon, ſemi-colon, and comma. See the particular uſe of each under its proper article, COMMA, COLON, PERIOD, and SEMI-COLON.

In the general, we ſhall only here obſerve, that the comma is to diſtinguiſh nouns from nouns, verbs from verbs, and ſuch other parts of a period as are not neceſſarily joined together.—The ſemi-colon ſerves to ſuſpend and ſuſtain the period when too long: —the colon, to add ſome new, ſupernumerary reaſon, or conſequence, to what is already ſaid:—and the period, to cloſe the ſenſe and conſtruction, and releaſe the voice.

Punctuation is a modern art. The ancients were entirely unacquainted with the uſe of our commas, colons, &c. and wrote not only without any diſtinction of members and periods, but alſo without diſtinction of words: which cuſtom, Lipſius obſerves, continued till the hundred and fourth olympiad; during which time the ſenſe alone divided the diſcourſe.

What within our own knowledge at this day puts this beyond diſpute, is the Alexandrian manuſcript, which is at preſent in the king's library at the Britiſh Muſæum. Whoever examines this, will find, that the whole is written *continuo ductu*, without diſtinction of words, or ſentences. How the ancients read their works written in this manner, is not eaſy to conceive.

After the practice of joining words together ceaſed, notes of diſtinction were placed at the end of every word. In all the editions of the *Faſti Capitolini* theſe points occur. The ſame are to be ſeen on the *Columna Roſtrata*. For want of theſe, we find ſuch confuſion in the *Chronicon Marmoreum*, and the covenant between the Smyrnæans and Magneſians, which are both now at Oxford. Salmaſius's edition of *Dedicatio ſtatuæ*

Punctuation.

statuæ rigillæ Herodis, the like confusion occurs, where we find ΔΕΥΡΙΤΕ and Δεῦρο ἴτι.

Of these marks of distinction, the Walcote inscription found near Bath may serve for a specimen.

IVLIUSv VITALISv FABRI
CESISv LEGv XXv Vv V
STIPENDIORUMv &c.

After every word here, except at the end of a line, we see this mark v. There is an inscription in Mountfaucon, which has a capital letter laid in an horizontal position, by way of interstitial mark, which makes one apt to think that this way of pointing was sometimes according to the fancy of the graver.

P. FERRARIVS HERMES
CAECINIAE ⊢ DIGNAE
CONIVGI ⊢ KARRISSIMAE
NVMERIAE ⊢ &c.

Here we observe after the words a T laid horizontally, but not after each word, which proves this to be of a much later age than the former.

Having now considered that the present usage of stops was unknown to the ancients, we proceed to assign the time in which this useful improvement of language began.

As it appears not to have taken place while manuscripts and monumental inscriptions were the only known methods to convey knowledge, we must conclude that it was introduced with the art of printing. The 14th century, to which we are indebted for this mystery, did not, however, bestow those appendages we call *stops*: whoever will be at the pains to examine the first printed books, will discover no stops of any kind; but arbitrary marks here and there, according to the humour of the printer. In the 15th century, we observe their first appearance. We find, from the books of this age, they were not all produced at the same time; those we meet with there in use, being only the comma, the parenthesis, the interrogation, and the full point. To prove this, we need but look into Bale's Acts of English Votaries, black-letter, printed 1550. Indeed, in the dedication of this book, which is to Edward VI. we discover a colon: but, as this is the only one of the kind throughout the work, it is plain this stop was not established at this time, and so warily put in by the printer; or if it was, that it was not in common use. Thirty years after this time, in that sensible and judicious performance of Sir Thomas Elyot, entitled *The Governour*, imprinted 1580, we see the colon as frequently introduced as any other stop; but the semi-colon and the admiration were still wanting, neither of these being visible in this book. In Hackluyt's voyages, printed 1599, we see the first instance of a semi-colon: and, as if the editors did not fully apprehend the propriety of its general admission, it is but sparingly introduced. The admiration was the last stop that was invented; and seems to have been added to the rest in a period not so far distant from our own time.

Thus we see, that these notes of distinction came into use, as learning was gradually advanced and improved, one invention indeed; but enlarged by several additions.

PUNCTUM SALIENS, in anatomy, the first rudiments of the heart in the formation of the fœtus, where a throbbing motion is perceived. This is said to be easily observed with a microscope in a brood-egg, wherein, after conception, we see a little speck or cloud, in the middle whereof is a spot that appears to beat or leap a considerable time before the fœtus is formed for hatching. See the article FOETUS.

Punctum ‖ Purcell.

PUNCTURE, in surgery, any wound made by a sharp-pointed instrument.

PUNCTURE, in farriery. See there, § xl. 3.

PUNICA, the POMEGRANATE TREE; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the icosandria class of plants.

Species. 1. The granatum, or common pomegranate, rises with a tree stem branching numerously all the way from the bottom, growing 18 or 20 feet high; with spear-shaped, narrow opposite leaves; and the branches terminated by most beautiful large red flowers, succeeded by large roundish fruit, as big as an orange, having a hard rind filled with soft pulp and numerous seeds. There is a variety with double flowers, remarkably beautiful; and one with striped flowers. 2. The nana, or dwarf American pomegranate, rises with a shrubby stem branching four or five feet high, with narrow short leaves and small red flowers, succeeded by small fruit; begins flowering in June, and continues till October.

Culture. Both these species are propagated by layers: the young branches are to be chosen for this purpose, and autumn is the proper time for laying them. Those of the common sort may be trained either as half or full standards or as dwarfs. But those designed for walls must be managed, as directed for peaches.

Uses. The dried flowers of the double-flowered pomegranate are possessed of an astringent quality; for which reason they are recommended in diarrhœas, dysenteries, &c. where astringent medicines are proper. The rind of the fruit is also a strong astringent, and as such is occasionally made use of.

PUNISHMENT, in law, the penalty which a person incurs on the commission of a crime. See the article CRIME *and Punishment*.

PUPIL, in the civil law, a boy or girl not yet arrived at the age of puberty; *i. e.* the boy under 14 years, the girl under 12.

PUPIL is also used in universities, &c. for a youth under the education or discipline of any person.

PUPIL, in anatomy, a little aperture in the middle of the uvea and iris of the eye, thro' which the rays of light pass to the crystalline, in order to be painted on the retina, and cause vision. See ANAT. n° 406, m.

PURCELL (Henry), a justly celebrated master of music, began early to distinguish himself. As his genius was original, it wanted but little forming, and he rose to the height of his profession with more ease than others pass through their rudiments. He was made organist to Westminster abbey in the latter end of the reign of Charles II. In that of William, he set several songs for Dryden's *Amphytrion*, and his *King Arthur*, which were received with just applause. His notes in his operas were admirably adapted to his words, and so echoed to the sense, that the sounds alone seemed capable of exciting those passions which they never failed to do in conjunction. His music was very different from the Italian. It was entirely English, and perfectly masculine. His principal

pal works have been publiſhed under the title of *Orpheus Britannicus*. He died in 1695, in the 37th year of his age; and was interred in Weſtminſter abbey, where a monument is erected to his memory.

PURCHAS (Samuel), an Engliſh divine, famous for compiling a valuable collection of voyages, was born in 1577, at Thackſted in Eſſex. After ſtudying at Cambridge, he obtained the vicarage of Eaſtwood in his native country; but leaving that cure to his brother, he ſettled in London, in order to carry on the great work in which he was engaged. He publiſhed the firſt volume in folio in 1613, and the four laſt, 12 years after, under the title of *Purchas his Pilgrimage, or Relations of the world, and the Religions obſerved in all ages and places*. Mean while he was collated to the rectory of St Martin's, Ludgate, in London, and made chaplain to Dr Abbot, archbiſhop of Canterbury. His *Pilgrimage*, and the learned Hackluyt's *Voyages*, led the way to all the other collections of that kind, and have been juſtly valued and eſteemed. But unhappily by his publiſhing, he involved himſelf in debt: however, he did not die in priſon, as ſome have aſſerted; but at his own houſe, about the year 1628.

PURCHASE, in law, the buying or acquiring of lands, &c. with money, by deed or agreement, and not by deſcent or right of inheritance.

Purchase, in the ſea-language, is the ſame as *draw in*: thus, when they ſay, the capſtan purchaſes a-pace, they only mean, it draws in the cable a-pace.

PURE, ſomething free from any admixture of foreign or heterogeneous matters.

PURFLEW, a term in heraldry, expreſſing ermins, peans, or any of the furs, when they compoſe a bordure round a coat of arms: thus they ſay, he beareth gules a bordure, purflew, vairy; meaning, that the bordure is vairy.

PURGATION, the art of purging, ſcouring, or purifying a thing, by ſeparating, or carrying off any impurities found therein. Thus,

In pharmacy, purgation is the cleanſing of a medicine by retrenching its ſuperfluities. In chemiſtry, it is uſed for the ſeveral preparations of metals and minerals intended to clear them of their impurities, more uſually called *purification* and *refining*. See Refining.

In medicine, purgation is an excretory motion ariſing from a quick and orderly contraction of the fleſhy fibres of the ſtomach and inteſtines, whereby the chyle, corrupted humours, and excrements lodged therein, are protruded further and further, and at length quite excluded the body by ſtool. See Cathartics.

For the menſtrual purgation of women, ſee Menses.

Purgation, in law, ſignifies the clearing a perſon's ſelf of a crime of which he is ſuſpected and accuſed before a judge. This purgation is either canonical or vulgar. Canonical purgation is preſcribed by the canon-law, and the form thereof in the ſpiritual court is uſually thus: The perſon ſuſpected takes his oath that he is innocent of the crime charged againſt him; and at the ſame time brings ſome of his neighbours to make oath that they believe he ſwears truly. Vulgar purgation was anciently by fire or water, or elſe by combat, and was practiſed here till aboliſhed by our canons. See Battel *in law*, Ordeal, &c.

PURGATIVE or Purging *Medicines*; medicaments which evacuate the impurities of the body by ſtool, called alſo *cathartics*.

PURGATORY, a place in which the juſt, who depart out of this life, are ſuppoſed to expiate certain offences which do not merit eternal damnation.

Broughton has endeavoured to prove, that this notion has been held by Pagans, Jews, and Mahometans, as well as by Chriſtians.

The doctrine of purgatory is a very lucrative article to the clergy of the Romiſh church, who are very liberally paid for maſſes and prayers for the ſouls of the deceaſed. We are told by ſome of their doctors, that purgatory is a ſubterraneous place, ſituated over the hell of the damned, where ſuch ſouls as have not yet made ſatisfaction to Divine juſtice for their ſins, are purged by fire, after a wonderful and incomprehenſible manner: and here they are purified from thoſe dregs which hinder them from entering into their eternal country, as the catechiſm of the council of Trent expreſſes it.

PURIFICATION, in matters of religion, a ceremony which conſiſts in cleanſing any thing from a ſuppoſed pollution or defilement.

The Pagans, before they ſacrificed, uſually bathed or waſhed themſelves in water; and they were particularly careful to waſh their hands, becauſe with theſe they were to touch the victims conſecrated to the gods. It was alſo cuſtomary to waſh the veſſel with which they made their libations. The Mahometans uſe purifications as previous to the duty of prayer; theſe alſo are of two kinds, either bathing, or only waſhing the face, hands, and feet. The firſt is required only in extraordinary caſes, as after having lain with a woman, touched a dead body, &c. But leſt ſo neceſſary a preparation for their devotions ſhould be omitted, either where water cannot be had, or when it may be of prejudice to a perſon's health, they are allowed in ſuch caſes to make uſe of fine ſand, or duſt inſtead of it; and then they perform this duty by clapping their open hands on the ſand, and paſſing them over the parts, in the ſame manner as if they were dipped in water.

There were alſo many legal purifications among the Hebrews. When a woman was brought to bed of a male child, ſhe was eſteemed impure for 40 days; and when of a female, for 60: at the end of which time ſhe carried a lamb to the door of the temple to be offered for a burnt-offering, and a young pigeon or turtle for a ſin-offering; and by this ceremony ſhe was cleanſed or purified.

PURIM, or *The* Feast *of* Lots, a ſolemn feſtival of the Jews, inſtituted in memory of the deliverance they received, by means of Mordecai and Eſther, from Haman's wicked attempt to deſtroy them.

PURITAN, a name formerly given in deriſion to the diſſenters from the church of England, on account of their profeſſing to follow the pure word of God, in oppoſition to all traditions and human conſtitutions.

PURLINS, in building, thoſe pieces of timber that lie acroſs the rafters on the inſide, to keep them from ſinking in the middle of their length.

By the act of parliament for rebuilding of London, it is provided, that all purlins from 15 feet 6 inches, to 18 feet 6 inches long, be in their ſquare 9 inches

and

Purlue || Pus.

and 8 inches; and all in length from 18 feet 6 inches, to 21 feet 6 inches, be in their square 12 inches and 9 inches.

PURLIUE, signifies all that ground near any forest, which being made forest by king Henry II. Richard I. and king John, was afterwards by perambulations and grants of Henry III. severed again from the same, and made purlieu; that is to say, pure and free from the laws of the forest.—The word is derived from the French *pur* "pure," and *lieu* "place."

PURITY, the freedom of any thing from foreign admixture.

PURITY *of Style*. See ORATORY, n° 41.

PURPLE, a colour composed of a mixture of red and blue. See COLOUR-*Making*, n° 28. and DYEING, n° 12.

PURPURA, in natural history. See MUREX.

PURPURE, in heraldry. The colour so called, which signifies *purple*, is in engraving represented by diagonal lines from the left to the right. See HERALDRY, p. 3584, and Plate CXLIV. fig. ii. n° 6.

It may serve to denote an administrator of justice, a lawgiver, or a governor equal to a sovereign; and, according to G. Leigh, if it is compounded with

Or,	signifies	Riches.
Arg.		Quietness.
Gul.		Politics.
Az.		Fidelity.
Ver.		Cruelty.
Sab.		Sadness.

PURSER, an officer aboard a man of war, who receives her victuals from the victualler, sees that it be well stowed, and keeps an account of what he every day delivers to the steward. He also keeps a list of the ship's company, and sets down exactly the day of each man's admission, in order to regulate the quantity of provisions to be delivered out, and that the paymaster or treasurer of the navy may issue out the deburfements, and pay off the men, according to his book.

PURSLAIN, in botany. See PORTULACA.

PURVIEW, a term used by some lawyers for the body of an act of parliament, or that part which begins with "Be it enacted, &c." as contradistinguished from the preamble.

PURULENT, in medicine, something mixed with, or partaking of, pus or matter.

PUS, in medicine, a white or yellowish matter, designed by nature for the healing and cementing of wounds and sores.

The origin and formation of pus is as much unknown as that of any other animal fluid. In an inaugural dissertation published at Edinburgh by Dr Hendy, the author supposes pus to be a secreted fluid. It has been thought by many, that pus is either a sediment from serum when beginning to putrify, or that it is the same fluid inspissated by the heat of the body. But both these opinions are refuted by some experiments of our author, which show, that pus is much less inclined to putrefaction than serum, and the putrefaction of both is hastened by an addition of some of the red part of the blood. Some other experiments were made in order to try whether pus could be artificially produced. A thin piece of lamb's flesh, applied to an ulcer discharging laudable pus, and covered over with lead, did not assume the appearance of pus, but became fetid, and was much lessened. Serum, in its inflammatory and in its ordinary state, and lymph in different states, were applied to the same ulcer, which still discharged good pus: but none of these were converted into pus; on the contrary, they became very putrid.

Pustule || Putrefaction.

In opposition to these arguments of our author, however, it may be alleged, that if pus was a secreted fluid, the vessels by which it was secreted would certainly be visible: but no such thing has ever been observed; on the contrary, it is certain that pus cannot be formed unless the air is excluded from the wound. These disputes, however, are of no great consequence: but in some cases it becomes a matter of real importance to distinguish pus from mucus; as thus we may be enabled to know whether a cough is consumptive, or merely catarrhous. A premium was proposed for this some years ago at Edinburgh, and was gained by Mr Charles Darwin, who showed by a number of experiments, that pus may be distinguished from mucus by means of the vitriolic acid and caustic fixed alkali. See the article MUCUS.

PUSTULE, a pimple, or small eruption on the skin full of pus; such as the eruptions of the small-pox.

PUTAMINEÆ, (from *putamen*, "a shell,") the name of the 25th order of Linnæus's fragments of a natural method; consisting of a few genera of plants allied in habit, whose fleshy feed-vessels or fruit is frequently covered with a hard woody shell. See BOTANY, p. 1309.

PUTEOLI, (Livy, Strabo:) a town of Campania; so called either from its wells, there being many hot and cold springs thereabouts; or from its stench, *putor*, caused by sulphureous exhalations, (Varro, Strabo): Anciently called *Dicæarchia*, from its equal and just government.—The port of Cumæ, a place of great trade, probably built by the Cumeans; situated on the braw of a hill. (*id.*) A Roman colony, (Livy); surnamed *Augusta*, under Nero, (Frontinus). *Puteolani*, the people, (Cicero). Now *Pozzuolo*, nine miles to the west of Naples. E. Long. 14. 40. N. Lat. 41. 15.

PUTORIUS, in zoology. See MUSTELA.

PUTREFACTION, one of the natural processes, directly opposite to the life of animals and vegetables, by which organized bodies are dissolved, and reduced to what may be called their *original elements*.

Putrefaction differs from chemical solution; because, in the latter, the dissolved bodies are kept in their state of solution by being combined with a certain agent from which they cannot easily be separated; but in putrefaction, the agent which dissolves the body appears not to combine with it in any manner of way, but merely to separate the parts from each other.—It differs also from the resolution of bodies by distillation with violent fire; because, in distillation new and permanent compounds are formed, but by putrefaction every thing seems to be resolved into substances much more simple and indestructible than those which are the result of any chemical process.

The bodies most liable to putrefaction are those of animals and vegetables, especially when full of juices.

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Stones, though by the action of the weather they will moulder into dust, yet seem not to be subject to any thing like a real putrefaction, as they are not resolved into any other substance than sand, or small dust, which still preserves its lapideous nature. In like manner, vegetables of any kind, when deprived of their juices by drying, may be preserved for many ages without being subjected to any thing like a putrefactive process. The same holds good with respect to animals, the parts of which, by simple drying, may be preserved in a sound state for a much longer time than they could be without the previous exhalation of their juices.

Putrefaction is generally allowed to be a kind of fermentation, or rather to be the last stage of that process; which, beginning with the vinous fermentation, goes on through the acetous, to the stage of putridity, where it stops. It is argued, however, and seemingly not without a great deal of reason, that if putrefaction is a fermentation, it must necessarily be a kind distinct from either the vinous or acetous; since we frequently observe that it takes place where neither the vinous nor the acetous stages have gone before; of consequence it must be, in some cases at least, entirely independent of and unconnected with them. In several other respects it differs so much from these processes, that it seems in some degree doubtful whether it can with propriety be called a *fermentation* or not. Both the vinous and acetous fermentations are attended with a considerable degree of heat: but in the putrefaction of animal matters especially, the heat is for the most part so small, that we cannot be certain whether there is any degree of it or not produced by the process. In cases, indeed, where the quantity of corrupting animal matter is very great, some heat may be perceived; and accordingly Dr Monro tells us, that he was sensible of heat on thrusting his hand into the flesh of a dead and corrupting whale. But the most remarkable difference between the putrefactive fermentation and that of the vinous and acetous kinds is, that the end of both these processes is to produce a new and permanent compound; but that of the putrefactive process is not to produce any new form, but to destroy, and resolve one which already exists into the original principles from which all things seem to proceed. Thus, the vinous fermentation produces ardent spirits; the acetous, vinegar: but putrefaction produces nothing but earth, and some effluvia, which, tho' most disagreeable and even poisonous to the human body, yet, being imbibed by the earth and vegetable creation, give life to a new race of beings. It is commonly supposed, indeed, that volatile alkali is a production of the putrefactive process: but this seems liable to dispute. The vapour of pure volatile alkali is not hurtful to the human frame, but that of putrefying substances is exceedingly so; and, excepting in the case of urine, the generation of volatile alkali in putrid substances is very equivocal. This substance, which produces more alkali than any other, is much less offensive by its putrid fetor than others; and all animal substances produce a volatile alkali on being exposed to the action of fire, of quicklime, or of alkaline salts. In these cases the volatile alkali is not supposed to be produced by the quicklime or fixed salt, but only to be extricated from a kind of ammoniacal salt pre-existing in the animal matters; the probability is the same in the other case, *viz.* that volatile alkali is not produced, but only extricated from these substances by putrefaction.

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The only thing in which the putrefactive fermentation agrees with the other kinds is, that in all the three there is an extrication of fixed air. In the putrefactive process, it has been thought that this escape of the fixed air deprives the body of its cohesion; and Dr Macbride has wrote a treatise in which he endeavours to prove, that fixed air is the very power of cohesion itself, and that all bodies when deprived of their fixed air entirely lose their cohesion. According to this, the cause of putrefaction is the escape of fixed air: but it is impossible to give a reason why fixed air, after having so long remained in a body, and preserved its cohesion, should of a sudden begin to fly off without being acted upon by something else. To a similar objection the hypothesis of those is liable, who suppose putrefaction to be occasioned by the escape of phlogiston; for phlogiston will not fly off without something to carry it off, any more than fixed air. Animalcules have been thought to be the cause of putrefaction: but if animal substance are covered so as to exclude the access of flies or other insects, no such animalcules are to be discovered tho' putrefaction has taken place; and indeed it requires little proof to convince us, that animals are produced in corrupted bodies only because such substances prove a proper nidus for the eggs of the parent insects.

To understand the true cause of putrefaction, we must take notice of the circumstances in which the process goes on most rapidly. These are, heat, a little moisture, and confined air. Extreme cold prevents putrefaction, as well as perfect dryness; and a free circulation of air carries off the putrid effluvia, a stagnation of which seems to be necessary for carrying on the process. It seems also to hold pretty generally, that putrefying bodies swell and become specifically lighter; for which reason the carcases of dead animals, after having sunk in water, rise to the top and float. This last phenomenon, as has been observed under the article Blood, n° 29. shows that these bodies have received a certain quantity of an elastic principle from the air, which thus swells them up to a such a size. It may be said indeed, that this increase of size in putrefying bodies is owing only to the extrication of air within themselves: but this amounts to the same thing; for the air which exists internally in the body of any animal, is entirely divested of elasticity while it remains there, and only shows its elastic properties upon being extricated. The elastic principle which combines with the air fixed in the animal substance, therefore, must come from the external atmosphere; and consequently the agent in putrefaction must be the elastic principle of the atmosphere itself, probably the same with elementary fire.

But, granting this to be true, it is difficult to show why putrefaction should not take place in a living body as well as in a dead one; seeing the one is as much exposed to the action of the air as the other. This difficulty, however, is not peculiar to the present hypothesis; but will equally occur whatever we may suppose the cause of putrefaction to be. The difficulty seems to be a little cleared up by Dr Priestley, who shows, that, by means of respiration, the body is freed from many noxious effluvia which would undoubtedly destroy it, and by the retention of which, he thinks, a living body would putrefy as soon as a dead one. The way in which respiration prevents the putrefaction

of

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of the body, is evidently the same with that in which the wind prevents fish or flesh hung up in it from becoming putrid. The constant inspiration of the air is like a stream of that element continually blown upon the body, and that not only upon its surface, but into it, by which means putrefaction is prevented in those parts that are most liable to become putrid. On the other hand, the elastic principle received from the air by the blood *, by invigorating the powers of life, quickening the circulation, and increasing perspiration, enables the body to expell noxious particles from other parts of the body which cannot conveniently be expelled by the lungs.

* See *Blood*, nº 29.

This leads us to consider the reason why a free exposure to the air prevents the coming on of putrefaction, or why the confining of the putrid effluvia should be so necessary to this process. Here it will be proper to recollect, that putrefaction is a simple resolution of the body into earth, air, &c. of which it seems originally to have been composed. This resolution is evidently performed by an expansive power seemingly situated in every particle of the body. In consequence of this principle, the body first swells, then bursts, flies off in vapour, and its particles fall asunder from each other. The action of the putrefactive process, then, is analogous to that of fire, since these are the very properties of fire, and the very effects which follow the action of fire upon any combustible body. It is therefore exceedingly probable, that the agent in the air which we have all along considered as the cause of putrefaction is no other than fire itself; that is, the ethereal fluid expanding itself every where, as from a centre to a circumference. The force of the fluid, indeed, is much less in putrefaction than in actual ignition; and therefore the effects also take place in a much smaller degree, and require a much longer time: nevertheless, the same circumstances that are necessary for keeping up the action of fire, are also necessary for keeping up the putrefactive process. One of these is a free access of air, yet without too violent a blast; for as fire cannot burn without air, neither can it endure too much of it: thus a candle goes out, if put under a receiver, and the air exhausted; and it will do the same, if we blow violently upon it. In like manner, putrefaction requires a certain quantity of air, much less indeed than fire: and as it requires less to support it, so it can also endure much less air than fire; for a stream of air which would not put out a fire, will effectually prevent putrefaction. The cause of this in both is the same. Fire cannot burn because the vapour is carried off too fast; and thus the latent heat, which ought to support the flame †, is entirely dissipated. In like manner putrefaction is as certainly attended with an emission of phlogistic vapours as fire is with an emission of flame. These vapours contain a great quantity of latent heat ‡, or of the expansive principle already mentioned; and if these are carried off with greater rapidity than the heat of the atmosphere can produce them, the consequence must be, that an opposite principle to that which produces putrefaction, namely, a principle of cold, or condensation, instead of expansion, must take place, and the body cannot putrefy. That this must be the case is evident from the property which all evaporations have of producing cold *; and it is well known that a brisk current of air promotes evaporation to a great degree. Hence also the reason is evident why bodies are preserved uncorrupted by cold; for thus the action of the expansive principle is totally overcome and suspended, so that none of its effects can be perceived.

†See the article *Flame*.

‡ See the article *Phlogiston*, nº 17—23.

* See *Evaporation*, nº 7.

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Thus we may see, that one reason why an animal body does not putrefy while alive, is its ventilation, as we may call it, by respiration; and another is, the continual accession of new particles, less disposed to putrefy than itself, by the food and drink which is constantly taken in. But if either of these ways of preventing the commencement of this process are omitted, then putrefaction will take place as well in a living as in a dead body. Of the truth of this last fact we have innumerable instances. When air is infected with the putrid effluvia of marshes, and thus the natural effluvia are not carried off from the human body, but, on the contrary, some enter into it which are not natural to it, the most putrid diseases are produced. The same thing happens from the putrid effluvia of dead bodies. Of this we have a remarkable instance in the fever which took place in Germany in the war of 1755: one reason of which is said to have been an infection of the air by the vast numbers of people killed in battle, to which was added a calm in the atmosphere for a long time; the putrid effluvia being by this prevented from flying off *. When Mr Holwell with 145 others were imprisoned in the black-hole at Calcutta, after passing a night in that dismal habitation, he found himself in a high putrid fever. When sailors in long voyages are obliged to feed upon putrid aliments; when, thro' stormy weather, they are much exposed to wet; in the one case the putrescent effluvia being kept from flying off, and in the other a greater quantity being thrown into the body than what it naturally contains, the scurvy, malignant fevers, &c. make their appearance. Neither can these diseases be removed without removing every one of the causes just now mentioned: for as putrid diseases will be the consequence of confined air, nastiness, &c. though the provisions be ever so good; so on the other hand, if the provisions be bad, the best air, and most exact cleanliness, nay, the best medicines in the world, will be of no service; as hath been often observed in the scurvy.

* See *Medicine*, nº 251.

From this account of the nature, cause, and method of preventing putrefaction by means of a current of air, we may easily see the reason why it does not take place in some other cases also. Bodies will not putrefy *in vacuo*, because there the atmosphere has not access to impart its elastic principle; and though in the vacuum itself the principle we speak of does undoubtedly exist, yet its action there is by far too weak to decompose the structure of an animal body. In extreme cold, the reason why putrefaction does not take place has been already shown. If the heat is extremely great, the process of ignition or burning takes place instead of putrefaction. If the body is very dry, putrefaction cannot take place, because the texture is too firm to be decomposed by the weak action of the elastic principle. Putrefaction may also be prevented by the addition of certain substances; but they are all of them such as either harden the texture of the body, and thus render it proof against the action of the elastic fluid, or, by dissolving its texture entirely, bring it into a state similar to what it would be brought by the utmost power of putrefaction, so that the pro-

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cess cannot then take place. Thus, various kinds of salts and acids harden the texture of animal substances, and thus are successfully used as antiseptics. The same thing may be said of ardent spirits; while oils and gums of various kinds prove antiseptic by a total exclusion of air, which is necessary in some degree for carrying on the process of putrefaction. Many vegetables, by the astringent qualities they possess, harden the texture of animal substances, and thus prove powerfully antiseptic; while on the other hand, fixed alkaline salts, quicklime, and caustic volatile alkali, though they prevent putrefaction, yet they do it by dissolving the substances in such a manner that putrefaction could do no more though it had exerted its utmost force. There is only one other antiseptic substance whose effects deserve to be considered, and that is sugar. This, tho' neither acid nor alkaline, is yet one of the most effectual means of preventing putrefaction: and this seems to be owing to its great tendency to run into the vinous fermentation, which is totally inconsistent with that of putrefaction; and this tendency is so great, that it can scarce be counteracted by the tendency of animal substances to putrefy in any circumstances whatever.

Some kinds of air are remarkably antiseptic, though this subject has not been so fully inquired into as could be wished. The most powerful of them in this respect is the nitrous air; next to it, is fixed air: but the powers of dephlogisticated and inflammable air are not so well known. It is probable that the antiseptic properties of fixed and nitrous air are owing to their quality of extinguishing fire, or at least that the principle is the same; but, till the nature of these two kinds of air are better known, little can be said with certainty on the subject.

Sir John Pringle has made experiments to determine the powers of certain substances to promote or to prevent putrefaction. From these experiments he has formed the following Table, shewing the relative antiseptic powers of the saline substances mentioned. Having found that two drams of beef put in a phial with two ounces of water, and placed in a heat equal to 90° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, became putrid in 14 hours, and that 60 grains of sea-salt preserved a similar mixture of beef and water more than 30 hours, he made the antiseptic power of the sea-salt a standard, to which he compared the powers of the other salts. The algebraic character + signifies, that the substance to which it is annexed had a greater antiseptic power than is expressed by the numbers.

Sea-salt, or the standard	1
Sal-gem	1 +
Vitriolated tartar	2
Spiritus Mindereri	2
Soluble tartar	2
Sal diureticus	2 +
Crude sal ammoniac	3
Saline mixture	3
Nitre	4 +
Salt of hartshorn	4 +
Salt of wormwood	4 +
Borax	12
Salt of amber	20
Alum	30

N. B. The quantities of spiritus Mindereri and of the saline mixture were such, that each of them contained as much alkaline salt as the other neutral salts.

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Myrrh, aloes, asafetida, and terra Japonica, were found to have an antiseptic power 30 times greater than the standard. Gum ammoniacum and sagapenum showed little antiseptic power.

Of all resinous substances, camphor was found to resist putrefaction most powerfully. Sir John Pringle believes that its antiseptic power is 300 greater than that of sea-salt.

Chamomile flowers, Virginian snake-root, pepper, ginger, saffron, contrayerva root, and galls, were found to be 12 times more antiseptic than sea-salt.

Infusions of large quantities of mint, angelica, ground-ivy, green tea, red roses, common wormwood, mustard, and horse-radish, and also decoctions of poppy-heads, were more antiseptic than sea-salt.

Decoctions of wheat, barley, and other farinaceous grains, checked the putrefaction by becoming sour.

Chalk, and other absorbent powders, accelerated the putrefaction, and resolved meat into a perfect mucus. The same powders prevented an infusion of farinaceous grains from becoming mucilaginous and sour.

One dram of sea-salt was found to preserve two drams of fresh beef in two ounces of water, above 30 hours, uncorrupted, in a heat equal to that of the human body, or above 20 hours longer than meat is preserved in water without salt: but half a dram of salt did not preserve it more than two hours longer than pure water. Twenty-five grains of salt had little or no antiseptic quality. Twenty-grains, 15 grains, but especially 10 grains only of sea-salt were found to accelerate and heighten the putrefaction of two drams of flesh. These small quantities of sea-salt did also soften the flesh more than pure water.

The same learned and ingenious physician made experiments to discover the effects of mixing vegetable with animal matters.

Two drams of raw beef, as much bread, and an ounce of water, being beat to the consistence of pap, and exposed to 90° of heat according to Fahrenheit's thermometer, began to ferment in a few hours, and continued in fermentation during two days. When it began to ferment and swell, the putrefaction had begun; and in a few hours afterwards, the smell was offensive. Next day the putrid smell ceased, and an acid taste and smell succeeded. Fresh alimentary vegetables, as spinach, asparagus, scurvy-grass, produced similar effects as bread on flesh, but in a weaker degree. From several other experiments he found, that animal substances excite the fermentation of vegetable substances, and that the latter substances correct the putrescency of the former.

By adding saliva to a similar mixture of flesh, bread, and water, the fermentation was retarded, moderated, but rendered of twice the usual duration, and the acid produced at last was weaker than when no saliva was used.

By adding an oily substance to the common mixture of flesh, bread, and water, a stronger fermentation was produced, which could not be moderated by the quantity of saliva used in the former experiment, till some fixed alkaline salt was added, which salt was found, without saliva, to stop suddenly very high fermentations.

He

Putrefaction ‖ Pyanepsia.

He did not find that small quantities of the following salts, sal ammoniac, nitre, vitriolated tartar, sal diureticus, salt of hartshorn, salt of wormwood, were septic, as small quantities of sea-salt were.

Sugar was found to resist putrefaction at first, as other salts do, and also to check the putrefaction after it had begun by its own fermentative quality, like bread and other fermentative vegetables.

Lime-water made some small resistance to putrefaction.

Port-wine, small-beer, infusions of bitter vegetables, of bark, and the juice of antiscorbutic plants, retarded the fermentation of mixtures of flesh and bread. But an unstrained decoction of bark considerably increased that fermentation.

Crabs-eyes accelerated and increased the fermentation of a mixture of flesh and bread.

Lime-water neither retarded nor hastened the fermentation of such a mixture: but when the fermentation ceased, the liquor was neither putrid nor acid, but smelt agreeably.

Flesh pounded in a mortar was found to ferment sooner than that which had not been bruised.

The tough inflammatory crust of blood was found to be most putrescent; next to which the crassamentum, or red coagulated mass; and lastly the serum.

Dr Macbride's experiments confirm many of those above related, especially those which show that the fermentation of vegetable substances is increased by a mixture of animal or putrescent matter; that the putrescency of the latter is corrected by the fermentative quality of the former; and that the putrefaction and fermentation of mixtures of animal and vegetable substances were accelerated by additions of absorbent earths and of Peruvian bark. He also found, that although unburnt calcareous earths were septic, quicklime and lime-water prevented putrefaction, but that they destroyed or dissolved the texture of flesh.

The experiments of the author of the *Essai pour servir à l'Histoire de la Putrefaction*, show that metallic salts, resinous powders, extracts of bark, and opium, are very powerfully antiseptic, and that salts with earthy bases are less antiseptic than any other salts.

PUTTY, in its popular sense, is a kind of paste compounded of whiting and lint-seed oil, beaten together to the consistence of a thick dough.

It is used by glasiers for the fastening in the squares of glass in sash-windows, and by painters for stopping up the crevices and clefts in timber and wainscots, &c.

Putty sometimes also denotes the powder of calcined tin, used in polishing and giving the last gloss to works of iron and steel.

PYANEPSIA, in antiquity, an Athenian festival celebrated on the seventh day of the month *Pyanepsion;* which, according to the generality of critics, was the same with our September.

Plutarch refers the institution of this feast to Theseus, who, after the funeral of his father, on this day paid his vows to Apollo, because the youths who returned with him safe from Crete then made their entry into the city. On this occasion, these young men putting all that was left of their provisions into one kettle, feasted together on it, and made great rejoicing. Hence was derived the custom of boiling pulse on this festival. The Athenians likewise carried about an olive branch, bound about with wool, and crowned with all sorts of first-fruits, to signify that scarcity and barrenness were ceased, singing in procession a song. And when the solemnity was over, it was usual to erect the olive-branch before their doors, as a preservative against scarcity and want.

Pycnostyle ‖ Pyramid.

PYCNOSTYLE, in the ancient architecture, is a building where the columns stand very close to each other; only one diameter and a half of the column being allowed for the intercolumniations.

According to Mr Evelyn, the pycnostyle chiefly belonged to the composite order, and was used in the most magnificent buildings; as at present in the peristyle at St Peter's at Rome, which consists of near 300 columns; and in such as yet remain of the ancients, among the ruins of Palmyra.

PYGARGUS, in ornithology, a species of Falco.

PYGMALION, in fabulous history, a king of Cyprus, who, being disgusted at the dissolute lives of the women of his island, resolved to live in perpetual celibacy; but making a statue of ivory, he fell so passionately in love with it, that the high festival of Venus being come, he fell down before the altar of that goddess, and besought her to give him a wife like the statue he loved. At his return home, he embraced, as usual, his ivory form, when he perceived that it became sensible by degrees, and was at last a living maid, who found herself in her lover's arms the moment she saw the light. Venus blessed their union; and, at the end of nine months, she was delivered of a boy, who was named *Paphos*.

PYGMY, a person not exceeding a cubit in height. This appellation was given by the ancients to a fabulous nation inhabiting Thrace; who brought forth young at five years of age, and were old at eight: these were famous for the bloody war they waged with the cranes. As to this story, and for the natural history of the true pygmy, see Simia.

PYLORUS, in anatomy, the under orifice of the stomach. See Anatomy, n° 352, b.

PYLUS, (anc. geog.), a town of Elis; its ruins to be seen on the road from Olympia to Elis, (Pausanias); situate between the mouths of the Peneus and Sellees, near mount Scollis, (Strabo.) Built by Pylas of Megara, and destroyed by Hercules, (Pausanias.)—Another Pylus in Triphylia, (Strabo); by which the Alpheus runs, (Pausanias); on the confines of Arcadia, and not in Arcadia itself, (id.)—A third in Messenia, (Strabo, Ptolemy); situate at the foot of mount Ægaleus, on the sea-coast, over-against the island Sphagea or Sphacteria: built by Pylas, and settled by a colony of Leleges from Megara; but thence expelled by Neleus and the Pelasgi, and therefore called *Nelea*, (Homer). A sandy territory. The royal residence of Neleus, and of Nestor his son: the more ancient and more excellent Pylus; whence the proverb, *Pylus ante Pylum*, (Aristophanes, Plutarch), used when we want to repress the arrogance and pride of any one: said to be afterwards called *Coryphasium*. It made a figure in the Peloponnesian war; for being rebuilt by the Athenians, it proved of great benefit to them for the space of 15 years, and of much annoyance to the Lacedemonians, (Thucydides.) All the three *Pyli* were subject to Nestor, (Strabo.)

PYRAMID, in geometry, a solid standing on a trian-

Pyramid, Pyrenean.

triangular, ſquare, or polygonal baſis, and terminating in a point at the top; or, according to Euclid, it is a ſolid figure, conſiſting of ſeveral triangles, whoſe baſes are all in the ſame plane and have one common vertex.

Pyramids are ſometimes uſed to preſerve the memory of ſingular events; and ſometimes to tranſmit to poſterity the glory and magnificence of princes. But as they are eſteemed a ſymbol of immortality, they are moſt commonly uſed as funeral monuments. Such is that of Ceſtius at Rome; and thoſe other celebrated ones of Egypt, as famous for the enormity of their ſize as their antiquity. Theſe are ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Nile, almoſt oppoſite to Grand Cairo: the baſe of the largeſt covers more then 10 acres of ground; and is, according to ſome, near 700 feet high, though other make it 600, and ſome but little more than 500. The pyramid is ſaid to have been, among the Egyptians, a ſymbol of human life; the beginning of which is repreſented by the baſe, and the end by the apex; on which account it was, that they uſed to erect them over ſepulchres. See Egypt, n° 10.

PYRAMIDALES, in anatomy, one of the muſcles of the abdomen. See Anatomy, *Table of the Muſcles*.

PYRENEAN mountains, are ſome of the moſt celebrated in Europe. They divide France from Spain, and extend from the Mediterranean ſea to the ocean; being above 200 miles in length, and and overſpread with high trees. There are but five paſſages over them, which are all extremely difficult.

Pyrites || Pyrophorus

PYRITES, a kind of mineral from which ſulphur and green vitriol may be produced. See Chemistry, n° 110. Mineralogy, n° 196. and Metallurgy, p. 4919, 4936.

PYRMONT, a town of Lippe in Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and capital of a county of the ſame name. It has a caſtle, kept by a governor, who is under the counts of Waldeck. At a ſmall diſtance from hence there are mineral waters, which are much eſteemed. The Proteſtants have here the free exerciſe of their religion. It is ſeated on the confines of the duchy of Brunſwick, 40 miles ſouth-weſt of Hanover. E. Long. 9. 0. N. Lat. 52. 0.

PYROMANCY, a kind of divination by means of fire. See Divination, n° 6.

PYROMETER, an inſtrument for meaſuring the expanſion of bodies by heat. See Mechanics, n° 20.

PYROPHORUS, a chemical preparation, which has the ſingular property of taking fire as ſoon as it is expoſed to the air. See Chemistry, n° 485.

PYROTECHNY;

THE art of fire, or a ſcience which teaches the management and application of fire in ſeveral operations. See Fire, Furnace, Chemistry, Diſtillation, Metallurgy, &c.

But the term is more particularly uſed to denote the doctrine of artificial fire-works and fire-arms, teaching the ſtructure and uſe, 1. Of thoſe uſed in war, the attacking of fortifications, &c. for which ſee the articles Gun, Gunnery, Gun-*Powder*, Fusee, &c. and Mine in the APPENDIX; and, 2. Of thoſe made for amuſement's ſake, as rockets, ſtars, ſerpents, &c. the preparation and conſtruction of which fall to be explained in the preſent article.

Sect. I. *Of Ingredients and Compoſitions.*

1. *Saltpetre.*

Captain Shortt's Artificial Fire-works.

Saltpetre being the principal ingredient in fire-works, and a volatile body, by reaſon of it aqueous and aërial parts, is eaſily rarified by fire; but not ſo ſoon when foul and groſs, as when purified from its crude and earthy parts, which greatly retard its velocity: therefore, when any quantity of fireworks are to be made, it ſhould be examined; for if it is not well cleanſed, and of a good ſort, your works will not have their proper effect; neither will it agree with the ſtanding proportions of compoſitions. Therefore,

To refine it, put into a copper, or any other veſſel, 100 lb. of rough nitre with 14 gallons of clean water; let it boil gently half an hour, and as it boils take off the ſcum; then ſtir it, and before it ſettles put it into your filtering bags, which muſt be hung on a rack, with glazed earthen pans under them, in which muſt be ſticks laid acroſs for the cryſtals to adhere to: it muſt ſtand in the pans two or three days to ſhoot; then take out the cryſtals and let them dry. The water that remains in the pans boil again an hour, and ſtrain it into the pans as before, and the ſaltpetre will be quite clear and tranſparent: if not, it wants more refining; to do which proceed as uſual, till it is well cleanſed of all its earthy parts.

N. B. Thoſe who do not chooſe to procure their ſaltpetre by the above method, may buy it ready done, which for fire-works in general will do.

To pulveriſe Saltpetre. Take a copper kettle, whoſe bottom muſt be ſpherical, and put into it 14 lb. of refined ſaltpetre, with 2 quarts or 5 pints of clean water: then put the kettle on a ſlow fire; and when the ſaltpetre is diſſolved, if any impurities ariſe, ſkim them off, and keep conſtantly ſtirring with two large ſpatulas, till all the water exhales; and when done enough, it will appear like white ſand, and as fine as flour; but if it ſhould boil too faſt, take the kettle off the fire, and ſet it on ſome wet ſand, which will prevent the nitre from ſticking to the kettle. When you have pulveriſed a quantity of ſaltpetre, be careful to keep it in a dry place.

To extract Saltpetre from damaged Gun-powder. Have ſome filtering bags, hung on a rack, with glazed earthen pans under them, in the ſame manner as thoſe for refining ſaltpetre: then take any quantity of damaged powder, and put it into a copper, with as much clean water as will cover it: when it begins to boil, take off the ſcum; and after it has boiled a few minutes, ſtir it up: then take it out of the copper with a ſmall hand kettle for that purpoſe, and put ſome into each bag, beginning at one end of the rack, ſo that by the time you have got to the laſt bag, the firſt will be ready for more. Continue thus, till all the bags are full: then take the liquor out of the pans; which boil and filter, as before, two or three times, till the water run quite clear, which you muſt let ſtand in the pans ſome time, and the ſaltpetre will appear at top. To get the ſaltpetre

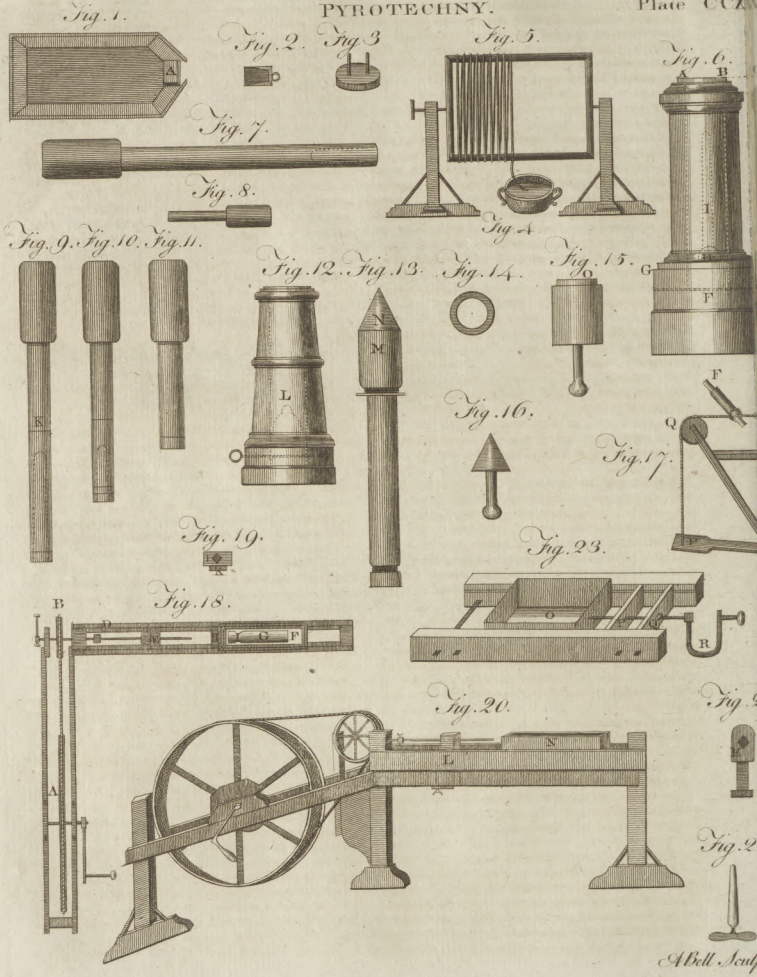
Fig. 1.
A
Fig. 2.
Fig. 3
Fig. 5.
Fig. 6.
A
B
I
G
F
Fig. 7.
Fig. 8.
Fig. 4
Fig. 9.
Fig. 10.
Fig. 11.
K
Fig. 12.
L
Fig. 13.
N
M
Fig. 14.
Fig. 15.
O
Fig. 16.
Fig. 17.
F
Q
Fig. 19.
Fig. 23.
O
R
Fig. 18.
B
D
E
G
F
A
Fig. 20.
N
L
Fig. 21.
Fig. 22.
A Bell Sculp

Ingredients and Compositions.

petre entirely out of the powder, take the water from that already extracted, to which add some fresh and the dregs of the powder that remain in the bags, and put them in a vessel, to stand as long as you please: and when you want to extract the nitre, you must proceed with this mixture as with the powder at first, by which means you will draw out all the saltpetre; but this process must be boiled longer than the first.

2. *Sulphur, or Brimstone.*

SULPHUR is one of the principal ingredients in gun-powder, and almost in all compositions of fire-works; and therefore great care must be taken of its being good, and brought to the highest perfection. To know when sulphur is good, you are to observe that it is of a high yellow; and if, when held in one's hand, it crackles and bounces, it is a sign that it is fresh and good: but as the method of reducing brimstone to a powder is very troublesome, it is better to buy the flour ready made, which is done in large quantities, and in great perfection; tho' when a grand collection of fire-works are to be made, the strongest and best sulphur is the lump brimstone ground in the manner directed in art 8.

3. *Charcoal.*

CHARCOAL is a preservative by which the saltpetre and the brimstone are made into gun-powder, by preventing the sulphur from suffocating the strong and windy exhalation of the nitre. Charcoal for fire-works must always be soft and well burnt, which may be bought ready done.

4. *Gun-powder.*

See GUN-*Powder* in the order of the alphabet. To grind or meal it, is directed in art 8.

5. *Camphor.*

THIS may be had in the shops; and is of two kinds, differing in regard to the degree of their purity, and distinguished by the name of *rough* and *refined.* Refined camphor must be chosen of a perfectly clean white colour, very bright and pellucid, of the same smell and taste with the rough, but more acrid and pungent. It is so volatile that merchants usually inclose it in lintseed, that the viscosity of that grain may keep its particles together.

6. *Benjamin.*

THIS is a resin found of different sorts; and distinguished by their colours, *viz.* yellow, grey, and brown; but the best is that which is easy to break, and full of white spots. It is one of the ingredients in odoriferous fire-works, when reduced to a fine flour; which may be done by putting into a deep and narrow earthen pot 3 or 4 oz. of benjamin grossly pounded; cover the pot with paper, which tie very close round the edge; then set the pot on a slow fire, and once in an hour take off the paper, and you will find some flour sticking to it, which return again in the pot; this you must continue till the flour appears white and fine. There is also an oil of benjamin, which is sometimes drawn from the dregs of the flour; it affords a very good scent, and may be used in wet compositions.

7. *Spur-fire.*

THIS fire is the most beautiful and curious of any yet known; and was invented by the Chinese, but now is in greater perfection in England than in China. As it requires great trouble to make it to perfection, it will be necessary that beginners should have full instructions; therefore care should be taken that all the ingredients are of the best, that the lamp-black is not damp and clodded, that the saltpetre and brimstone are thoroughly refined. This composition is generally rammed in 1 or 2 oz. cases about 5 or 6 inches long, but not drove very hard; and the cases must have their concave stroke struck very smooth, and the choak or vent not quite so large as the usual proportion: this charge, when driven and kept a few months, will be much better than when rammed; and will not spoil, if kept dry, in many years.

As the beauty of this composition cannot be seen at so great a distance as brilliant fire, it has a better effect in a room than in the open air, and may be fired in a chamber without any danger: it is of so innocent a nature, that, though with an improper phrase, it may be called a *cold fire;* and so extraordinary is the fire produced from this composition, that, if well made, the sparks will not burn a handkerchief when held in the midst of them; you may hold them in your hand while burning, with as much safety as a candle; and if you put your hand within a foot of the mouth of the case, you will feel the sparks like drops of rain. When any of these spur-fires are fired singly, they are called *artificial flower-pots;* but some of them placed round a transparent pyramid of paper, and fired in a large room, make a very pretty appearance.

The composition consists of saltpetre 4 lb. 8 oz. sulphur 2 lb. and lamp-black 1 lb. 8 oz.; or, saltpetre 1 lb. sulphur ½ lb. and lamp-black 4 quarts. This composition is very difficult to mix. The saltpetre and brimstone must be first sifted together, and then put into a marble mortar, and the lamp-black with them, which you work down by degrees with a wooden pestle, till all the ingredients appear of one colour, which will be something greyish, but very near black: then drive a little into a case for trial, and fire it in a dark place; and if the sparks, which are called *stars,* or *pinks,* come out in clusters, and afterwards spread well without any other sparks, it is a sign of its being good, otherwise not; for if any drossy sparks appear, and the stars not full, it is then not mixed enough; but if the pinks are very small, and soon break, it is a sign that you have rubbed it too much.

This mixture, when rubbed too much, will be too fierce, and hardly show any stars; and, on the contrary, when not mixed enough, will be too weak, and throw out an obscure smoke, and lumps of dross, without any stars. The reason of this charge being called the *spur-fire,* is because the sparks it yields have a great resemblance to the rowel of a spur, from whence it takes its name.

8. *To meal Gun-powder, Brimstone, and Charcoal.*

THERE have been many methods used to grind these ingredients to a powder for fire-works, such as large mortars and pestles made of ebony and other hard wood, and horizontal mills with brass barrels: but none have proved so effectual and speedy as the last invention, that of the mealing table, represented in fig. 1. Plate CCXLVIII. made of elm, with a rim round its edge 4 or 5 inches high; and at the narrow end, A, is a slider that runs in a groove and forms part of the rim; so that when you have taken out of the table as much powder as you can with the copper shovel fig. 2. sweep all clean out at the slider A. When you are going to meal a quantity

Ingredients and Compositions.

tity of powder, observe not to put too much in the table at once; but when you have put in a good proportion, take the muller fig. 3. and rub it till all the grains are broke: then search it in a lawn sieve that has a receiver and top to it; and that which does not pass through the sieve, return again to the table and grind it, till you have brought it all fine enough to go through the sieve. Brimstone and charcoal are ground in the same manner, only the muller must be made of ebony; for these ingredients being harder than powder, would stick in the grain of elm, and be difficult to grind: as brimstone is apt to stick and clod to the table, it will be best to keep one for that purpose, by which means you will always have your brimstone clean and well ground.

2d 8. *To make Wheels and other works incombustible.*

It being necessary, when your works are new, to paint them of some dark colour; therefore, if, instead of which, you make use of the following composition, it will give them a good colour, and in a great measure prevent their taking fire so soon as if painted. Take brick dust, coal ashes, and iron filings, of each an equal quantity, and mix them with a double size, made hot. With this wash over your works, and when dry wash them over again; this will preserve the wood greatly against fire. Let the brick dust and ashes be beat to a fine powder.

9. *To prepare Cast-iron for gerbes, white fountains, and Chinese fire.*

Cast iron being of so hard a nature as not to be cut by a file, we are obliged to reduce it into grains, though somewhat difficult to perform; but if we consider what beautiful sparks this sort of iron yields, no pains should be spared to granulate such an essential material: to do which, get at an iron foundery some thin pieces of iron, such as generally run over the mould at the time of casting: then have a square block made of cast iron, and an iron square hammer about 4 lb weight; then, having covered the floor with cloth or something to catch the beatings, lay the thin pieces of iron on the block, and beat them with the hammer till reduced into small grains; which afterwards search with a very fine sieve, to separate the fine dust, which is sometimes used in small cases of brilliant fire, instead of steel dust; and when you have got out all the dust, sift what remains with a sieve a little larger, and so on with sieves of different sizes, till the iron passes through about the bigness of small bird-shot: your iron thus beat and sifted, put each sort into wooden boxes or oiled paper, to keep it from rusting. When you use it, observe the difference of its size, in proportion to the cases for which the charge is intended; for the coarse sort is only designed for very large gerbes of 6 or 8 lb.

10. *Charges for Sky-rockets, &c.*

Rockets of four ounces. Mealed powder 1 lb. 4 oz. saltpetre 4 oz. and charcoal 2 oz.

Rockets of eight ounces. I. Mealed powder 1 lb. saltpetre 4 oz. brimstone 3 oz. and charcoal $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. II. Meal-powder $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. and charcoal $4\frac{1}{4}$ oz.

Rockets of one pound. Meal powder 2 lb. saltpetre 8 oz. brimstone 4 oz. charcoal 2 oz. and steel-filings $3\frac{1}{2}$ oz

Sky-rockets in general. I. Saltpetre 4 lb. brimstone 1 lb. and charcoal $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. II. Saltpetre 4 lb. brimstone $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. charcoal 1 lb. 12 oz. and meal-powder 2 oz.

Large sky-rockets. Saltpetre 4 lb. meal-powder 1 lb. and brimstone 1 lb.

Rockets of a middling size. I. Saltpetre 8 lb. sulphur 3 lb. meal-powder 3 lb. II. Saltpetre 3 lb. sulphur 2 lb. meal-powder 1 lb. charcoal 1 lb.

11. *For Rocket Stars.*

White stars. Meal-powder 4 oz. saltpetre 12 oz. sulphur vivum 6 oz. oil of spike 2 oz. and camphor 5 oz.

Blue stars. Meal-powder 8 oz. saltpetre 4, sulphur 2, spirits of wine 2, and oil of spike 2.

Coloured or variegated stars. Meal-powder 8 drams, rochpetre 4 oz. sulphur vivum 2, and camphor 2.

Brilliant stars. Saltpetre $3\frac{1}{2}$ oz. sulphur $1\frac{1}{2}$, and meal-powder $\frac{1}{2}$, worked up with spirits of wine only.

Common stars. Saltpetre 1 lb. brimstone 4 oz. antimony $4\frac{3}{4}$, isinglass $\frac{1}{2}$, camphor $\frac{1}{2}$, and spirits of wine $\frac{1}{4}$.

Tailed stars. Meal-powder 3 oz. brimstone 2, saltpetre 1, and charcoal (coarsely ground) $\frac{1}{2}$.

Drove stars. I. Saltpetre 3 lb. sulphur 1 lb. brass dust 12 oz. antimony 3. II. Saltpetre 1 lb. antimony 4 oz. and sulphur 8.

Fixed pointed stars. Saltpetre $8\frac{1}{2}$ oz. sulphur 2, antimony 1 oz. 10 dr.

Stars of a fine colour. Sulphur 1 oz. meal-powder 1, saltpetre 1, camphor 4 dr. oil of turpentine 4 dr.

12. *Rains.*

Gold rain for sky-rockets. I. Saltpetre 1 lb. meal-powder 4 oz. sulphur 4, brass-dust 1, saw-dust $2\frac{1}{4}$, and glass-dust 6 dr. II. Meal-powder 12 oz. saltpetre 2, charcoal 4. III. Saltpetre 8 oz. brimstone 2, glass-dust 1, antimony $\frac{1}{2}$, brass-dust $\frac{1}{2}$, and saw-dust 12 dr.

Silver rain. I. Saltpetre 4 oz. sulphur, meal-powder, and antimony, of each 2 oz. sal prunella $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. II. Saltpetre $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. brimstone 2 oz. and charcoal 4. III. Saltpetre 1 lb. brimstone $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. antimony 6 oz. IV. Saltpetre 4 oz. brimstone 1, powder 2, and steel-dust $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

13. *Water Rockets.*

I. Meal-powder 6 lb. saltpetre 4, brimstone 3, charcoal 5. II. Saltpetre 1 lb. brimstone $4\frac{1}{2}$ oz. charcoal 6. III. Saltpetre 1 lb. brimstone 4 oz. charcoal 12. IV. Saltpetre 4 lb. brimstone $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. charcoal 1 lb. 12 oz. V. Brimstone 2 lb. saltpetre 4 lb. and meal-powder 4. VI. Saltpetre 1 lb. meal-powder 4 oz. brimstone $8\frac{1}{2}$, charcoal 2. VII. Meal-powder 1 lb. salt-petre 3, brimstone 1; sea-coal 1 oz. charcoal $8\frac{1}{2}$, saw-dust $\frac{1}{2}$, steel-dust $\frac{1}{2}$, and coarse charcoal $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. VIII. Meal powder $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. saltpetre 3, sulphur $1\frac{1}{2}$, charcoal 12 oz. saw-dust 2.

Sinking charge for water-rockets. Meal-powder 8 oz. charcoal $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

14. *Of wheels.*

Wheel-cases from two ounces to four pound. I. Meal-powder 2 lb. saltpetre 4 oz. iron-filings 7. II. Meal-powder 2 lb. salt-petre 12 oz. sulphur 4, steel-dust 3. III. Meal-powder 4 lb. saltpetre 1 lb. brimstone 8 oz, charcoal $4\frac{1}{2}$. IV. Meal-powder 8 oz. saltpetre 4, saw-dust

Ingredients and Compositions.

duſt $1\frac{1}{2}$, ſea-coal $\frac{3}{4}$. V. Meal-powder 1 lb. 4 oz. brimſtone 4 oz. 10 dr. ſalt-petre 8 oz. glaſs-duſt $2\frac{1}{2}$. VI. Meal-powder 12 oz. charcoal 1, ſaw-duſt $\frac{1}{2}$. VII. Saltpetre 1 lb. 9 oz. brimſtone 4 oz. charcoal $4\frac{1}{2}$. VIII. Meal-powder 2 lb. ſalt-petre 1, brimſtone $\frac{1}{2}$, and ſea-coal 2 oz. IX. Saltpetre 2 lb. brimſtone 1, meal-powder 4, and glaſs-duſt 4 oz. X. Meal-powder 1 lb. ſalt-petre 2 oz. and ſteel-duſt $3\frac{1}{2}$. XI. Meal-powder 2 lb. and ſteel-duſt $2\frac{1}{2}$ oz. with $2\frac{1}{2}$ of the fine duſt of beat iron. XII. Saltpetre 2 lb. 13 oz. brimſtone 8 oz. and charcoal.

Slow fire for wheels. I. Saltpetre 4 oz. brimſtone 2, and meal-powder $1\frac{1}{2}$. II. Saltpetre 4 oz. brimſtone 1, and antimony 1 oz. 6 dr. III. Saltpetre $4\frac{1}{2}$ oz. brimſtone 1 oz. and mealed powder $1\frac{1}{2}$.

Dead fire for wheels. I. Saltpetre $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. brimſtone $\frac{3}{4}$, lapis-calaminaris $\frac{1}{2}$, and antimony 2 dr.

15. *Standing or fixed caſes.*

I. Meal-powder 4 lb. ſaltpetre 2, brimſtone and charcoal 1. II. Meal-powder 2 lb. ſaltpetre 1, and ſteel-duſt 8 oz. III. Meal-powder 1 lb. 4 oz. and charcoal 4 oz. IV. Meal-powder 1 lb. and ſteel-duſt 4 oz. V. Meal-powder $2\frac{1}{2}$ lb. brimſtone 4 oz. and ſea-coal 6. VI. Meal-powder 3 lb. charcoal 5 oz. and ſaw-duſt $1\frac{1}{2}$.

16. *Sun caſes.*

I. Meal-powder $8\frac{1}{2}$ lb. ſaltpetre 1 lb. 2 oz. ſteel-duſt 2 lb. 10 oz. brimſtone 4. II. Meal-powder 3 lb. ſaltpetre 6 oz. and ſteel-duſt $7\frac{1}{2}$.

17 *A brilliant fire.*

Meal-powder 11 lb. ſaltpetre 1, brimſtone 4 oz. ſteel-duſt $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb.

18. *Gerbes.*

Meal-powder 6 lb. and beat-iron 2 lb. $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

19. *Chineſe fire.*

Saltpetre 12 oz. meal-powder 2 lb. brimſtone 1 lb. 2 oz. and beat iron 12 oz.

20. *Tourbillons.*

Charge for four-ounce Tourbillons. Meal-powder 2 lb. 4 oz. and charcoal $4\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

Eight-ounce tourbillons. Meal-powder 2 lb. and charcoal $4\frac{3}{4}$ oz.

Large tourbillons. Meal-powder 2 lb. ſaltpetre 1, brimſtone 8 oz. and beat iron 8.

N. B. Tourbillons may be made very large, and of different coloured fires: only you are to obſerve, that the larger they are, the weaker muſt be the charge; and, on the contrary, the ſmaller, the ſtronger their charge.

21. *Water balloons.*

I. Saltpetre 4 lb. brimſtone 2, meal-powder 2, antimony 4 oz. ſaw-duſt 4, and glaſs-duſt $1\frac{1}{2}$. II. Saltpetre 9 lb. brimſtone 3 lb. meal-powder 6 lb. roſin 12 oz. and antimony 8 oz.

22. *Water ſquibs.*

I. Meal-powder 1 lb. and charcoal 1 lb. II. Meal-powder 1 lb. and charcoal 9 oz.

23. *Mine ports or ſerpents.*

I. Meal-powder 1 lb. and charcoal 1 oz. II. Meal-powder 9 oz. charcoal 1 oz.

24. *Port-fires.*

For firing rockets, &c. I. Saltpetre 12 oz. brimſtone 4 oz. and meal-powder 2 oz. II. Saltpetre 8 oz. brimſtone 4 oz. and meal-powder 2 oz. III. Saltpetre 1 lb. 2 oz. meal-powder $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. and brimſtone 10 oz. This compoſition muſt be moiſtened with one gill of linſeed oil. IV. Meal-powder 6 oz. ſaltpetre 2 lb. 2 oz. and brimſtone 10 oz. V. Saltpetre 1 lb. 4 oz. meal-powder 4 oz. brimſtone 5 oz. ſaw-duſt 8 oz. VI. Saltpetre 8 oz. brimſtone 2 oz. and meal-powder 2 oz.

For illuminations. Saltpetre 1 lb. brimſtone 8 oz. and meal-powder 6 oz.

25. *Cones or ſpiral wheels.*

Saltpetre $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. brimſtone 6 oz. meal-powder 14 oz. and glaſs-duſt 14 oz.

26. *Crowns or globes.*

Saltpetre 6 oz. brimſtone 2 lb. antimony 4 oz. and camphor 2 oz.

27. *Air balloon fuzes.*

I. Saltpetre 1 lb. 10 oz. brimſtone 8 oz. and meal-powder 1 lb. 6 oz. II. Saltpetre $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. brimſtone 8 oz. and meal-powder 1 lb. 8 oz.

28. *Serpents for pots des brins.*

Meal-powder 1 lb. 8 oz. ſaltpetre 12 oz. and charcoal 2 oz.

29. *Fire pumps.*

I. Saltpetre 5 lb. brimſtone 1 lb. meal-powder $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. and glaſs-duſt 1 lb. II. Saltpetre 5 lb. 8 oz. brimſtone 2 lb. meal-powder 1 lb. 8 oz. and glaſs-duſt 1 lb. 8 oz.

30. *A ſlow white flame.*

I. Saltpetre 2 lb. brimſtone 3 lb. antimony 1 lb. II. Saltpetre $3\frac{1}{2}$ lb. ſulphur $2\frac{1}{2}$ lb. meal-powder 1 lb. antimony $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. glaſs-duſt 4 oz. braſs-duſt 1 oz.

N. B. Theſe compoſitions, driven $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch in a 1 oz. caſe, will burn one minute, which is much longer time than an equal quantity of any compoſition, yet known, will laſt.

31. *Amber lights.*

Meal-powder 9 oz. amber 3 oz. This charge may be drove in ſmall caſes, for illuminations.

32. *Lights of another kind.*

Saltpetre 3 lb. brimſtone 1 lb. meal-powder 1 lb. antimony $10\frac{1}{2}$ oz. All theſe muſt be mixed with the oil of ſpike.

33. *A red fire.*

Meal-powder 3 lb. charcoal 12 oz. and ſaw-duſt 8 oz.

34. *A common fire.*

Saltpetre 3 lb. charcoal 10 oz. and brimſtone 2 oz.

35. *To make an artificial earthquake.*

Mix the following ingredients to a paſte with water, and then bury it in the ground, and in a few hours the earth will break and open in ſeveral places. The compoſition: ſulphur 4 lb. and ſteel-duſt 4 lb.

36 *Compoſitions for ſtars of different colours.*

I. Meal-powder 4 oz. ſaltpetre 2 oz. brimſtone 2 oz. ſteel duſt $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. and camphor, white amber, antimony, and mercury-ſublimate, of each $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. II. Rochepetre 10 oz. brimſtone, charcoal, antimony, meal powder, and camphor, of each $\frac{3}{4}$ oz. moiſtened with oil of turpentine. Theſe compoſitions are made into ſtars, by being worked to a paſte with aqua vitæ, in which has been diſſolved ſome gum-tragacanth; and after you have rolled them in powder, make a hole through the middle of each, and ſtring them on quick-match, leaving about 2 inches between each. III. Saltpetre 8 oz. brimſtone 2 oz. yellow amber 1 oz. antimony 1 oz. and powder 3 oz. IV. Brimſtone $2\frac{1}{2}$ oz. ſaltpetre 6 oz. olibanum or frankincenſe in

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in drops 4 oz.; maſtick, and mercury-ſublimate, of each 4 oz. meal-powder 5 oz. white amber, yellow amber, and camphor, of each 1 oz. antimony and orpiment ½ oz. each. V. Saltpetre 1 lb. brimſtone ½ lb. and meal powder 8 oz. moiſtened with potrolio-oil. VI. Powder ½ lb. brimſtone and ſaltpetre, of each 4 oz. VII. Salpetre 4 oz. brimſtone 2 oz. and meal-powder 1 oz.

Stars that carry tails of ſparks. I. Brimſtone 6 oz. antimony crude 2 oz. ſaltpetre 4 oz. and roſin 4 oz. II. Saltpetre, roſin, and charcoal, of each 2 oz. brimſtone 1 oz. and pitch 1 oz.

Theſe compoſitions are ſometimes melted in an earthen pan, and mixed with chopped cotton-match, before they are rolled into ſtars; but will do as well if wetted, and worked up in the uſual manner.

Stars that yield ſome ſparks. I. Camphor 2 oz. ſaltpetre 1 oz. meal-powder 1 oz. II. Saltpetre 1 oz. ditto melted ½ oz. and camphor 2 oz. When you would make ſtars of either of theſe compoſitions, you muſt wet them with gum-water, or ſpirit of wine, in which has been diſſolved ſome gum-arabic, or gum-tragacanth, that the whole may have the conſiſtence of a pretty thick liquid; having thus done, take 1 oz. of lint, and ſtir it about in the compoſition till it becomes dry enough to roll into ſtars.

Stars of a yellowiſh colour. Take 4 oz. of gum-tragacanth or gum-arabic, pounded and ſifted through a fine ſieve, camphor diſſolved in brandy 2 oz. ſaltpetre 1 lb. ſulphur ½ lb. coarſe powder of glaſs 4 oz. white amber 1½ oz. orpiment 2 oz. Being well incorporated, make them into ſtars after the common method.

Stars of another kind. Take 1 lb. of camphor, and melt it in a pint of ſpirit of wine over a ſlow fire; then add to it 1 lb. of gum-arabic that has been diſſolved; with this liquor mix 1 lb. of ſaltpetre, 6 oz. of ſulphur, and 5 oz. of meal-powder; and after you have ſtirred them well together, roll them into ſtars proportionable to the rockets for which you intend them.

37. *Colours produced by the different compoſitions.*

As variety of fires adds greatly to a collection of works, it is neceſſary that every artiſt ſhould know the different effect of each ingredient. For which reaſon, we ſhall here explain the colours they produce of themſelves, and likewiſe how to make them retain the ſame when mixed with other bodies: as for example, ſulphur gives a blue, camphor a white or pale colour, ſaltpetre a clear white-yellow, amber a colour inclining to yellow, ſal-armoniac a green, antimony a reddiſh, roſin a copper colour, and greek-pitch a kind of bronze or between red and yellow. All theſe ingredients are ſuch as ſhow themſelves in a flame, *viz.*

White flame. Saltpetre, ſulphur, meal-powder, and camphor; the ſaltpetre muſt be the chief part.

Blue flame. Meal-powder, ſaltpetre, and ſulphur vivum; ſulphur muſt be the chief: Or meal-powder, ſaltpetre, brimſtone, ſpirit of wine, and oil of ſpike; but let the powder be the principal part.

Flame inclining to red. Saltpetre, ſulphur, antimony, and greek-pitch; ſaltpetre the chief.

By the above method may be made various colours of fire, as the practitioner pleaſes; for, by making a few trials, he may cauſe any ingredient to be predominant in colour.

38. *Ingredients that ſhow in ſparks when rammed in choaked caſes.*

The ſet colours of fire produced by ſparks are divided into 4 ſorts, *viz.* the black, white, grey, and red. The black charges are compoſed of 2 ingredients, which are meal-powder and charcoal; the white of 3, *viz.* ſaltpetre, ſulphur, and charcoal; the grey of 4, *viz.* meal-powder, ſaltpetre, brimſtone, and charcoal; and the red of 3, *viz.* meal-powder, charcoal, and ſaw-duſt.

There are, beſides theſe 4 regular or ſet charges, 2 others, which are diſtinguiſhed by the names of *compound* and *brilliant charges;* the compound being made of many ingredients, ſuch as meal-powder, ſaltpetre, brimſtone, charcoal, ſaw-duſt, ſea-coal, antimony, glaſs duſt, braſs duſt, ſteel filings, caſt iron, tanner's duſt, &c. or any thing that will yield ſparks; all which muſt be managed with diſcretion. The brilliant fires are compoſed of meal-powder, ſaltpetre, brimſtone, and ſteel duſt; or with meal-powder and ſteel filings only.

39. *Cotton quick-match,*

Is generally made of ſuch cotton as is put in candles, of ſeveral ſizes, from 1 to 6 threads thick, according to the pipes it is deſigned for, which pipe muſt be large enough for the match, when made, to be puſhed in eaſily without breaking it. Having doubled the cotton into as many threads as you think proper, coil it very lightly into a flat-bottomed copper or earthen pan; then put in the ſaltpetre and the liquor, and boil them about 20 minutes; after which coil it again into another pan, as in fig 4. and pour on it what liquor remains; then put in ſome meal-powder, and preſs it down with your hands till it is quite wet; afterwards place the pan before the wooden frame, fig. 5. which muſt be ſuſpended by a point in the centre of each end; and place yourſelf before the pan, tying the upper end of the cotton to the end of one of the ſides of the frame. Plate CCXLVIII.

When every thing is ready, you muſt have one to turn the frame round, while you let the cotton paſs through your hands, holding it very lightly, and at the ſame time keeping your hands full of the wet powder; but if the powder ſhould be too wet to ſtick to the cotton, put more in the pan, ſo as to keep a continual ſupply till the match is all wound up; you may wind it as cloſe on the frame as you pleaſe, ſo that it do not ſtick together; when the frame is full, take it off the points, and ſift dry meal-powder on both ſides the match, till it appear quite dry: in winter the match will be a fortnight before it is fit for uſe; when it is thoroughly dry, cut it along the outſide of one of the ſides of the frame, and tie it up in ſkains for uſe.

N. B. The match muſt be wound tight on the frames.

The ingredients for the match, are, cotton 1 lb. 12 oz. ſaltpetre 1 lb. ſpirit of wine 2 quarts, water 3 quarts, iſinglaſs 3 gills, and meal-powder 10 lb. To diſſolve 4 oz. of iſinglaſs, take 3 pints of water.

2d 39. *Touch paper for capping of ſerpents, crackers,* &c.

Diſſolve, in ſpirits of wine or vinegar, a little ſaltpetre; then take ſome purple or blue paper, and wet it with this liquor, and when dry it will be fit for uſe; when

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when you paste this paper on any of your works, take care that the paste does not touch that part which is to burn. The method of using this paper is by cutting it into slips, long enough to go once round the mouth of a serpent, cracker, &c. When you paste on these slips, leave a little above the mouth of the case not pasted; then prime the case with meal-powder, and twist the paper to a point.

Sect. II. *Of Moulds, Cases, Mixture, Instruments, &c.*

40. *Rocket moulds.*

As the performance of rockets depends much on their moulds, it is requisite to give a definition of them and their proportions: they are made and proportioned by the diameter of their orifice, which are divided into = parts. Fig. 6. represents a mould made by its diameter AB: its height from C to D is 6 diameters and 2 thirds; from D to E is the height of the foot, which is 1 diameter and 2 thirds; F the choak, or cylinder, whose height is 1 diameter and 1-3d; it must be made out of the same piece as the foot, and fit tight in the mould; G an iron pin that goes thro' the cylinder, to keep the foot fast; H the nipple, which is $\frac{1}{4}$ a diameter high and 2-3ds thick, and of the same piece of metal as the former I, whose height is $3\frac{1}{2}$ diameters, and at the bottom is 1-3d of the diameter thick, and from thence tapering to 1-6th of the diameter. The best way to fix the piercer in the cylinder, is to make that part below the nipple long enough to go quite through the foot, and rivet at bottom. Fig. 7. is a former or roller for the cases, whose length from the handle, is $7\frac{1}{2}$ diameters, and its diameter 2-3ds of the bore. Fig. 8. the end of the former, which is of the same thickness, and 1 diameter and 2-3ds long; the small part, which fits into the hole in the end of the roller when the case is pinching, is 1-6th and $\frac{1}{2}$ of the mould's diameter thick. Fig. 9. the first drift, which must be 6 diameters from the handle; and this, as well as all other rammers, must be a little thinner than the former, to prevent the sacking of the paper when you are driving in the charge. In the end of this rammer is a hole to fit over the piercer: the line K marked on this is 2 diameters and 1-3d from the handle; so that, when you are filling the rocket, this line appears at top of the case: you must then take the 2d rammer, fig. 10. which from the handle is 4 diameters, and the hole for the piercer is $1\frac{1}{2}$ diameter long. Fig. 11. is the short and solid drift which you use when you have filled the case as high as the top of the piercer.

Plate CCXLVIII.

Rammers must have a collar of brass at the bottom, to keep the wood from spreading or splitting, and the same proportion must be given to all moulds, from 1 oz. to 6 lb. We mentioned nothing concerning the handles of the rammers; however, if their diameter be equal to the bore of the mould, and 2 diameters long, it will be a very good proportion: but the shorter you can use them the better; for the longer the drift, the less will be the pressure on the composition by the blow given with the mallet.

Dimensions for Rocket Moulds, in the Rockets are rammed solid.

Weight of rockets.		Length of the moulds without their feet.	Interior diameter of the moulds.	Height of the nipples.
lb.	oz.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
6	0	34,7	3,5	1,5
4	0	38,6	2,9	1,4
2	0	13,35	2,1	1,0
1	0	12,25	1,7	0,85
0	8	10,125	1,333, &c.	0,6
0	4	7,75	1,125	0,5
0	2	6,2	0,9	0,45
0	1	4,9	0,7	0,35
0	$\frac{1}{2}$	3,9	0,55	0,25
6 drams		3,5	0,5	0,225
4 drams		2,2	0,3	0,2

The diameter of the nipple must always be equal to that of the former.

The thickness of the moulds is omitted, being very immaterial, provided they are substantial and strong.

Our author advises those who make rockets for private amusement, not to ram them solid; for it requires a very skilful hand, and an expensive apparatus for boring them, which will be shown hereafter. Driving of rockets solid is the most expeditious method, but not so certain as ramming them over a piercer.

41. *Moulds for wheel-cases or serpents.*

Fig. 12. represents a mould, in which the cases are drove solid; L the nipple (A), with a point (B) at top, which, when the case is filling, serves to stop the neck, and prevent the composition from falling out, which without this point it would do; and, in consequence, the air would get into the vacancy in the charge, and at the time of firing cause the case to burst. These sort of moulds are made of any length or diameter, according as the cases are required; but the diameter of the rollers must be equal to half the bore, and the rammers made quite solid.

42. *To roll rocket and other cases.*

Sky-rocket cases are to be made $6\frac{1}{2}$ of their exterior diameter long; and all other cases that are to be filled in moulds must be as long as the moulds, within half its interior diameter.

Rocket cases, from the smallest to 4 or 6 lb. are generally made of the strongest sort of cartridge paper, and rolled dry; but the large sort are made of pasted pasteboard. As it is very difficult to roll the ends of the cases quite even, the best way will be to keep a pattern of the paper for the different sorts of cases; which pattern should be somewhat longer than the case it is designed for, and on it marked the number of sheets required, which will prevent any paper being cut to waste. Having cut your papers of a proper size, and the last sheet for each case with a slope at one end, so that when the cases are rolled it may form a spiral line round the outside, and that this slope may al-

(A) The nipple and cylinders to bear the same proportion as those for rockets.
(B) A round bit of brass, equal in length to the nick of the case, and flat at the top.

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always be the same, let the pattern be so cut for a guide. Before you begin to roll, fold down one end of the first sheet, so far that the fold will go 2 or 3 times round the former: then, on the double edge lay the former with its handle off the table; and when you have rolled on the paper within 2 or 3 turns, lay the next sheet on that part which is loose, and roll it all on.

Having thus done, you must have a smooth board, about 20 inches long, and equal in breadth to the length of the case. In the middle of this board must be a handle placed length-wise. Under this board lay your case, and let one end of the board lie on the table; then press hard on it, and push it forwards, which will roll the paper very tight: do this 3 or 4 times before you roll on any more paper. This must be repeated every other sheet of paper, till the case is thick enough; but if the rolling board be drawn backwards, it will loosen the paper: you are to observe, when you roll on the last sheet, that the point of the slope be placed at the small end of the roller. Having rolled your case to fit the mould, push in the small end of the former F, about 1 diameter from the end of the case, and put in the end-piece within a little distance of the former; then give the pinching cord one turn round the case, between the former and the end piece; at first pull easy, and keep moving the case, which will make the neck smooth, and without large wrinkles. When the cases are hard to choak, let each sheet of paper (except the first and last, in that part where the neck is formed) be a little moistened with water: immediately after you have struck the concave stroke, bind the neck of the case round with small twine, which must not be tied in a knot, but fastened with two or three hitches.

Having thus pinched and tied the case so as not to give way, put it into the mould without its foot, and with a mallet drive the former hard on the end-piece, which will force the neck close and smooth. This done, cut the case to its proper length, allowing from the neck to the edge of the mouth half a diameter, which is equal to the height of the nipple; then take out the former, and drive the case over the piercer with the long rammer, and the vent will be of a proper size. Wheel-cases must be drove on a nipple with a point to close the neck, and make the vent of the size required; which, in most cases, is generally $\frac{1}{4}$ of their interior diameter: as it is very often difficult, when the cases are rolled, to draw the roller out, you may make a hole through the handle, and put in it a small iron pin, by which you may easily turn the former round and pull it out. Fig. 17. shows the method of pinching cases; P a treddle, which, when pressed hard with the foot, will draw the cord tight, and force the neck as close as you please; Q a small wheel or pully, with a grove round it for the cord to run in.

Cases are commonly rolled wet, for wheels and fixed pieces; and when they are required to contain a great length of charge, the method of making those cases is thus: Your paper must be cut as usual, only the last sheet must not be cut with a slope; having your paper ready, paste each sheet on one side; then fold down the first sheet as before directed: but be careful that the paste do not touch the upper part of the fold; for if the roller be wetted, it will tear the paper in drawing it out. In pasting the last sheet, observe not to wet the last turn or two in that part where it is to be pinched; for if that part be damp, the pinching cord will stick to it, and tear the paper; therefore, when you choak those cases, roll a bit of dry paper once round the case, before you put on the pinching cord; but this bit of paper must be taken off after the case is choaked. The rolling board, and all other methods, according to the former directions for the rolling and pinching of cases, must be used to these as well as all other cases.

43. *To make tourbillon cases.*

Those sort of cases are generally made about 8 diameters long; but if very large, 7 will be sufficient: tourbillons will answer very well from 4 oz. to 2 lb. but when larger there is no certainty. The cases are best rolled wet with paste, and the last sheet must have a straight edge, so that the case may be all of a thickness: when you have rolled your cases after the manner of wheel-cases, pinch them at one end quite close; then with the rammer drive the ends down flat, and afterwards ram in about 1-3d of a diameter of dried clay. The diameter of the former for these cases must be the same as for sky-rockets.

N. B. Tourbillons are to be rammed in moulds without a nipple, or in a mould without its foot.

44. *Balloon cases, or paper shells.*

First, you must have an oval former turned of smooth wood; then paste a quantity of brown or cartridge paper, and let it lie till the paste has quite soaked through; this done, rub the former with soap or grease, to prevent the paper from sticking to it; then lay the paper on in small slips, till you have made it 1-3d of the thickness of the shell intended. Having thus done, set it to dry; and when dry, cut it round the middle, and the 2 halves will easily come off: but observe, when you cut, to leave about 1 inch not cut, which will make the halves join much better than if quite separated. When you have some ready to join, place the halves even together, paste a slip of paper round the opening to hold them together, and let that dry; then lay on paper all over as before, every where equal, excepting that end which goes downwards in the mortar, which may be a little thicker than the rest; for that part which receives the blow from the powder in the chamber of the mortar consequently requires the greatest strength. When the shell is thoroughly dry, burn a round vent at top, with square iron, large enough for the fuze: this method will do for balloons from 4 inches 2-5ths, to 8 inches diameter; but if they are larger, or required to be thrown a great height, let the first shell be turned of elm, instead of being made of paper.

For a balloon of 4 inches 2-5ths, let the former be 3 inches 1-8th diameter, and $5\frac{1}{4}$ inches long. For a balloon of $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches the diameter of the former must be 4 inches, and 8 inches long. For a balloon of 8 inches, let the diameter of the former be 5 inches and 15-16ths, and 11 inches 7-8ths long. For a 10-inch balloon, let the former be 7 inches 3-16ths diameter, and $14\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. The thicknesses of a shell for a balloon of 4 inches 2-5ths, must be $\frac{1}{4}$ inch. For a balloon of $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches, let the thicknesses of the paper be 5-8ths of an inch. For an 8-inch balloon, 7-8ths of an inch.

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And for a 10-inch balloon, let the shell be 1 inch 1-8th thick.

Shells that are designed for stars only, may be made quite round, and the thinner they are at the opening, the better; for if they are too strong, the stars are apt to break at the bursting of the shell: when you are making the shell, make use of a pair of calibres, or a round gauge, so that you may not lay the paper thicker in one place than another; and also to know when the shell is of a proper thickness. Balloons must always be made to go easy into the mortars.

Cases for illumination Port-fires. These must be made very thin of paper, and rolled on formers, from 2 to 5 8ths of an inch diameter, and from 2 to 6 inches long: they are pinched close at one end, and left open at the other. When you fill them, put in but a little composition at a time, and ram it in lightly, so as not to break the case: 3 or 4 rounds of paper, with the last round pasted, will be strong enough for these cases.

Cases and moulds for common Port-fires. Common port-fires are intended purposely to fire the works, their fire being very slow, and the heat of the flame so intense, that, if applied to rockets, leaders, &c. it will fire them immediately. Port-fires may be made of any length, but are seldom made more than 21 inches long: the interior diameter of port-fire moulds should be 10-16ths of an inch, and the diameter of the former $\frac{1}{4}$ an inch. The cases must be rolled wet with paste, and one end pinched, or folded down. The moulds should be made of brass, and to take in 2 pieces lengthwise; when the case is in the 2 sides, they are held together by brass rings, or hoops, which are made to fit over the outside. The bore of the mould must not be made quite through, so that there will be no occasion for a foot. Those port-fires, when used, are held in copper sockets, fixed on the end of a long stick: these sockets are made like port-crayons, only with a screw instead of a ring.

45. *Of mixing the compositions.*

The performance of the principal part of fire-works depends much on the compositions being well mixed; therefore great care must be taken in this part of the work, particularly for the composition for sky-rockets. When you have 4 or 5 pounds of ingredients to mix, which is a sufficient quantity at a time (for a larger proportion will not do so well) first put the different ingredients together; then work them about with your hands, till you think they are pretty well incorporated: after which put them into a lawn sieve with a receiver and top to it; and if, after it is sifted, any remains that will not pass through the sieve, grind it again till fine enough; and if it be twice sifted, it will not be amiss: but the compositions for wheels and common works are not so material, nor need be so fine. But in all fixed works, from which the fire is to play regular, the ingredients must be very fine, and great care taken in mixing them well together; and observe, that, in all compositions wherein are steel or iron filings, the hands must not touch; nor will any works, which have iron or steel in their charge, keep long in damp weather, unless properly prepared, according to the following directions.

Mixture, &c.

46. *To preserve steel or iron filings.*

It sometimes may happen, that fire-works may be required to be kept a long time, or sent abroad: neither of which could be done with brilliant fires, if made with filings unprepared; for this reason, that the saltpetre being of a damp nature, it causes the iron to rust; the consequence of which is, that when the works are fired, there will appear but very few brilliant sparks, but instead of them a number of red and drossy sparks; and besides, the charge will be so much weakened, that if this was to happen to wheels, the fire will hardly be strong enough to force them round. But to prevent such accidents, prepare your filings thus: Melt in a glazed earthen pan some brimstone over a slow fire, and when melted throw in some filings; which keep stirring about till they are covered with brimstone: this you must do while it is on the fire; then take it off, and stir it very quick till cold, when you must roll it on a board with a wooden roller, till you have broke it as fine as corn-powder; after which sift from it as much of the brimstone as you can. There is another method of preparing filings, so as to keep 2 or 3 months in winter; this may be done by rubbing them between the strongest sort of brown paper, which before has been moistened with linseed oil.

N. B. If the brimstone should take fire, you may put it out, by covering the pan close at top: it is not of much signification what quantity of brimstone you use, so that there is enough to give each grain of iron a coat; but as much as will cover the bottom of a pan of about 1 foot diameter, will do for 5 or 6 pound of filings, or cast-iron for gerbes.

47. *To drive or ram Sky Rockets, &c.*

Rockets drove over a piercer must not have so much composition put in them at a time, as when drove solid; for the piercer, taking up great part of the bore of the case, would cause the rammer to rise too high; so that the pressure of it would not be so great on the composition, nor would it be drove every where equal. To prevent this, observe the following rule: That for those rockets which are rammed over a piercer, let the ladle (c) hold as much composition as, when drove, will raise the drift $\frac{1}{3}$ the interior diameter of the case, and for those drove solid to contain as much as will raise it $\frac{1}{2}$ the exterior diameter of the case: ladles are generally made to go easy in the case, and the length of the scoop about $1\frac{1}{2}$ of its own diameter.

The change of rockets must always be drove 1 diameter above the piercer, and on it must be rammed 1-3d of a diameter of clay; through the middle of which bore a small hole to the composition, that, when the charge is burnt to the top, in may communicate its fire, through the hole, to the stars in the head. Great care must be taken to strike with the mallet, and with an equal force, the same number of strokes to each ladle-full of charge; otherwise the rockets will not rise with an uniform motion, nor will the composition burn equal and regular: for which reason they cannot carry a proper tail; for it will break

(c) A copper scoop with a wooden handle.

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break before the rocket has got half way up, instead of reaching from the ground to the top, where the rocket breaks and disperses the stars, rains, or whatever is contained in the head. When you are ramming, keep the drift constantly turning or moving; and when you use the hollow rammers, knock out of them the composition now and then, or the piercer will split them. To a rocket of 4 oz. give to each ladle-full of charge 16 strokes; to a rocket of 1 lb. 28; to a 2-pounder, 36; to a 4-pounder, 42; and to a 6-pounder, 56: but rockets of a larger fort cannot be drove well by hand, but must be rammed with a machine made in the same manner as those for driving piles.

The method of ramming of wheel-cases, or any other sort, in which the charge is drove solid, is much the same as sky-rockets; for the same proportion may be observed in the ladle, and the same number of strokes given, according to their diamenters, all cases being distinguished by their diameters. In this manner, a case, whose bore is equal to a rocket of 4 oz. is called a 4-oz. case, and that which is equal to an 8-oz. rocket an 8-oz. case, and so on, according to the differents rockets.

Having taught the method of ramming cases in moulds, we shall here say something concerning those filled without moulds; which method, for strong pasted cases, will do extremely well, and save the expence of making so many moulds. The reader must here observe, when he fills any sort of cases, to place the mould on a perpendicular block of wood, and not on any place that is hollow; for we have found by experience, that when cases were rammed on driving benches, which were formerly used, the works frequently miscarried, on account of the hollow resistance of the benches, which soft jarred and loosened the charge in the cases; but this accident never happens when the driving blocks are used (D).

When cases are to be filled without moulds, proceed thus. Have some nipples made of brass or iron, of several sorts and sizes, in proportion to the cases, and to screw or fix in the top of the driving block; when you have fixed in a nipple, make, at about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch from it, a square hole in the block, 6 inches deep and 1 inch diameter; then have a piece of wood, 6 inches longer than the case intended to be filled, and 2 inches square; on one side of it cut a groove almost the length of the case, whose breadth and depth must be sufficient to cover near $\frac{1}{2}$ the case; then cut the other end to fit the hole in the block, but take care to cut it so that the groove may be of a proper distance from the nipple: this half mould being made and fixed tight in the block, cut, in another piece of wood nearly of the same length as the case, a groove of the same dimensions as that in the fixed piece; then put the case on the nipple, and with a cord tie it and the 2 half-moulds together, and your case will be ready for filling.

The dimensions of the above-described half moulds, are proportionable for cases of 8 ounces; but notice must be taken, that they differ in size in proportion to the cases.

Note, The clay, mentioned in this article, must be prepared after this manner: Get some clay, in which there is no stones nor sand, and bake it in an oven till quite dry; then take it out and beat it to a powder, and afterwards sift it through a common hair-sieve, and it will be fit for use.

48. *Proportion of Mallets.*

The best wood for mallets is dry beech. If a person uses a mallet of a moderate size, in proportion to the rocket, according to his judgment, and if the rocket succeeds, he may depend on the rest, by using the same mallet; yet it will be necessary that cases of different sorts be drove with mallets of different sizes.

The following proportion of the mallets for rockets of any size, from 1 oz. to 6 lb. may be observed; but as rockets are seldom made less than 1 oz. or larger than 6 lb. we shall leave the management of them to the curious; but all cases under 1 oz. may be rammed with an oz. rocket mallet. Your mallets will strike more solid, by having their handles turned out of the same piece as the head, and made in a cylindrical form. Let their dimensions be worked by the diameters of the rocket: for example; let the thickness of the head be 3 diameters, and its length 4, and the length of the handle 5 diameters, whose thickness must be in proportion to the hand.

49. *Proportion of Sky Rockets, and manner of heading them.*

Fig. 13. represents a rocket complete without its stick, whose length from the neck is 5 diameters 1-6th: the cases should always be cut to this length after they are filled. M is the head, which is 2 diameters high, and 1 diameter 1-6th $\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth; N the cone or cap, whose perpendicular height must be 1 diameter 1-3d. Fig. 14. the collar to which the head is fixed; this is turned out of deal or any light wood, and its exterior diameter must be equal to the interior diameter of the head; 1-6th will be sufficient for its thickness, and round the outside edge must be a groove; the interior diameter of the collar must not be quite so wide as the exterior diameter of the rocket: when this is to be glued on the rocket, you must cut 2 or 3 rounds of paper off the case, which will make a shoulder for it to rest upon. Fig. 15. a former for the head: 2 or 3 rounds of paper well pasted will be enough for the head, which, when rolled, put the collar on that part of the former marked O, which must fit the inside of it; then, with the pinching cord pinch the bottom of the head into the groove, and tie it with small twine. Fig. 16. a former for the cone. To make the caps, cut your paper in round pieces, equal in diameter to twice the length of the cone you intend to make; which pieces being cut into halves, will make 2 caps each, without wasting any paper; having formed the caps, paste over each of them a thin white paper, which must be a little longer than the cone, so as to project about $\frac{1}{4}$ an inch below the bottom: this projection of paper, being notched and pasted, serves to fasten the cap to the head.

When you load the heads of your rockets with stars, rains, serpents, crackers, scrolls, or any thing else, according to your fancy, remember always to put 1 ladle-full of meal-powder into each head, which will be enough to burst the head, and disperse the stars, or

(D) A piece of hard wood in the form of an anvil block.

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or whatever it contains: when the heads are loaded with any sort of cases, let their mouths be placed downwards; and after the heads are filled, paste on the top of them a piece of paper, before you put on the caps. As the size of the stars oft differ, it would be needless to give an exact number for each rocket; but this rule may be observed, that the heads may be nearly filled with whatever they are loaded.

50 *Decorations for Sky Rockets.*

Sky-rockets bearing the pre-eminence of all fireworks, it will not be improper to treat of their various kinds of decorations, which are directed according to fancy. Some are headed with stars of different sorts, such as tailed, brilliant, white, blue and yellow stars, &c.; some with gold and silver rain; others with serpents, crakers, firescrolls, marrons; and some with small rockets, and many other devices, as the maker pleases.

Dimensions and poise of Rocket-sticks.

Weight of the rocket.		Length of the stick.		Thickness at top.	Breadth at top.	Square at bottom.	Poise from the point of the cone.	
L.	oz.	F.	in.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	F.	in.
6	0	14	0	1,5	1,85	0,75	4	1,5
4	0	12	10	1,25	1,40	0,625	3	9,
2	0	9	4	1,125	1,	0,525	2	9,
1	0	8	2	0,725	0,80	0,375	2	1,
	8	6	6	0,5	0,70	0,25	1	10,5
	4	5	3	0,375	0,55	0,35	1	8,5
	2	4	1	0,3	0,45	0,15	1	3,
	1	3	6	0,25	0,35	0,10	11	0,
	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	4	0,125	0,20	0,16	8	0,
	$\frac{1}{4}$	1	$10\frac{1}{2}$	0,1	0,15	0,5	5	0,5

The last column on the right, in the above table, expresses the distance from the top of the cone, where the stick, when tied on, should balance the rocket, so as to stand in an equilibrium on one's finger or the edge of a knife. The best wood for the sticks is dry deal, made thus. When you have cut and planed the sticks according to the dimensions given in the table, cut, on one of the flat sides at the top, a groove the length of the rocket, and as broad as the stick will allow; then, on the opposite flat side, cut 2 notches for the cord, which ties on the rocket, to lie in; one of these notches must be near the top of the stick, and the other facing the neck of the rockets; the distance between these notches may easily be known, for the top of the stick should always touch the head of the rocket. When your rockets and sticks are ready, lay the rockets in the grooves in the sticks, and tie them on. Those who, merely for curiosity, may choose to make rockets of different sizes, from those expressed in the table of dimensions, may find the length of their sticks, by making them for rockets, from $\frac{1}{2}$oz. to 1 lb. 60 diameters of the rocket long; and for rockets above 1 lb. 50 or 52 diameters will be a good length; their thickness at top may be about $\frac{1}{2}$ a diameter, and their breadth a very little more; their square at bottom is generally equal to $\frac{1}{8}$ the thickness at top. But although the dimensions of the sticks be very nicely observed, you must depend only on their balance; for, without a proper counterpoise, your rockets, instead of mounting perpendicularly, will take an oblique direction, and fall to the ground before they are burnt out.

51. *Boring Rockets which have been drove solid.*

Fig. 18. represents the plan of an apparatus, or lathe, for boring of rockets. A the large wheel, which turns the small one B, that works the rammer C: these rammers are of different sizes according to the rockets; they must be of the same diameter as the top of the bore intended, and continue that thickness a little longer than the depth of the bore required, and their points must be like that of an auger: the thick end of each rammer must be made square, and all of the same size, so as to fit into one socket, wherein they are fastened by a screw D. E the guide for the rammer, which is made to move backwards and forwards: so that, after you have marked the rammer $3\frac{1}{2}$ diameters of the rocket from the point, set the guide, allowing for the thickness of the fronts of the rocket boxes, and the neck and mouth of the rocket, so that when the front of the large box is close to the guide, the rammer may not go too far up the charge. F, boxes for holding the rockets, which are made so as to fit one in another; their sides must be equal in thickness to the difference of the diameters of the rockets, and their interior diameters equal to the exterior diameters of the rockets. To prevent the rocket's turning round while boring, a piece of wood must be placed against the end of the box in the inside, and pressed against the tail of the rocket; this will also hinder the rammer from forcing the rocket backwards. G, a rocket in the box. H, a box that slides under the rocket-boxes to receive the borings for the rockets, which fall through holes made on purpose in the boxes; these holes must be just under the mouth of the rocket, one in each box, and all to correspond with each other.

Fig. 19. is a front view of the large rocket-box. I, an iron plate, in which are holes of different sizes, through which the rammer passes: this plate is fastened with a screw in the centre, so that when you change the rammer, you turn the plate round, but always let the hole you are going to use be at the bottom: the fronts of the other boxes must have holes in them to correspond with those in the plate. K, the lower part of the large box; which is made to fit the inside of the lathe, that all the boxes may move quite steady.

Fig. 20. is a perspective view of the lathe. L, the guide for the rammer, which is set by the screw at bottom.

Fig. 21. A view of the front of the guide facing the rammer. M, an iron plate, of the same dimensions as that on the front of the box, and placed in the same direction, and also to turn on a screw in the centre. N, the rocket-box which slides backwards and forwards: when you have fixed a rocket in the box, push it forwards against the rammer; and when you think the scoop of the rammer is full, draw the box back, and knock out the composition: this you must do till the rocket is bored, or it will be in danger of taking fire; and if you bore in a hurry, wet the end of the rammer now and then with oil to keep it cool.

Having bored a number of rockets, you must have tape-

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taps of different sorts according to the rockets. These taps are a little longer than the bore: but when you use them, mark them $3\frac{1}{2}$ diameters from the point, allowing for the thickness of the rocket's neck; then, holding the rocket in one hand, you tap it with the other. One of these taps is represented by fig. 22. They are made in the same proportion as the fixed piercers, and are hollowed their whole length.

52. *Hand Machine used for boring of Rockets instead of a Lathe.*

These sort of machines answer very well, tho' not so expeditious as the lathes. But they are not so expensive to make, and they may be worked by one man; whereas the lathe wil require three. Fig 23. represents the machine. O, the rocket boxes, which are to be fixed, and not to slide as those in the lathe. P Q are guides for the rammers, that are made to slide together, as the rammer moves forward: the rammers for these sort of machines must be made of a proper length, allowing for the thickness of the front of the boxes, and the length of the mouth and neck of the case; on the square end of these rammers, must be a round shoulder of iron, to turn against the outside of the guide Q, by which means the guides are forced forwards. R, the stock which turns the rammer, and while turning must be pressed towards the rocket by the body of the man who works it; all the rammers are to be made to fit one stock.

To make large Gerbes.

Plate CCXLIX. Fig. 1. represents a wooden former; fig. 2. a gerbe complete, with its foot or stand. The cases for gerbes are made very strong, on account of the strength of the composition; which, when fired, comes out with great velocity: therefore, to prevent their bursting, the paper should be pasted, and the cases made as thick at the top as at the bottom. They should also have very long necks, for this reason; first, that the particles of iron will have more time to be heated, by meeting with greater resistance in getting out, than with a short neck, which would be burnt too wide before the charge be consumed, and spoil the effect: secondly, that with long necks the stars will be thrown to a great height, and will not fall before they are spent, or spread too much; but, when made to perfection, will rise and spread in such a manner as to form exactly a wheat-sheaf.

In the ramming of gerbes, there will be no need of a mould, the cases being sufficiently strong to support themselves. But you are to be careful, before you begin to ram, to have a piece of wood made to fit in the neck; for if this be not done, the composition will fall into the neck, and leave a vacancy in the case, which will cause the case to burst so soon as the fire arrives at the vacancy. You must likewise observe, that the first ladle of charge, or second, if you think proper, be of some weak composition. When the case is filled, take out the piece of wood, and fill the neck with some slow charge. Gerbes are generally made about 6 diameters long, from the bottom to the top of the neck; their bore must be 1-5th narrower at top than at bottom. The neck S is 1-6th diameter and $\frac{1}{4}$ long. T, a wooden foot or stand, on which the gerbe is fixed. This may be made with a choak or cylinder 4 or 5 inches long to fit the inside of the case, or with a hole in it to put in the gerbe; both these methods will answer the same. Gerbes produce a most brilliant fire, and are very beautiful when a number of them are fixed in the front of a building or a collection of fireworks.

N. B. Gerbes are made by their diameters, and their cases at bottom $\frac{1}{4}$ thick. The method of finding the interior diameter of a gerbe is thus: Supposing you would have the exterior diameter of the case, when made, to be 5 inches, then, by taking 2-4ths for the sides of the case, there will remain $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches for the bore, which will be a very good size. These sort of gerbes should be rammed very hard.

54. *Small gerbes, or white fountains,*

May be made of 4 oz. 8 oz. or 1 lb. cases, pasted and made very strong, of what length you please: but, before you fill them, drive in clay one diameter of their orifice high; and when you have filled a case, bore a vent through the centre of the clay to the composition: the common proportion will do for the vent, which must be primed with a slow charge. These sort of cases, without the clay, may be filled with Chinese fire.

55. *To make pasteboard and paper mortars.*

Fig. 3. represents a former, and fig. 4. an elm foot, for the mortar. Fig. 5. represents a mortar complete: these mortars are best when made with pasteboard, well pasted before you begin; or, instead of paste, you may use glue. For a cochorn mortar, which is 4 inches 2-5ths diameter, roll the pasteboard on the former 1-6th of its diameter thick; and, when dry, cut one end smooth and even; then nail and glue it on the upper part of the foot: when done, cut off the pasteboard at top, allowing for the length of the mortar $2\frac{1}{2}$ diameters from the mouth of the powder-chamber; then bind the mortar round with a strong cord wetted with glue. U, the bottom part of the foot is 1 diameter 2-3ds broad, and 1 diameter high; and that part which goes into the mortar is 2 3ds of its diameter high. W, is a copper chamber for powder, made in a conical form; and is 1-3d of the diameter wide, $1\frac{1}{2}$ of its own diameter long. In the centre of the bottom of this chamber, make a small hole a little way down the foot; this hole must be met by another of the same size, made in the side of the foot, as is shown in the figure. If these holes are made true, and a copper pipe fitted into both, the mortar when loaded will prime itself; for the powder will naturally fall to the bottom of the first hole; then by putting a bit of quick-match in the side hole, your mortar will be ready to be fired.

Mortars of $5\frac{1}{2}$, 8 and 10 inches diameter, may be made of paper or pasteboard, by the above method, and in the same proportion; but if larger, it will be best to have them made of brass. N. B. The copper chamber must have a small rim round its edge with holes in it, for screws to make it fast in the foot.

Sect. III. *To load Air-Balloons, with the number of Stars, Serpents, Snakes, Rain-falls, &c. in Shells of each nature.*

56. *Mortars to throw Aigrettes, &c.*

When you fill your shells, you must first put in the fer-

Air-Balloons, &c.

serpents, rains, ſtars, &c. or whatever they are composed of; then the blowing powder; but the ſhells muſt not be quite filled. All thoſe things muſt be put in at the fuze hole; but marrons being too large to go in at the fuze hole, muſt be put in before the inſide ſhell be joined. When the ſhells are loaded, glue and drive in the fuzes very tight. For a coehorn balloon, let the diameter of the fuze hole be 7-8ths of an inch. For a royal balloon, which is near $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter, make the fuze hole 1 inch 1-6th diameter; for an 8-inch balloon, 1 inch 3-8ths; and for a 10-inch balloon, 1 inch 5 8ths.

Air-balloons are divided into 4 ſorts, viz. firſt, illuminated balloons; ſecond, balloons of ſerpents; third, balloons of reports, marrons, and crackers; and fourth, compound balloons. The number and quantities of each article for the different ſhells are as follow.

Coehorn balloon illuminated.

		oz.
Meal powder	- - -	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Corn powder	- - -	$0\frac{1}{2}$
Powder for the mortar	- -	2

Length of the fuze compoſition, $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch; 1 oz. drove or rolled ſtars, as many as will nearly fill the ſhell.

Coehorn balloon of ſerpents.

		oz.
Meal powder	- - -	$1\frac{1}{4}$
Corn powder	- - -	1
Powder for the mortar	- -	$2\frac{1}{4}$

Length of the fuze compoſition 13-16ths of an inch: half-oz. caſes drove 3 diameters and bounced 3 diameters, and half-oz. caſes drove 2 diameters and bounced 4, of each an equal quantity, and as many of them as will fit in eaſily placed head to tail.

Coehorn balloon of crackers and reports.

		oz.
Meal powder	- - -	$1\frac{1}{4}$
Corn powder	- - -	$0\frac{3}{4}$
Powder for the mortar	- -	2

Length of the fuze compoſition $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch. Reports 4, and crackers of 6 bounces as many as will fill the ſhell.

Compound coehorn balloons.

		oz.	dr.
Meal powder	- - -	1	4
Corn powder	- - -	0	12
Powder for the mortar	- -	2	4

Length of the fuze compoſition 13 16ths of an inch: $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. caſes drove $3\frac{1}{2}$ diameters and bounced 2, 16; $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. caſes drove 4 diameters and not bounced 10; blue ſtrung ſtars, 10; rolled ſtars, as many as will complete the balloon.

Royal balloons illuminated.

		oz.	dr.
Meal powder	- - -	1	8
Corn powder	- - -	0	12
Powder for the mortar.	- -	3	0

Length of the fuze compoſition 15-16ths of an inch: 2 oz ſtrung ſtars, 34; rolled ſtars, as many as the ſhell will contain, allowing room for the fuze.

Royal balloons of ſerpents.

		oz.	dr.
Meal powder	- - -	1	0
Corn powder	- - -	1	8
Powder for the mortar	- -	3	8

Length of the fuze compoſition 1 inch: 1 oz. caſes drove $3\frac{1}{2}$ and 4 diameters, and bounced 2, of each an equal quantity, ſufficient to load the ſhell.

Royal balloons with crackers and marrons.

		oz.	dr.
Meal powder	- -	1	8
Corn powder	- -	1	4
Powder for firing the mortar	- -	3	0

Length of the fuze compoſition 14-16ths of an inch; reports 12, and completed with crackers of 8 bounces.

Compound royal balloons.

		oz.	dr.
Meal powder	- -	1	5
Corn powder	- - -	1	6
Powder for the mortar	- -	3	12

Length of the fuze compoſition 1 inch: $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. caſes drove and bounced 2 diameters, 8; 2-ounce caſes filled 3-8ths of an inch with ſtar compoſition, and bounced 2 diameters, 8; ſilver rain-falls, 10; 2 oz. tailed ſtars, 16: rolled brilliant ſtars, 30. If this ſhould not be ſufficient to load the ſhell, you may complete it with gold rain-falls.

Eight-inch balloons illuminated.

		oz.	dr.
Meal powder	- - -	2	8
Corn powder	- - -	1	4
Powder for the mortar	- -	9	0

Length of the fuze compoſition 1 inch 1-8th: 2 oz. drove ſtars, 48; 2 oz. caſes drove with ſtar compoſition 3-8ths of an inch, and bounced 3 diameters, 12; and the balloon completed with 2 oz. drove brilliant ſtars.

Eight-inch balloons of ſerpents.

		oz.	dr.
Meal powder	- -	2	0
Corn powder	- - -	2	0
Powder for the mortar	- -	9	8

Length of the fuze compoſition 1 inch 3-16ths: 2 oz. caſes drove $1\frac{1}{2}$ diameter and bounced 2, and 1 oz. caſes drove 2 diameters and bounced $2\frac{1}{2}$, of each an equal quantity ſufficient for the ſhell.

N. B. The ſtar-compoſition drove in bounced caſes muſt be managed thus: Firſt, the caſes muſt be pinched cloſe at one end, then the corn-powder put in for a report, and the caſe pinched again cloſe to the powder, only leaving a ſmall vent for the ſtar-compoſition, which is drove at top, to communicate to the powder at the bounce end.

Compound eight-inch balloons.

		oz.	dr.
Meal powder	- -	2	8
Corn powder	- - -	1	12
Powder for the mortar	- -	9	4

Length of the fuze compoſition 1-8th: 4 oz. caſes drove with ſtar-compoſition 3-8ths of an inch, and bounced 3 diameters, 16; 2 oz. tailed ſtars, 16; 2 oz. drove brilliant ſtars, 12; ſilver rain-falls, 20; 1 oz. drove blue ſtars, 20; and 1 oz. caſes drove and bounced 2 diameters, as many as will fill the ſhell.

Another of eight inches.

		oz.	dr.
Meal powder	- -	2	8
Corn powder	- - -	1	12
Powder for the mortar	- -	9	4

Length of the fuze compoſition 1 inch 1-8th: crackers of 6 reports, 10; gold rains, 14; 2 oz. caſes drove with ſtar-compoſition 3-8ths of an inch, and bounced 2 diameters, 16; 2 oz. tailed ſtars, 16; 2 oz. drove brilliant ſtars, 12; ſilver rains, 10; 1 oz. drove blue ſtars, 20; and 1 oz. caſes drove with a brilliant charge 2 diameters and bounced 3, as many as the ſhell will hold.

Air-Balloons, &c.

A compound ten-inch balloon.

		oz.	dr.
Meal powder		3	4
Corn powder		2	8
Powder for the mortar		12	8

Length of the fuze composition 15-16ths of an inch: 1 oz. cases drove and bounced 3 diameters, 16. Crackers of 8 reports, 12; 4 oz. cases drove $\frac{1}{2}$ inch with ſtar-compoſition, and bounced 2 diameters, 14; 2 oz. cases drove with brilliant fire $1\frac{1}{4}$ diameter, and bounced 2 diameters, 16; 2 oz. drove brilliant ſtars, 30; 2 oz. drove blue ſtars, 3; goold rains, 20; ſilver rains, 20. After all theſe are put in, fill the remainder of the caſe with tailed and rolled ſtars.

Ten-inch balloons of three charges.

		oz.	dr.
Meal powder		3	0
Corn powder		3	2
Powder for the mortar		13	0

Length of the fuze compoſition 1 inch. The ſhell muſt be loaded with 2 oz. caſes, drove with ſtar compoſition $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch, and on that 1 diameter of gold fire, then bounced 3 diameters; or with 2 oz. caſes firſt filled 1 diameter with gold fire, then $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch with ſtar compoſition, and on that $1\frac{1}{4}$ diameter of brilliant fire. Theſe caſes muſt be well ſecured at top of the charge, leſt they ſhould take fire at both ends; but their necks muſt be larger than the common proportion.

57. *To make Balloon Fuzes.*

Fuzes for air balloons are ſometimes turned out of dry beech, with a cup at top to hold the quick-match, as you ſee in fig. 5. but if made with paſted paper, they will do as well: the diameter of the former for fuzes for cohorn balloons, muſt be $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch; for a royal fuze, 5-8ths of an inch; for an 8-inch fuze, $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch; and for a 10-inch fuze, 7-8ths of an inch. Having rolled your caſes, pinch and tie them almoſt cloſe at one end; then drive them down, and let them dry. Before you begin to fill them, mark on the outſide of the caſe the length of the charge required, allowing for the thickneſs of the bottom; and when you have rammed in the compoſition, take two pieces of quick-match about 6 inches long, and lay one end of each on the charge, and then a little meal-powder, which ram down hard; the looſe ends of the match double up into the top of the fuze, and cover it with a paper cap to keep it dry. When you put the ſhells in the mortars, uncap the fuzes, and pull out the looſe ends of the match, and let them hang on the ſides of the balloons. The uſe of the match is, to receive the fire from the powder in the chamber of the mortar in order to light the fuze: the ſhell being put in the mortar with the fuze uppermoſt, and exactly in the centre, ſprinkle over it a little meal-powder, and it will be ready to be fired. Fuzes made of wood muſt be longer than thoſe of paper, and not bored quite through, but left ſolid about $\frac{1}{8}$ an inch at bottom; and when you uſe them, ſaw them off to a proper length, meaſuring the charge from the cup at top.

Plate CCXLIX.

58. *Tourbillons.*

Having filled ſome caſes within about $1\frac{1}{2}$ diameter, drive in a ladleful of clay; then pinch their ends cloſe, and drive them down with a mallet. When done, find the centre of gravity of each caſe; where you nail and tie a ſtick, which ſhould be $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch broad at the middle, and run a little narrower to the ends: theſe ſticks muſt have their ends turned upwards, ſo that the caſes may turn horizontally on their centres: at the oppoſite ſides of the caſes, at each end, bore a hole cloſe to the clay with a gimblet, the ſize of the neck of a common caſe of the ſame nature; from theſe holes draw a line round the caſe, and at the under part of the caſe bore a hole with the ſame gimblet, within $\frac{1}{2}$ diameter of each line towards the centre; then from one hole to the other draw a right line. This line divide into three equal parts; and at X and Y, fig. 6. bore a hole; then from theſe holes to the other two, lead a quick-match, over which paſte a thin paper. Fig. 7. repreſents a tourbillon as it ſhould lie to be fired, with a leader from one ſide-hole A, to the other B. When you fire tourbillons, lay them on a ſmooth table, with their ſticks downwards, and burn the leader through the middle with a port-fire. They ſhould ſpin three or four ſeconds on the table before they riſe, which is about the time the compoſition will be burning from the ſide-holes to thoſe at bottom.

To tourbillons may be fixed reports in this manner: In the centre of the caſe at top make a ſmall hole, and in the middle of the report make another; then place them together, and tie on the report, and with a ſingle paper ſecure it from fire: this done, your tourbillon is completed. By this method you may fix on tourbillons ſmall cones of ſtars, rains, &c. but be careful not to load them too much. One-eighth of an inch will be enough for the thickneſs of the ſticks, and their length equal to that of the caſes.

59. *To make Mortars to throw Aigrettes, and to load and fire them.*

Mortars to throw aigrettes are generally made of paſteboard, of the ſame thickneſs as balloon mortars, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ diameters long in the inſide from the top of the foot: the foot muſt be made of elm without a chamber, but flat at top, and in the ſame proportion as thoſe for balloon mortars; theſe mortars muſt alſo be bound round with a cord as before-mentioned: ſometimes 8 or 9 of theſe mortars, of about three or four inches diameter, are bound all together ſo as to appear but one: but when they are made for this purpoſe, the bottom of the foot muſt be of the ſame diameter as the mortars, and only $\frac{1}{2}$ diameter high. Your mortars being bound well together, fix them on a heavy ſolid block of wood. To load theſe mortars, firſt put on the inſide bottom of each a piece of paper, and on it ſpread $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of meal and corn powder mixed; then tie your ſerpents up in parcels with quick-match, and put them in the mortar with their mouths downwards; but take care the parcels do not fit too tight in the mortars, and that all the ſerpents have been well primed with powder wetted with ſpirit of wine. On the top of the ſerpents in each mortar lay ſome paper or tow; then carry a leader from one mortar to the other all round, and then from all the outſide mortars into that in the middle: theſe leaders muſt be put between the caſes and the ſides of the mortar, down to the powder at bottom: in the centre of the middle mortar fix a fire-pump, or brilliant fountain, which muſt be open at bottom, and long enough to project out of the mouth of the mortar; then paſte paper on the tops of all the mortars.

Mortars thus prepared are called a *neſt of ſerpents*, as repreſented by fig. 8. When you would fire theſe mor-

Air-Balloons, &c.

mortars, light the fire-pump C, which when consumed will communicate to all the mortars at once by means of the leaders. For mortars of 6, 8, or 10 inches diameter, the serpents should be made in 1 and 2 oz. cases 6 or 7 inches long, and fired by a leader brought out of the mouth of the mortar, and turned down the outside, and the end of it covered with paper, to prevent the sparks of the other works from setting it on fire. For a six-inch mortar, let the quantity of powder for firing be 2 oz.; for an 8-inch, $2\frac{1}{4}$ oz.; and for a 10-inch, $3\frac{1}{2}$ oz. Care must be taken in these, as well as small mortars, not to put the serpents in too tight, for fear of bursting the mortars. These mortars may be loaded with stars, crackers, &c.

If the mortars, when loaded, are sent to any distance, or liable to be much moved, the firing powder should be secured from getting amongst the serpents, which would endanger the mortars, as well as hurt their performance. To prevent which, load your mortars thus: First put in the firing powder, and spread it equally about; then cut a round piece of blue touch-paper, equal to the exterior diameter of the mortar, and draw on it a circle equal to the interior diameter of the mortar, and notch it all round as far as that circle; then paste that part which is notched, and put it down the mortar close to the powder, and stick the pasted edge to the mortar: this will keep the powder always smooth at bottom, so that it may be moved or carried any where, without receiving damage. The large single mortars are called *pots des aigrettes*.

60. *Making, loading, and firing of Pots des Brins.*

These are formed of pasteboard, and must be rolled pretty thick. They are usually made 3 or 4 inches diameter, and 4 diameters long; and pinched with a neck at one end, like common cases. A number of these are placed on a plank thus: Having fixed on a plank two rows of wooden pegs, cut in the bottom of the plank a groove the whole length under each row of pegs; then, through the centre of each peg, bore a hole down to the groove at bottom, and on every peg fix and glue a pot, whose mouth must fit tight on the peg: through all the holes run a quick-match, one end of which must go into the pot, and the other into the groove, which must have a match laid in it from end to end, and covered with paper, so that when lighted at one end it may discharge the whole almost instantaneously: in all the pots put about 1 oz. of meal and corn powder; then in some put stars, and others rains, snakes, serpents, crackers, &c. when they are all loaded, paste paper over their mouths. Two or three hundred of these pots being fired together make a very pretty show, by affording so great a variety of fires. Fig. 9. is a range of pots des brins, with a leader A, by which they are fired.

Plate CCXLIX.

61. *Pots des Saucissons*

Are generally fired out of large mortars without chambers, the same as those for aigrettes, only somewhat stronger. Saucissons are made of 1 and 2 oz. cases, 5 or 6 inches long, and choaked in the same manner as serpents. Half the number which the mortar contains must be drove $1\frac{1}{2}$ diameter with composition, and the other half two diameters, so that when fired they may give two volleys of reports. But if the mortars are very strong, and will bear a sufficient charge to throw the saucissons very high, you may make three volleys of reports, by dividing the number of cases into three parts, and making a difference in the height of the charge. After they are filled, pinch and tie them at top of the charge almost close; only leaving a small vent to communicate the fire to the upper part of the case, which must be filled with corn-powder very near the top; then pinch the end quite close, and tie it: after this is done, bind the case very tight with waxed pack-thread, from the choak at top of the composition to the end of the case; this will make the case very strong in that part, and cause the report to be very loud. Saucissons should be rolled a little thicker of paper than the common proportion. When they are to be put in the mortar, they must be primed in their mouths, and fired by a case of brilliant fire fixed in their centre.

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The charge for these mortars should be 1-6th or 1-8th more than for *pots des aigrettes* of the same diameter.

Sect. IV. *Different kinds of Rockets, with their Appendages and Combinations.*

62. *To fix one Rocket on the top of another.*

When sky-rockets are thus managed, they are called *towering rockets*, on account of their mounting so very high. Towering rockets are made after this manner: Fix on a pound-rocket a head without a collar; then take a 4 oz. rocket, which may be headed or bounced, and rub the mouth of it with meal-powder wetted with spirit of wine: when done, put it in the head of the large rocket with its mouth downwards; but before you put it in, stick a bit of quick-match in the hole of the clay of the pound-rocket, which match should be long enough to go a little way up the bore of the small rocket, to fire it when the large is burnt out: the 4 oz. rocket being too small to fill the head of the other, roll round it as much tow as will make it stand upright in the centre of the head: the rocket being thus fixed, paste a single paper round the opening of the top of the head of the large rocket. The large rocket must have only half a diameter of charge rammed above the piercer; for, if filled to the usual height, it would turn before the small one takes fire, and entirely destroy the intended effect: when one rocket is headed with another there will be no occasion for any blowing powder; for the force with which it sets off will be sufficient to disengage it from the head of the first fired rocket. The sticks for these rockets must be a little longer than for those headed with stars, rains, &c.

63. *Caduceus Rockets,*

In rising, form two spiral lines, or double worm, by reason of their being placed obliquely, one opposite the other; and their counterpoise in their centre, which causes them to rise in a vertical direction. Rockets for this purpose must have their ends choaked close, without either head or bounce, for a weight at top would be a great obstruction to their mounting; though I have known them sometimes to be bounced, but then they did not rise so high as those that were not; nor do any caduceus rockets ascend so high as single, because of their serpentine motion, and likewise the resistance of air, which is much greater than two rockets of the same size would meet with if fired singly.

By 2d fig. 9. you see the method of fixing these rock-

Rockets, &c.

ets: the ſticks for this purpoſe muſt have all their ſides alike, which ſides ſhould be equal to the breadth of a ſtick proper for a ſky-rocket of the ſame weight as thoſe you intend to uſe, and to taper downwards as uſual, long enough to balance them, one length of a rocket from the croſs ſtick; which muſt be placed from the large ſtick 6 diameters of one of the rockets, and its length 7 diameters; ſo that each rocket, when tied on, may form with the large ſtick an angle of 60 degrees. In tying on the rockets, place their heads on the oppoſite ſides of the croſs ſtick, and their ends on the oppoſite ſides of the long ſtick; then carry a leader from the mouth of one into that of the other. When theſe rockets are to be fired, ſuſpend them between two hooks or nails, then burn the leader through the middle, and both will take fire at the ſame time. Rockets of 1 lb. are a good ſize for this uſe.

64. *Honorary Rockets*,

Are the ſame as ſky-rockets, except that they carry no head nor report, but are cloſed at top, on which is fixed a cone; then on the caſe, cloſe to the top of the ſtick, you tie on a 2 oz. caſe, about 5 or 6 inches long, filled with a ſtrong charge, and pinched cloſe at both ends; then in the reverſe ſides, at each end, bore a hole in the ſame manner as in tourbillons; from each hole carry a leader into the top of the rocket. When the rocket is fired, and arrived to its proper height, it will give fire to the caſe at top; which will cauſe both rocket and ſtick to ſpin very faſt in their return, and repreſent a worm of fire deſcending to the ground.

There is another method of placing the ſmall caſe, which is by letting the ſtick riſe a little above the top of the rocket, and tying the caſe to it, ſo as to reſt on the rocket: theſe rockets have no cones.

There is alſo a third method by which they are managed, which is thus: In the top of a rocket fix a piece of wood, in which drive a ſmall iron ſpindle; then make a hole in the middle of the ſmall caſe, through which put the ſpindle; then fix on the top of it a nut, to keep the caſe from falling off; when this is done, the caſe will turn very faſt, without the rocket: but this method does not anſwer ſo well as either of the former.

Fig. 10. is the honorary rocket complete. The beſt fixed rockets for this purpoſe are thoſe of 1 lb.

65. *To divide the Tail of a Sky Rocket ſo as to form an Arch when aſcending.*

Having ſome rockets made, and headed according to fancy, and tied on their ſticks; get ſome ſheet tin, and cut it into round pieces about 3 or 4 inches diameter; then on the ſtick of each rocket, under the mouth of the caſe, fix one of theſe pieces of tin 16 inches from the rocket's neck, and ſupport it by a wooden bracket, as ſtrong as poſſible: the uſe of this is, that when the rocket is aſcending the fire will play with great force on the tin, which will divide the tail in ſuch a manner that it will form an arch as it mounts, and will have a very good effect when well managed: if there is a ſhort piece of port-fire, of a ſtrong charge, tied to the end of the ſtick, it will make a great addition; but this muſt be lighted before you fire the rocket.

66. *To make ſeveral Sky Rockets riſe in the ſame direction, and equally diſtant from each other.*

Take ſix, or any number of ſky rockets, of what ſize you pleaſe, then cut ſome ſtrong pack-thread into pieces of 3 or 4 yards long, and tie each end of theſe pieces to a rocket in this manner: Having tied one end of your pack-thread round the body of one rocket, and the other end to another, take a ſecond piece of pack-thread and make one end of it faſt to one of the rockets already tied, and the other end to a third rocket, ſo that all the rockets, except the two outſide, will be faſtened to two pieces of pack-thread: the length of thread from one rocket to the other may be what the maker pleaſes; but the rockets muſt be all of a ſize, and their heads filled with the ſame weight of ſtars, rains, &c.

Having thus done, fix in the mouth of each rocket a leader of the ſame length; and when you are going to fire them, hang them almoſt cloſe; then tie the ends of the leaders together, and prime them: this prime being fired, all the rockets will mount at the ſame time, and divide as far as the ſtrings will allow; which diviſion they will keep, provided they are all rammed alike, and well made. They are called by ſome *chained rockets*.

67. *Signal Sky Rockets*

Are made of ſeveral kinds, according to the different ſignals intended to be given: but in artificial fireworks, two ſorts are only uſed, which are one with reports and the other without; but thoſe for the uſe of the navy and army are headed with ſtars, ſerpents, &c.——Rockets which are to be bounced muſt have their caſes made $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 diameters longer than the common proportion; and after they are filled, drive in a double quantity of clay, then bounce and pinch them after the uſual manner, and fix on each a cap.

Signal ſky-rockets without bounces, are only ſky-rockets cloſed and capped: theſe are very light, therefore do not require ſuch heavy ſticks as thoſe with loaded heads; for which reaſon you may cut one length of the rocket off the ſtick, or elſe make them thinner.

Signal rockets with reports, are fired in ſmall flights; and often both theſe, and thoſe without reports, are uſed for a ſignal to begin firing a collection of works.

68. *To fix a Sky Rocket with its ſtick on the top of another.*

Rockets thus managed make a pretty appearance, by reaſon of a freſh tail being ſeen when the ſecond rocket takes fire, which will mount to a great height. The method of preparing theſe rockets is thus: Having filled a two-pounder, which muſt be filled only half a diameter above the piercer, and its head not more than 10 or 12 ſtars; the ſtick of this rocket muſt be made a little thicker than common; and when made, cut it in half the flat way, and in each half make a groove, ſo that, when the 2 halves are joined, the hollow made by the grooves may be large enough to hold the ſtick of a half-pound rocket; which rocket make and head as uſual: put the ſtick of this rocket into the hollow of the large one, ſo far that the mouth of the rocket may reſt on the head of the two-pounder; from whoſe head carry a leader into the mouth of the ſmall rocket; which being done, your rockets will be ready for firing.

2d 68. *To fix two or more Sky Rockets on one ſtick.*

Two, three, or ſix ſky-rockets, fixed on one ſtick, and fired together, make a grand and beautiful appearance; for the tails of all will ſeem but as one of an immenſe ſize, and the breaking of ſo many heads at once

Rockets, &c.

once will resemble the bursting of an air balloon. The management of this device requires a skilful hand; but if the following instructions be well observed, even by those who have not made a great progress in this art, there will be no doubt of the rockets having the desired effect.

Rockets for this purpose must be made with the greatest exactness, all rammed by the same hand, in the same mould, and out of the one proportion of composition; and after they are filled and headed, must all be of the same weight. The stick must also be well made (and proportioned) to the following directions: first, supposing your rockets to be $\frac{1}{2}$ pounders, whose sticks are 6 feet 6 inches long, then if 2, 3, or 6 of these are to be fixed on 1 stick, let the length of it be 9 feet 9 inches; then cut the top of it into as many sides as there are rockets, and let the length of each side be equal to the length of 1 of the rockets without its head; and in each side cut a groove (as usual); then from the grooves plane it round, down to the bottom, where its thickness must be equal to half the top of the round part. As their thickness cannot be exactly ascertained, we shall give a rule which generally answers for any number of rockets above two: the rule is this; that the stick at top must be thick enough, when the grooves are cut, for all the rockets to lie, without pressing each other, though as near as possible.

When only 2 rockets are to be fixed on 1 stick, let the length of the stick be the last given proportion, but shaped after the common method, and the breadth and thickness double the usual dimensions. The point of poise must be in the usual place, (let the number of rockets be what they will:) if sticks made by the above directions should be too heavy, plane them thinner; and if too light, make them thicker; but always make them of the same length.

When more than two rockets are tied on one stick, there will be some danger of their flying up without the stick, unless the following precaution is taken: For cases being placed on all sides, there can be no notches for the cord which ties on the rockets to lie in; therefore, instead of notches, drive a small nail in each side of the stick, between the necks of the cases; and let the cord, which goes round their necks, be brought close under the nails; by this means the rockets will be as secure as when tied on singly. Your rockets being thus fixed, carry a quick-match, without a pipe, from the mouth of one rocket to the other; this match being lighted will give fire to all at once.

Though the directions already given may be sufficient for these rockets, we shall here add an improvement on a very essential part of this device, which is, that of hanging the rockets to be fired; for before the following method was hit upon, many essays proved unsuccessful. Instead, therefore, of the old and common manner of hanging them on nails or hooks, make use of this contrivance: Have a ring made of strong iron wire, large enough for the stick to go in as far as the mouths of the rockets; then let this ring be supported by a small iron, at some distance from the post or stand to which it is fixed; then have another ring, fit to receive and guide the small end of the stick. Rockets thus suspended will have nothing to obstruct their fire; but when they are hung on nails or hooks, in such a manner that some of their mouths are against or upon a rail, there can be no certainty of their rising in a vertical direction.

69. *To fire Sky-rockets without Sticks.*

You must have a stand, of a block of wood, a foot diameter, and make the bottom flat, so that it may stand steady: in the centre of the top of this block draw a circle $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter, and divide the circumference of it into three equal parts; then take 3 pieces of thick iron wire, each about 3 feet long, and drive them into the block, 1 at each point made on the circle; when these wires are drove in deep enough to hold them fast and upright, so that the distance from one to the other is the same at top as at bottom, the stand is complete.

The stand being thus made, prepare your rockets thus: Take some common sky-rockets, of any size, and head them as you please; then get some balls of lead, and tie to each a small wire 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet long, and the other end of each wire tie to the neck of a rocket. These balls answer the purpose of sticks when made of a proper weight, which is about 2-3ds the weight of the rocket; but when they are of a proper size, they will balance the rocket in the same manner as a stick, at the usual point of poise. To fire these, hang them, one at a time, between the tops of the wires, letting their heads rest on the point of the wires, and the balls hang down between them: if the wires should be too wide for the rockets, press them together till they fit; and if too close, force them open: the wires for this purpose must be softened, so as not to have any spring, or they will not keep their position when pressed close or opened.

70. *Rain falls and Stars for Sky-rockets, Double and Single.*

Gold and silver rain compositions are drove in cases that are pinched quite close at one end: if you roll them dry, 4 or 5 rounds of paper will be strong enough; but if they are pasted, 3 rounds will do; and the thin sort of cartridge-paper is best for those small cases, which in rolling you must not turn down the inside edge as in other cases, for a double edge would be too thick for so small a bore. The moulds for rain-falls should be made of brass, and turned very smooth in the inside; or the cases, which are so very thin, would tear in coming out; for the charge must be drove in tight; and the better the case fits the mould, the more driving it will bear. These moulds have no nipple, but instead thereof they are made flat. As it would be very tedious and troublesome to shake the composition out of such small ladles as are used for these cases, it will be necessary to have a funnel made of thin tin, to fit on the top of the case, by the help of which you may fill them very fast. For single rain-falls for 4 oz. rockets, let the diameter of the former be 2-16ths of an inch, and the length of the case 2 inches; for 8 oz. rockets, 4-16ths and 2 diameters of the rocket long; for 1 lb. rockets, 5-16ths, and 2 diameters of the rocket long; for 2 lb. rockets, 5-16ths, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long; for 4 lb. rockets, 6-16ths, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches long; and for 6-pounders, 7-16ths diameter, and 5 inches long.

Of double rain-falls there are 2 sorts. For example,

Rockets, &c.

ample, some appear first like a star, and then as rain; and some appear first as rain, and then like a star. When you would have stars first, you must fill the cases, within $\frac{1}{4}$ inch of the top, with rain-composition, and the remainder with star-composition; but when you intend the rain should be first, drive the case $\frac{1}{4}$ an inch with star-composition, and the rest with rain. By this method may be made many changes of fire; for in large rockets you may make them first burn as stars, then rain, and again as stars; or they may first show rain, then stars, and finish with a report; but when they are thus managed, cut open the first rammed end, after they are filled and bounced, at which place prime them. The star-composition for this purpose must be a little stronger than for rolled stars.

Strung stars. First take some thin paper, and cut it into pieces of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch square, or thereabouts; then on each piece lay as much dry star-composition as you think the paper will easily contain; then twist up the paper as tight as you can; when done, rub some paste on your hands, and roll the stars between them; then set them to dry: your stars being thus made, get some flax or fine tow, and roll a little of it over each star; then paste your hands and roll the stars as before, and set them again to dry; when they are quite dry, with a piercer make a hole through the middle of each, into which run a cotton quick-match, long enough to hold 10 or 12 stars at 3 or 4 inches distance: but any number of stars may be strung together by joining the match.

Tailed stars. These are called *tailed stars*, because there are a great number of sparks issue from them, which represent a tail like that of a comet. Of these there are two sorts, which are *rolled* and *drove*: when rolled, they must be moistened with a liquor made of half a pint of spirit of wine, and half a gill of thin size, of this as much as will wet the composition enough to make it roll easy; when they are rolled, sift meal-powder over them, and set them to dry.

When tailed stars are drove, the composition must be moistened with spirit of wine only, and not made so wet as for rolling: 1 and 2 oz. cases, rolled dry, are best for this purpose; and when they are filled, unroll the case within 3 or 4 rounds of the charge, and all that you unroll cut off; then paste down the loose edge: 2 or 3 days after the cases are filled, cut them in pieces 5 or 6-8ths of an inch in length; then melt some wax, and dip one end of each piece into it, so as to cover the composition: the other end must be rubbed with meal-powder wetted with spirit of wine.

Drove stars. Cases for drove stars are rolled with paste, but are made very thin of paper. Before you begin to fill them, damp the composition with spirit of wine that has had some camphor dissolved in it: you may ram them indifferently hard, so that you do not break or sack the case; to prevent which, they should fit tight in the mould. They are drove in cases of several sizes, from 8 drams to 4 oz. When they are filled in $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. cases, cut them in pieces of $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch long; if 1 oz. cases, cut them in pieces of 1 inch; if 2 oz. cases, cut them in pieces of $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long; and if 4 oz. cases, cut them in pieces of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long: having cut your stars of a proper size, prime both ends with wet meal-powder. These stars are seldom put in rockets, they being chiefly intended for air balloons, and drove in cases, to prevent the composition from being broke by the force of the blowing powder in the shell.

Rolling stars are commonly made about the size of a musket-ball: though they are rolled of several sizes, from the bigness of a pistol-ball to 1 inch diameter: and sometimes very small, but are then called *sparks*. Great care must be taken in making stars, first, that the several ingredients are reduced to a fine powder; secondly, that the composition is well worked and mixed. Before you begin to roll, take about a pound of composition, and wet it with the following liquid, enough to make it stick together and roll easy: Spirit of wine 1 quart, in which dissolve $\frac{1}{4}$ of an ounce of isinglass. If a great quantity of composition be wetted at once, the spirit will evaporate, and leave it dry, before you can roll it into stars: having rolled up one proportion, shake the stars in meal-powder, and set them to dry, which they will do in 3 or 4 days; but if you should want them for immediate use, dry them in an earthen pan over a slow heat, or in an oven. It is very difficult to make the stars all of an equal size, when the composition is taken up promiscuously with the fingers; but by the following method they may be made them very exact: When the mixture is moistened properly, roll it on a flat smooth stone, and cut it into square pieces, making each square large enough for the stars you intend. There is another method used by some to make stars, which is by rolling the composition in long pieces, and then cutting off the star, so that each star will be of a cylindrical form: but this method is not so good as the former; for, to make the composition roll this way, it must be made very wet, which makes the stars heavy, as well as weakens them. All stars must be kept as much from air as possible, otherwise they will grow weak and bad.

71. *Scrolls for Sky Rockets.*

Cases for scrolls should be made 4 or 5 inches in length, and their interior diameter 3-8ths of an inch: one end of these cases must be pinched quite close, before you begin to fill; and when filled, close the other end: then in the opposite sides make a small hole at each end, to the composition, in the same manner as in tourbillons; and prime them with wet meal-powder. You may put in the head of a rocket as many of these cases as it will contain: being fired they turn very quick in the air, and form a scroll or spiral line. They are generally filled with a strong charge, as that of serpents, or brilliant fire.

72. *Swarmers, or small Rockets.*

Rockets that go under the denomination of *swarmers*, are those from 2 oz. downwards. These rockets are fired sometimes in flights, and in large waterworks, &c. Swarmers of 1 and 2 oz. are bored, and made in the same manner as large rockets, except that, when headed, their heads must be put on without a collar: the number of strokes for driving 1 oz. must be 8, and for 2 oz. 12.

All rockets under 1 oz. are not bored, but must be filled to the usual height with composition, which generally consists of fine meal-powder 4 oz. and charcoal or steel-dust 2 drams: the number of strokes for ramming these small swarmers is not material, provided they

Rockets, &c.

they are rammed true, and moderately hard. The necks of unbored rockets muſt be in the ſame proportion as in common caſes.

73. *Stands for Sky-Rockets.*

Care muſt be taken, in placing the rockets when they are to be fired, to give them a vertical direction at their firſt ſetting out; which may be managed thus. Have two rails of wood, of any length, ſupported at each end by a perpendicular leg, ſo that the rails be horizontal, and let the diſtance from one to the other be almoſt equal to the length of the ſticks of the rockets intended to be fired; then in the front of the top rail drive ſquare hooks at 8 inches diſtance, with their points turning ſideways, ſo that when the rockets are hung on them, the points will be before the ſticks and keep them from falling or being blown off by the wind: in the front of the rail at bottom muſt be ſtaples, drove perpendicular under the hooks at top; through theſe ſtaples put the ſmall ends of the rocket-ſticks. Rockets are fired by applying a lighted port-fire to their mouths.

N. B. When ſky-rockets are made to perfection, and fired, they will ſtand 2 or 3 ſeconds on the hook before they riſe, and then mount up briſkly, with a ſteady motion, carrying a large tail from the ground all the way up, and juſt as they turn break and diſperſe the ſtars.

74. *Girandole Cheſts, for Flights of Rockets.*

There are generally compoſed of four ſides, of equal dimenſions; but may be made of any diameter, according to the number of rockets deſigned to be fired; its height muſt be in proportion to the rockets, but muſt always be a little higher than the rockets with their ſticks. When the ſides are joined, fix in the top, as far down the cheſt as the length of one of the rockets with its cap on. In this top, make as many ſquare or round holes to receive the rocket-ſticks, as you intend to have rockets; but let the diſtance between them be ſufficient for the rockets to ſtand without touching one another; then from one hole to another cut a groove large enough for a quick-match to lie in: the top being thus fixed, put in the bottom, at about $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot diſtance from the bottom of the cheſt; in this bottom muſt be as many holes as in the top, and all to correſpond; but theſe holes need not be ſo large as thoſe in the top.

To prepare your cheſt, you muſt lay a quick-match, in all the grooves, from hole to hole; than take ſome ſky-rockets, and rub them in the mouth with wet meal-powder, and put a bit of match up the cavity of each, which match muſt be long enough to hang a little below the mouth of the rocket. Your rockets and cheſt being prepared according to the above directions, put the ſticks of the rockets through the holes in the top and bottom of the cheſt, ſo that their mouths may reſt on the quick-match in the grooves: by which all the rockets will be fired at once; for by giving fire to any part of the match, it will communicate to all the rackets in an inſtant. As it would be rather troubleſome to direct the ſticks from the top to the proper holes in the bottom, it will be neceſſary to have a ſmall door in one of the ſides, which when opened, you may ſee how to place the ſticks. Flights of rockets being ſeldom ſet off at the beginning of any fireworks, they are in danger of being fired by the ſparks from wheels, &c. therefore, to preſerve them, a cover ſhould be made to fit on the cheſt, and the door in the ſide kept ſhut.

75. *Serpents or Snakes for Pots of Aigrettes, ſmall Mortars, Sky-Rockets, &c.*

Serpents for this uſe are made from $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches to 7 inches long, and their formers from 3-16ths to 5-8ths of an inch diameter; but the diameter of the caſes muſt always be equal to 2 diameters of the former. They are rolled and choaked like other caſes, and filled with compoſition from 5-8ths of an inch to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch high, according to the ſize of the mortars or rockets they are deſigned for; and the remainder of the caſes bounced with corn-powder, and afterwards their ends pinched and tied cloſe: before they are uſed, their mouths muſt be primed with wet meal-powder.

76. *Leaders, or Pipes of Communication.*

The beſt paper for leaders is elephant; which you cut into long ſlips 2 or 3 inches broad, ſo that they may go 3 or 4 times round the former, but not more: when they are very thick, they are too ſtrong for the paper which faſtens them to the works, and will ſometimes fly off without leading the fire. The formers for theſe leaders are made from 2 to 6 16ths of an inch diameter; but 4-16ths is the ſize generally made uſe of. The formers are made of ſmooth braſs wire: when you uſe them, rub them over with greaſe, or keep them wet with paſte, to prevent their ſticking to the paper, which muſt be paſted all over. In rolling of pipes, make uſe of a rolling-board, but uſe it lightly: having rolled a pipe, draw out the former with one hand, holding the pipe as light as poſſible with the other; for if it preſs againſt the former, it will ſtick and tear the paper.

N.B. Make your leaders of different lengths, or in clothing of works you will cut a great many to waſte. Leaders for marron batteries muſt be made of ſtrong cartridge paper.

77. *Crackers.*

Cut ſome cartridge paper into pieces $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad, and 1 foot long; one edge of each fold down lengthwiſe about $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch broad; then fold the double edge down $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch, and turn the ſingle edge back half over the double fold; then open it, and lay all along the channel, which is formed by the folding of the paper, ſome meal-powder; then fold it over and over till all the paper is doubled up, rubbing it down every turn; this done, bend it backwards and forwards, $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches, or thereabouts, at a time, as oft as the paper will allow; then hold all theſe folds flat and cloſe, and with a ſmall pinching cord give one turn round the middle of the cracker, and pinch it cloſe; then bind it with a pack-thread as tight as you can; then, in the place where it was pinched, prime one end of it, and cap it with touch-paper. When theſe crackers are fired, they will give a report at every turn of the paper: if you would have a great number of bounces, you muſt cut the paper longer, or join them after they are made; but if they are made very long before they are pinched, you muſt have a piece of wood with a groove in it, deep enough to let in half the cracker; this will hold it ſtraight while it is pinching. Fig. 12, repreſents a cracker complete.

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83. *Chineſe*

Rockets, &c.

78. *Single Reports.*

Cases for reports are generally rolled on 1 and 2 oz. formers, and seldom made larger but on particular occasions; they are made from 2 to 4 inches long, and very thick of paper. Having rolled a case, pinch one end quite close, and drive it down: then fill the case with corn-powder, only leaving room to pinch it at top; but before you pinch it, put in a piece of paper at top of the powder. Reports are fired by a vent, bored in the middle, or at one end, just as required.

79. *Marrons.*

Formers for marrons are from $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch to $1\frac{1}{4}$ diameter. Cut the paper for the cases twice the diameter of the former broad, and long enough to go three times round: when you have rolled a case, paste down the edge and tie one end close; then with the former drive it down to take away the wrinkles, and make it flat at bottom; then fill the case with corn-powder 1 diameter and $\frac{1}{4}$ high, and fold down the rest of the case tight on the powder. The marron being thus made, wax some strong pack-thread with shoemakers wax; this thread wind up in a ball, then unwind two or three yards of it, and that part which is near the ball make fast to a hook; then take a marron, and stand as far from the hook as the pack-thread will reach, and wind it lengthwise round the marron as close as you can, till it will hold no more that way; then turn it, and wind the pack-thread on the short way, then lengthwise again, and so on till the paper is all covered; then make fast the end of the pack-thread, and beat down both ends of the marron to bring it in shape. The method of firing marrons is by making a hole at one end with an awl, and putting in a piece of quick-match; then take a piece of strong paper, in which wrap up the marron with two leaders, which must be put down to the vent, and the paper tied tight round them with small twine: these leaders are bent on each side, and their loose ends tied to other marrons, and are nailed in the middle to the rail of the stand, as in fig. 13. The use of winding the pack-thread in a ball is, that you may let it out as you want it, according to the quantity the marron may require; and that it may not be tied in knots, which would spoil the marron.

80. *Marron Batteries,*

If well managed, will keep time to a march, or a slow piece of music. Marrron batteries are made of several stands, with a number of cross rails for the marrons; which are regulated by leaders, by cutting them of different lengths, and nailing them tight or loose according to the time of the music. In marron batteries you must use the large and small marrons, and the nails for the pipes must have flat heads.

81. *Line Rockets,*

Are made and drove as the sky-rockets, but have no heads, and the cases must be cut close to the clay: they are sometimes made with 6 or 7 changes, but in general not more than 4 or 5. The method of managing those rockets is thus: First, have a piece of light wood, the length of one of the rockets, turned round about $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter, with a hole through the middle lengthwise, large enough for the line to go easily through: if you design four changes, have four grooves cut in the swivel, one opposite the other, to lay the rockets in.

The mouths of the rockets being rubbed with wet meal-powder, lay them in the grooves head to tail, and tie them fast; from the tail of the first rocket carry a leader to the mouth of the second, and from the second to the third, and so on to as many as there are on the swivel, making every leader very secure; but in fixing these pipes, take care that the quick-match does not enter the bores of the rockets: the rockets being fixed on the swivel and ready to be fired, have a line 100 yards long, stretched and fixed up tight, at any height from the ground; but be sure to place it horizontal: this length of line will do for $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. rockets; but if larger, the line must be longer. Before you put up the line, put one end of it through the swivel; and when you fire the line rocket, let the mouth of that rocket which you fire first face that end of the line where you stand; then the first rocket will carry the rest to the other end of the line, and the second will bring them back; and so they will run out and in according to the number of rockets: at each end of the line there must be a piece of flat wood for the rocket to strike against, or its force will cut the line. Let the line be well soaped, and the hole in the swivel very smooth.

82. *Different decorations for Line Rockets.*

To line rockets may be fixed great variety of figures, such as flying dragons, Mercuries, ships, &c. Or they may be made to run on the line like a wheel; which is done in this manner. Have a flat swivel made very exact, and on it tie two rockets obliquely, one on each side, which will make it turn round all the way it goes, and form a circle of fire; the charge for these rockets should be a little weaker than common. If you would show two dragons fighting, get two swivels made square, and on each tie three rockets together on the under side; then have two flying dragons made of tin, and fix one of them on the top of each swivel, so as to stand upright; in the mouth of each dragon put a small case of common fire, and another at the end of the tail; you may put two or three port-fires, of a strong charge, on one side of their bodies, to show them. This done, put them on the line, one at each end; but let there be a swivel in the middle of the line to keep the dragons from striking together: before you fire the rockets, light the cases on the dragons; and if care be taken in firing both at the same time, they will meet in the middle of the line, and seem to fight. Then they will run back and return with great violence; which will have a very pleasing effect. The line for these rockets must be very long, or they will strike too hard together.

83. *Chinese Flyers.*

Cases for flyers may be made of different sizes, from 1 to 8 oz.: they must be made thick of paper, and 8 interior diameters long; they are rolled in the same manner as tourbillons, with a straight pasted edge, and pinched close at one end. The method of filling them is, the case being put in a mould, whose cylinder, or foot, must be flat at top without a nipple, fill it within $\frac{1}{4}$ a diameter of the middle; then ram in $\frac{1}{4}$ a diameter of clay, on that as much composition as before, on which drive $\frac{1}{4}$ a diameter of clay; then pinch the case close, and drive it down flat: after this is done bore a hole exactly thro' the centre of the clay in the middle; then in the opposite sides, at both ends, make a vent; and in that side you intend to fire first make a small hole to the composition near the clay in the middle, from

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from which carry a quick-match, covered with a single paper, to the vent at the other end; then, when the charge is burnt on one side, it will, by means of the quick-match, communicate to the charge on the other, (which may be of a different sort). The flyers being thus made, put an iron pin, that must be fixed in the work on which they are to be fired, and on which they are to run, through the hole in the middle; on the end of this pin must be a nut to keep the flyer from running off. If you would have them turn back again after they are burnt, make both the vents at the ends on the same side, which will alter its course the contrary way.

84. *Table Rockets*,

Are designed merely to show the truth of driving, and the judgment of a fire-worker, they having no other effect, when fired, than spinning round in the same place where they begin, till they are burnt out, and showing nothing more than an horizontal circle of fire.

The method of making these rockets is—Have a cone turned out of hard wood $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter, and as much high; round the base of it draw a line; on this line fix four spokes, two inches long each, so as to stand one opposite the other; then fill 4 nine-inch 1 lb cases with any strong composition, within 2 inches of the top: these cases are made like tourbillons, and must be rammed with the greatest exactness.

Your rockets being filled, fix their open ends on the short spokes; then in the side of each case bore a hole near the clay; all these holes, or vents, must be so made that the fire of each case may act the same way; from these vents carry leaders to the top of the cone, and tie them together. When you would fire the rockets, set them on a smooth table, and light the leaders in the middle, and all the cases will fire together (see fig. 14.) and spin on the point of the cone.

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These rockets may be made to rise like tourbillons, by making the cases shorter, and boring four holes in the under side of each at equal distances: this being done, they are called *double tourbillons*.

Note, All the vents in the under side of the cases must be lighted at once; and the sharp point of the cone cut off, at which place make it spherical.

Sect. V. *Of Wheels and other Works.*

85. *Single Vertical Wheels.*

There are different sorts of vertical wheels; some having their fells of a circular form, others of an hexagon, octagon, or decagon form, or any number of sides, according to the length of the cases you design for the wheel: your spokes being fixed in the nave, nail slips of tin, with their edges turned up, so as to form grooves for the cases to lie in, from the end of one spoke to another; then tie your cases in the grooves head to tail, in the same manner as those on the horizontal water-wheel, so that the cases successively taking fire from one another, will keep the wheel in an equal rotation. Two of these wheels are very oft fired together, one on each side of a building; and both lighted at the same time, and all the cases filled alike, to make them keep time together; which they will do if made by the following directions. In all the cases of both wheels, except the first, on each wheel drive two or three ladles full of slow fire, in any part of the cases; but be careful to ram the same quantity in each case, and in the end of one of the cases, on each wheel, you may ram one ladle full of dead-fire composition, which must be very lightly drove; you may also make many changes of fire by this method.

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Let the hole in the nave of the wheel be lined with brass, and made to turn on a smooth iron spindle. On the end of this spindle let there be a nut, to screw off and on; when you have put the wheel on the spindle, screw on the nut, which will keep the wheel from flying off. Let the mouth of the first case be a little raised. See fig. 15. Vertical wheels are made from 10 inches to 3 feet diameter, and the size of the cases must differ accordingly; 4-oz. cases will do for wheels of 14 or 16 inches diameter, which is the proportion generally used. The best wood for wheels of all sorts, is a light and dry beech.

86. *Horizontal Wheels*,

Are best when their fells are made circular; in the middle of the top of the nave must be a pintle, turned out of the same piece as the nave, two inches long, and equal in diameter to the bore of one of the cases of the wheel: there must be a hole bored up the centre of the nave, within half an inch of the top of the pintle. The wheel being made, nail at the end of each spoke (of which there should be 6 or 8) a piece of wood, with a groove cut in it to receive the case. Fix these pieces in such a manner that half the cases may incline upwards and half downwards, and that, when they are tied on, their heads and tails may come very near together; from the tail of one case to the mouth of the other carry a leader, which secure with pasted paper. Besides these pipes, it will be necessary to put a little meal-powder inside the pasted paper, to blow off the pipe, that there may be no obstruction to the fire from the cases. By means of these pipes the cases will successively take fire, burning one upwards and the other downwards. On the pintle fix a case of the same sort as those on the wheel; this case must be fired by a leader from the mouth of the last case on the wheel, which case must play downwards: instead of a common case in the middle, you may put a case of Chinese fire, long enough to burn as long as two or three of the cases on the wheel.

Horizontal wheels are oft fired two at a time, and made to keep time like vertical wheels, only they are made without any slow or dead fire; 10 or 12 inches will be enough for the diameter of wheels with 6 spokes. Fig. 16. represents a wheel on fire, with the first case burning.

87. *Spiral Wheels*,

Are only double horizontal wheels, and made thus: The nave must be about 6 inches long, and somewhat thicker than the single sort; instead of the pintle at top, make a hole for the case to be fixed in, and two sets of spokes, one set near the top of the nave, and the other near the bottom. At the end of each spoke cut a groove wherein you tie the cases, there being no fell; the spokes should not be more than $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long from the nave, so that the wheel may not be more than 8 or 9 inches diameter; the cases are placed in such a manner, that those at top play down and those at bottom play up, but let the third or fourth case play horizontally. The case in the middle may begin with any of the

Of Wheels, &c.

the others you please: 6 spokes will be enough for each set, so that the wheel may consist of 12 cases, besides that on the top: the cases 6 inches each.

88. *Plural Wheels,*

Are made to turn horizontally, and to consist of three sets of spokes, placed 6 at top, 6 at bottom, and 4 in the middle, which must be a little shorter than the rest: let the diameter of the wheel be 20 inches; the cases must be tied on the ends of the spokes in grooves cut on purpose, or in pieces of wood nailed on the ends of the spokes, with grooves cut in them as usual: in clothing these wheels, make the upper set of cases play obliquely downwards, the bottom set obliquely upwards, and the middle set horizontally. In placing the leaders, you must order it so that the cases may burn thus, *viz.* first up, then down, then horizontal, and so on with the rest. But another change may be made, by driving in the end of the 8th case two or three ladles full of slow fire, to burn till the wheel has stopped its course; then let the other cases be fixed the contrary way, which will make the wheel run back again: for the case at top you may put a small gerbe; and let the cases on the spokes be short, and filled with a strong brilliant charge.

89. *Illuminated Spiral Wheel.*

First have a circular horizontal wheel made two feet diameter, with a hole quite through the nave; then take three thin pieces of deal, three feet long each, and $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch broad each: one end of each of these pieces nail to the fell of the wheel, at an equal distance from one another, and the other end nail to a block with a hole in its bottom, which must be perpendicular with that in the block of the wheel, but not so large. The wheel being thus made, have a hoop planed down very thin and flat; then nail one end of it to the fell of the wheel, and wind it round the three sticks in a spiral line from the wheel to the block at top: on the top of this block fix a case of Chinese fire; on the wheel you may place any number of cases, which must incline downwards, and burn two at a time. If the wheel should consist of 10 cases, you may let the illuminations and Chinese fire begin with the second cases. The spindle for this wheel must be a little longer than the cone, and made very smooth at top, on which the upper block is to turn, and the whole weight of the wheel to rest. See fig. 17.

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90. *Double Spiral Wheel.*

For this wheel the block, or nave, must be as long as the height of the worms, or spiral lines, but must be made very thin, and as light as possible. In this block must be fixed several spokes, which must diminish in length, from the wheel to the top, so as not to exceed the surface of a cone of the same height. To the ends of these spokes nail the worms, which must cross each other several times: these worms clothe with illuminations, the same as those on the single wheels; but the horizontal wheel you may clothe as you like. At top of the worm place a case of spur-fire, or an amber light. See fig. 18. This figure is shown without leaders, to prevent a confusion of lines.

91. *Balloon Wheels,*

Are made to turn horizontally: they must be made 2 feet diameter, without any spokes; and very strong, with any number of sides. On the top of a wheel range and fix in pots, 3 inches diameter and 7 inches high each, as many of these as there are cases on the wheel: near the bottom of each pot make a small vent; into each of these vents carry a leader from the tail of each case; some of the pots load with stars, and some with serpents, crackers, &c. As the wheels turn, the pots will successively be fired, and throw into the air a great variety of fires.

92. *Fruiloni Wheels.*

First have a nave made 9 inches long and 3 in diameter: near the bottom of this nave fix 8 spokes, with a hole in the end of each, large enough to receive a 2 or 4 ounce case: each of these spokes may be 14 inches long from the block. Near the top of this block fix 8 more of the same spokes, exactly over the others, but not so long by 2 inches. As this wheel is to run horizontally, all the cases in the spokes must play obliquely upwards, and all them in the spokes at bottom obliquely downwards. This being done, have a small horizontal wheel made with 8 spokes, each 5 inches long from the block: on the top of this wheel place a case of brilliant fire: all the cases on this wheel must play in an oblique direction downwards, and burn 2 at a time, and those on the large wheel 4 at a time; that is, 2 of those in the top set of spokes, and 2 of those in the bottom set of spokes.

The 4 first cases on the large wheel, and the 2 first on the small, must be fired at the same time, and the brilliant fire at top, at the beginning of the last cases. The cases of the wheels may be filled with a grey charge. When these wheels are completed, you must have a strong iron spindle, made 4 feet 6 inches long, and fixed perpendicular on the top of a stand: on this put the large wheel, whose nave must have a hole quite through from the bottom to the top. This hole must be large enough to turn easy round the bottom of the spindle, at which place there must be a shoulder, to keep the wheel from touching the stand: at the top of the spindle put the small wheel, and join it to a large one with a leader, in order to fire them both together.

93. *Cascades of Fire,*

Are made of any size; but one made according to the dimensions of that shewn in fig. 1. will be large enough for 8-oz. cases. Let the distance from A to B, be 3 feet; from B to C, 2 feet 6 inches; and from CD, 2 feet; and let the cross piece at A, be 4 feet long: then from each end of this piece, draw a line to D; then make the other cross pieces so long as to come within those lines. The top piece D may be of any length, so as to hold the cases, at a little distance from each other; all the cross pieces are fixed horizontally, and supported by brackets; the bottom cross piece should be about 1 foot 6 inches broad in the middle, the second 1 foot, the third 9 inches, and the top piece 4 inches: the cases may be made of any length, but must be filled with a brilliant charge. On the edges of the cross pieces must be nailed bits of wood, with a groove cut in each piece, large enough for a case to lie in. These bits of wood are fixed so as to incline downwards, and that the fire from one tier of cases may play over the other. All the cases being tied fast on, carry leaders from one to the other; and let there be a pipe hung from the mouth of one of the cases, covered at the end with a single paper, which you burn to fire the cascade.

Plate CCL.

94. *The*

Of Wheels, &c.

Plate CCL.

94. *The Fire-Tree.*

To make a fire-tree, as shewn by fig. 2. you must first have a piece of wood 6 feet long, and 3 inches square; then at E, 9 inches from the top, make a hole in the front, and in each side; or, instead of holes, you may fix short pegs, to fit the inside of the cases. At F, 9 inches from E, fix 3 more pegs; at G, 1 foot 9 inches from F, fix 3 pegs; at H, 9 inches from G, fix 3 pegs; at I, 9 inches from H, fix 3 pegs, inclining downwards; but all the other pegs must incline upwards, that the cases may have the same inclination as you see in the figure: then at top place a 4-inch mortar, loaded with stars, rains, or crackers. In the middle of this mortar place a case filled with any sort of charge, but let it be fired with the other cases: a brilliant charge will do for all the cases; but the mortar may be made of any diameter, and the tree of any size; and on it any number of cases, provided they are placed in the manner described.

95. *Chinese Fountains.*

To make a Chinese fountain, you must have a perpendicular piece of wood 7 feet long and $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches square. Sixteen inches from the top, fix on the front a cross-piece 1 inch thick, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad, with the broad side up: below this, fix 3 more pieces of the same width and thickness, at 16 inches from each other: let the bottom rail be 5 feet long, and the others of such a length as to allow the fire-pumps to stand in the middle of the intervals of each other. The pyramid being thus made, fix in the holes made in the bottom rail, 5 fire-pumps, at equal distances; on the 2d rail, place 4 pumps; on the 3d, 3; on the 4th, 2; and on the top of the post, 1; but place them all to incline a little forwards, that, when they throw out the stars, they may not strike against the cross rails. Having fixed your fire pumps, clothe them with leaders, so that they may all be fired together. See fig. 3.

96. *Of illuminated Globes with horizontal Wheels.*

The hoops for these globes may be made of wood, tin, or iron wire, about 2 feet diameter. For a single globe take 2 hoops, and tie them together, one within the other, at right angles; then have a horizontal wheel made, whose diameter must be a little wider than the globe, and its nave 6 inches long; on the top of which the globe is fixed, so as to stand 3 or 4 inches from the wheel: on this wheel you may put any number of cases, filled with what charge you like; but let 2 of them burn at a time: they may be placed horizontally, or to incline downwards, just as you choose. Now, when the wheel is clothed, fix on the hoops as many illuminations as will stand within $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches of each other: these you fasten on the hoops with small iron binding wire; and when they are all on, put on your pipes of communication, which must be so managed as to light them all with the 2d or 3d case on the wheel. The spindle on which the globe is to run must go through the block of the wheel, up to the inside of the top of the globe; where must be fixed a bit of brass, or iron, with a hole in it to receive the point of the spindle, on which the whole weight of the wheel is to bear, as in fig. 4. which represents a globe on its spindle. By this method may be made a crown, which is done by having the hoops bent in the form of a crown. Sometimes globes and crowns are ordered so as to stand still, and the wheel only to turn round; but when you would have the globe or crown to stand still, and the wheel to run by itself, the block of the wheel must not be so long, nor the spindle any longer than to just raise the globe a little above the wheel; and the wheel-cases and illumination must begin together.

97. *Dodecaedron,*

So called because it nearly represents a twelve-sided figure, is made thus. First have a ball turned out of some hard wood, 14 inches diameter: when done, divide its surface into 14 equal parts, from which bore holes $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter, perpendicular to the centre, so that they may all meet in the middle: then let there be turned in the inside of each hole a female screw; and to all the holes but one, must be made a round spoke 5 feet long, with 4 inches of the screw at one end to fit the holes; then in the screw-end of all the spokes bore a hole, 5 inches up, which must be bored slanting, so as to come out at one side, a little above the screw; from which cut a small groove along the spoke, within 6 inches of the other end, where you make another hole through to the other side of the spoke. In this end fix a spindle, on which put a small wheel of 3 or 4 sides, each side 6 or 7 inches long: these sides must have grooves cut in them, large enough to receive a 2 or 4 oz. case. When these wheels are clothed, put them on the spindles, and at the end of each spindle put a nut to keep the wheel from falling off. The wheels being thus fixed, carry a pipe from the mouth of the first case on each wheel, through the hole in the side of the spoke, and from thence along the groove, and through the other hole, so as to hang out at the screw-end about an inch. The spokes being all prepared in this manner, you must have a post, on which you intend to fire the work, with an iron screw in the top of it, to fit one of the holes in the ball: on this screw fix the ball; then in the top hole of the ball put a little meal-powder, and some loose quick-match: then screw in all the spokes; and in one side of the ball bore a hole, in which put a leader, and secure it at the end; and your work will be ready to be fired. By this leader the powder and match in the centre is fired, which will light the match at the ends of the spokes all at once, whereby all the wheels will be lighted at once. There may be an addition to this piece, by fixing a small globe on each wheel, or one on the top wheel only. A grey charge will be proper for the wheel-cases.

98. *The New-Tree of brilliant fire,*

Is represented by fig. 5. as it appears when burning. First, let A be an upright piece of wood, 4 feet long, 2 inches broad, and 1 thick: at top of this piece, on the flat side, fix a hoop 14 inches diameter; and round its edge and front place illuminations, and in the centre a 5-pointed star; then at E, which is $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot from the edge of the hoop, place 2 cases of brilliant fire, one on each side: these-cases should be one foot long each: below these fix 2 more cases of the same size, and at such a distance, that their mouths may almost meet them at top: then close to the ends of these cases, fix 2 more of the same cases; they must stand parallel to them at E. The cases being thus fixed, clothe them with leaders; so that they, with the illuminations and star at top, may all take fire together.

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99. *Stars with points for regulated pieces*, &c.

These ſtars are made of different ſizes, according to the work for which they are intended: they are made with caſes from 1 oz. to 1 lb. but in general with 4-oz. caſes, 4 or 5 inches long: the caſes muſt be rolled with paſte, and twice as thick of paper as a rocket of the ſame bore. Having rolled a caſe, pinch one end of it quite cloſe: then drive in $\frac{1}{3}$ a diameter of clay; and when the caſe is dry, fill it with compoſition, 2 or 3 inches to the length of the caſes with which it is to burn: at top of the charge drive ſome clay; as the ends of theſe caſes are ſeldom punched, they would be liable to take fire. Having filled a caſe, divide the circumference of it at the pinched end cloſe to the clay into 5 equal parts; then bore 5 holes with a gimblet, about the ſize of the neck of a common 4-oz. caſe, into the compoſition: from one hole to the other carry a quick-match, and ſecure it with paper: this paper muſt be put on in the manner of that on the ends of wheel-caſes, ſo that the hollow part, which projects from the end of the caſe, may ſerve to receive a leader from any other work, to give fire to the points of the ſtars. Theſe ſtars may be made with any number of points.

100. *Fixed Sun with a tranſparent face.*

Plate CCL. To make a ſun of the beſt ſort there ſhould be two rows of caſes, as in fig. 6. which will ſhow a double glory, and make the rays ſtrong and full. The frame, or ſun-wheel, muſt be made thus: Have a circular flat nave made very ſtrong, 12 inches diameter: to this fix 6 ſtrong flat ſpokes, A,B,C,D,E,F. On the front of theſe fix a circular fell, 5 feet diameter; within which fix another fell, the length of one of the ſun-caſes leſs in diameter; within this fix a 3d fell, whoſe diameter muſt be leſs than the 2d by the length of 1 caſe and 1-3d. The wheel being made, divide the fells into ſo many equal parts as you would have caſes, (which may be done from 24 to 44): at each diviſion fix a flat iron ſtaple; theſe ſtaples muſt be made to fit the caſes, to hold them faſt on the wheel; let the ſtaples be ſo placed, that one row of caſes may lie in the middle of the intervals of the other.

In the centre of the block of the ſun drive a ſpindle, on which put a ſmall hexagon wheel, whoſe caſes muſt be filled with the ſame charge as the caſes of the ſun: 2 caſes of this wheel muſt burn at a time, and begin with them on the fells. Having fixed on all the caſes, carry pipes of communication from one to the other, as you ſee in the figure, and from one ſide of the ſun to the wheel in the middle, and from thence to the other ſide of the ſun. Theſe leaders will hold the wheel ſteady while the ſun is fixing up, and will alſo be a ſure method of lighting both caſes of the wheel together. A ſun thus made is called a *brilliant ſun*, becauſe the wood work is entirely covered with fire from the wheel in the middle, ſo that there appears nothing but ſparks of brilliant fire: but if you would have a tranſparent face in the centre, you muſt have one made of paſteboard of any ſize. The method of making a face is, by cutting out the eyes, noſe, and mouth, for the ſparks of the wheel to appear through; but inſtead of this face, you may have one painted on oiled paper, or Perſian ſilk, ſtrained tight on a hoop; which hoop muſt be ſupported by 3 or 4 pieces of wire at 6 inches diſtance from the wheel in the centre, ſo that the light of it may illuminate the face. By this method you may have, in the front of a ſun, Vivat Rex, cut in paſteboard, or Apollo painted on ſilk; but, for a ſmall collection, a ſun with a ſingle glory, and a wheel in front, will be moſt ſuitable. Half-pound caſes, filled 10 inches with compoſition, will be a good ſize for a ſun of 5 feet diameter; but, if larger, the caſes muſt be greater in proportion.

101. *Three Vertical Wheels illuminated, which turn on their own naves upon a horizontal table.*

A plan of this is ſhown by fig. 7. Let D be a deal table three feet in diameter: this table muſt be fixed horizontally on the top of a poſt; on this poſt muſt be a perpendicular iron ſpindle, which muſt come through the centre of the table: then let A,B,C, be 3 ſpokes joined to a triangular flat piece of wood, in the middle of which make a hole to fit eaſily over the ſpindle: let E,F,G, be pieces of wood, 4 or 5 inches long each, and 2 inches ſquare, fixed on the under ſides of the ſpokes; in theſe pieces make holes lengthwiſe to receive the thin part of the blocks of the wheels, which, when in, are prevented from coming out by a ſmall iron pin being run through the end of each. K, L, M, are 3 vertical octagon wheels, 18 inches diameter each: the blocks of theſe wheels muſt be long enough for 3 or 4 inches to reſt on the table; round which part drive a number of ſharp points of wire, which muſt not project out of the blocks more than 1-16th of an inch: the uſe of theſe points is, that, when the blocks run round, they will ſtick in the table, and help the wheels forward: if the naves are made of ſtrong wood, one inch will be enough for the diameter of the thin part, which ſhould be made to turn eaſy in the holes in the pieces E, F, G. On the front of the wheels make 4 or 5 circles of ſtrong wire, or flat hoops, and tie on them as many illuminations as they will hold at 2 inches from each other: inſtead of circles, you may make ſpiral lines, clothed with illuminations, at the ſame diſtance from each other as thoſe on the hoops. When illuminations are fixed on a ſpiral line in the front of a wheel, they muſt be placed a little on the ſlant, the contrary way that the wheel runs: the caſes for theſe wheels may be filled with any coloured charge, but muſt burn only one at a time.

The wheels being thus prepared, you muſt have a globe, crown, or ſpiral wheel, to put on the ſpindle in the middle of the table: this ſpindle ſhould be juſt long enough to raiſe the wheel of the globe, crown, or ſpiral wheel, ſo high that its fire may play over the 3 vertical wheels: by this means their fires will not be confuſed, nor will the wheels receive any damage from the fire of each other. In clothing this work, let the leaders be ſo managed, that all the wheels may light together, and the illuminations after 2 caſes of each wheel are burnt.

102. *Illuminated Chandelier.*

Illuminated works are much admired by the Italians, and indeed are a great addition to a collection of works: in a grand exhibition an illuminated piece ſhould be fired after every 2 or 3 wheels, or fixed pieces of common and brilliant fires; and likewiſe illuminated works may be made cheap, quick, and eaſy.

To make an illuminated chandelier, you muſt firſt have one made of thin wood. See fig. 8. The chandelier

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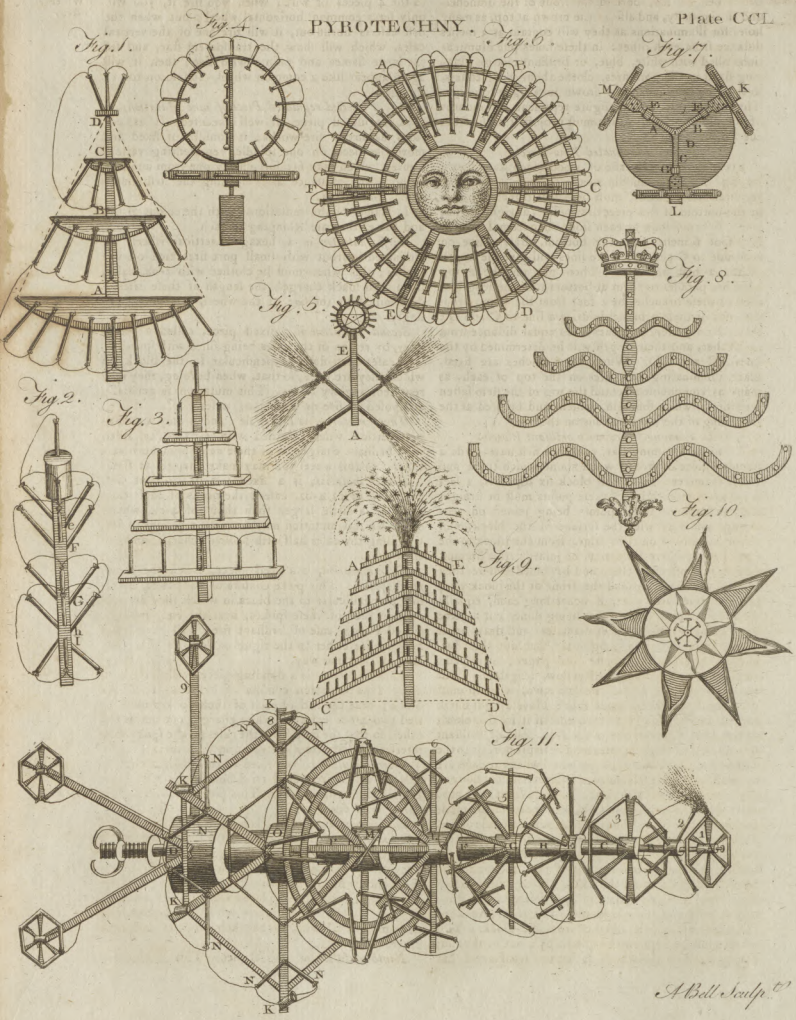

A. Bell Sculp.t

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delier being made, bore in the front of the branches, and in the body, and also in the crown at top, as many holes for illuminations as they will contain at 3 inches distance from each other: in these holes put illuminations filled with white, blue, or brilliant charge. Having fixed in the port-fires, clothe them with leaders, so that the chandelier and crown may light together. The small circles on this figure represent the mouths of the illuminations, which must project straight from the front.

103. *Illuminated Yew-Tree.*

Plate CCL.

First have a tree made of wood, such as is shewn by fig. 9. The middle piece, or stem, on which the branches are fixed, must be 8 feet 6 inches high: at the bottom of this piece draw a line, at right angles, 2 feet 6 inches long at each side; then from L, which is 1 foot 6 inches from the bottom, draw a line on each side to C and D: these lines will give the length of the 2 first branches. Then put on the 2 top branches parallel to them at bottom: let the length of each of these branches be 1 foot from the stem: from the ends of these 2 branches draw a line to C and D: then fix on 5 more branches at an equal distance from each other, and their length will be determined by the lines AC and ED. When the branches are fixed, place illuminating port-fires on the top of each, as many as you choose: behind the top of the stem fasten a gerbe, or white fountain, which must be fired at the beginning of the illuminations on the tree.

104. *Flaming Stars with brilliant Wheels.*

To make a flaming star, you must first have made a circular piece of strong wood about 1 inch thick and 2 feet diameter: round this block fix 8 points, 2 feet 6 inches long each; 4 of these points must be straight and 4 flaming: these points being joined on very strong, and even with the surface of the block, nail tin or pasteboard on their edges, from the block to the end of each, where they must be joined: this tin must project in front 8 inches, and be joined where they meet at the block; round the front of the block fix 4 pieces of thick iron wire, 8 inches long each, equally distant from each other: this being done, cut a piece of pasteboard round, 2 feet diameter, and draw on it a star, as may be seen in fig. 10. Cut out this star, and on the back of it paste oiled paper; then paint each point half red and half yellow, lengthwise; but the body of the star must be left open, wherein must run a brilliant wheel, made thus: Have a light block turned 9 inches long: at each end of it fix 6 spokes; at the end of each spoke put a 2-oz. case of brilliant fire: the length of these cases must be in proportion to the wheel, and the diameter of the wheel when the cases are on must be a little less than the diameter of the body of the small star: the cases on the spokes in front must have their mouths incline outwards, and those on the inside spokes must be placed so as to form a vertical circle of fire. When you place your leaders, carry the first pipe from the tail of 1 of the cases in front to the mouth of 1 of the inside cases, and from the tail of that to another in front, and so on to all the cases. Your wheel being made, put it on a spindle, in the centre of the star; this spindle must have a shoulder at bottom, to keep the wheel at a little distance from the block. This wheel must be kept on the spindle by a nut at the end; having fixed on the wheel, fasten the transparent star to the 4 pieces of wire: when you fire it, you will only see a common horizontal wheel; but when the first case is burnt out, it will fire one of the vertical cases, which will show the transparent star, and fill the large flames and points with fire; then it will again appear like a common wheel, and so on for 12 changes.

105. *Projected regulated Piece of nine Mutations.*

A regulated piece, if well executed, is as curious as any in fire-works: it consists of fixed and moveable pieces on one spindle, representing various figures, which take fire successively one from another, without any assistance after lighting the first mutation. See fig. 11.

I. Names of the mutations, with the colour of fire and size of the case belonging to each.

First mutation is a hexagon vertical wheel, illuminated in front with small port-fires tied on the spokes; this wheel must be clothed with 2-oz. cases, filled with black charge; the length of these cases is determined by the size of the wheel, but must burn singly.

Second mutation is a fixed piece, called a *golden glory*, by reason of the cases being filled with spur-fire. The cases must stand perpendicular to the block on which they are fixed, so that, when burning, they may represent a glory of fire. This mutation is generally composed of five or seven 2-oz. cases.

Third mutation is moveable; and is only an octagon vertical wheel, clothed with 4-oz. cases, filled with brilliant charge: 2 of these cases must burn at a time. In this wheel you may make changes of fire.

Fourth mutation, is a fixed fun of brilliant fire, consisting of 12 4-oz. cases: the necks of these cases must be a little larger than those of 4-oz. wheel-cases. In this mutation may be made a change of fire, by filling the cases half with brilliant charge, and half with grey.

Fifth mutation, is a fixed piece, called the *porcupine's quills*. This piece consists of 12 spokes, standing perpendicular to the block in which they are fixed; on each of these spokes, near the end, must be placed a 4-oz. case of brilliant fire. All these cases must incline either to the right or left, so that they may all play one way.

Sixth mutation, is a standing piece, called the *cross fire*. This mutation consists of 8 spokes fixed in a block; near the end of each of those spokes must be tied two 4-oz. cases of white charge, one across the other, so that the fires from the cases on one spoke may intersect the fire from the cases on the other.

Seventh mutation, is a fixed wheel, with 2 circular fells, on which are placed 16 8-ounce cases of brilliant fire, in the form of a star. This piece is called a *fixed star of wild-fire*.

Eighth mutation. This is a beautiful piece, called a *brilliant star-piece*. It consists of 6 spokes, which are strengthened by 2 fells of a hexagon form, at some distance from each other: at the end of each spoke, in the front, is fixed a brilliant star of 5 points; and on each side of every star is placed a 4-oz. case of black or grey charge: these cases must be placed with their mouths sidewise, so that their fires may cross each other.

Ninth mutation, is a wheel-piece. This is composed of

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of 6 long ſpokes, with a hexagon vertical wheel at the end of each; theſe wheels run on ſpindles in the front of the ſpokes; all the wheels are lighted together: 2 oz. caſes will do for theſe wheels, and may be filled with any coloured charge.

II. Proportions of the mutations, with the method of conveying the fire from one to the other, and the diſtance they ſtand one from the other on the ſpindle.

Firſt mutation, muſt be a hexagon vertical wheel, 14 inches diameter; on one ſide of the block, whoſe diameter is $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches, is fixed a tin barrel, A, (ſee fig. 11. n° 1.) This barrel muſt be a little leſs in diameter than the nave; let the length of the barrel and block be 6 inches. Having fixed the caſes on the wheel, carry a leader from the tail of the laſt caſe into the tin barrel through a hole made on purpoſe, 2 inches from the block; at the end of this leader let there be about 1 inch or 2 of looſe match; but take care to ſecure well the hole wherein the pipe is put, to prevent any ſparks falling in, which would light the ſecond mutation before its time, and confuſe the whole.

Plate CCL.

Second mutation is thus made. Have a nave turned $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches diameter, and 3 long; then let $\frac{1}{4}$ an inch of that end which faces the firſt wheel be turned ſo as to fit eaſy into the tin barrel of the firſt mutation, which muſt turn round it without touching. On the other end of the block fix a tin barrel, B, n° 2. This barrel muſt be 6 inches long, and only half an inch of it to fit on the block. Round the nave fix 5 ſpokes, $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long each; the diameter of the ſpokes muſt be equal to a 2-oz. former. On theſe ſpokes put five 7-inch 2-oz. caſes of ſpur-fire, and carry leaders from the mouth of one to the other, that they may all light together. Then from the mouth of one of the caſes, carry a leader thro' a holed bored ſlantwiſe in the nave, from between the ſpokes, to the front of the block near the ſpindle hole: the end of this leader muſt project out of the hole into the barrel of the firſt mutation, ſo that when the pipe which comes from the end of the laſt caſe on the firſt wheel flaſhes, it may take fire, and light the 2d mutation. To communicate the fire to the 3d mutation, bore a hole near the bottom of one of the 5 caſes to the compoſition, and from thence carry a leader into a hole made in the middle of the barrel B: this hole muſt be covered with paſted paper.

Third mutation, may be either an octagon or hexagon wheel, 20 inches diameter; let the nave be $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches diameter, and $3\frac{1}{4}$ in length; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch of the front of the nave muſt be made to fit in the barrel B. On the other end of the block fix a tin barrel, C, N° 3. This barrel muſt be $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length, one inch of which muſt fit over the block. The caſes of this wheel muſt burn 2 at a time; and from the mouths of the 2 firſt caſes carry a leader, through holes in the nave, into the barrel of the ſecond mutation, after the uſual manner: but beſides theſe leaders let a pipe go acroſs the wheel from one firſt caſe to the other; than from the tail of one of the laſt caſes carry a pipe into a hole in the middle of the barrel C: at the end of this pipe let there be ſome looſe quick-match.

Fourth and fifth mutations. Theſe may be deſcribed under one head, as their naves are made of one piece, which from E to F is 14 inches; E, a block 4 inches diameter, with 10 or 12 ſhort ſpokes, on which are fixed 11-inch 8-oz caſes: let the front of this block be made to fit eaſy in the barrel C, and clothe the caſes ſo that they may all light together; and let a pipe be carried through a hole in the block into the barrel C, in order to receive the fire from the leader brought from the laſt caſe on the wheel. G is the nave of the 5th mutation, whoſe diameter muſt be $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches: in this nave fix 10 or 12 ſpokes $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot in length each; theſe ſpokes muſt ſtand 7 inches diſtant from the ſpokes of the 4th mutation; and at the end of each ſpoke tie a 4-oz. caſe, as N° 5. All theſe caſes are to be lighted together, by a leader brought from the end of one of the caſes on N° 4. Let F and H be of the ſame piece of wood as E and G, but as much thinner as poſſible, to make the work light.

Sixth and ſeventh mutations. The blocks of theſe 2 mutations are turned out of one piece of wood, whoſe length from F to P is 15 inches. L, a block 5 inches diameter, in which are fixed 8 ſpokes, each 2 foot 4 inches long; at the end of each ſpoke tie two 4-oz. caſes, as N° 6. All theſe caſes muſt be fired at the ſame time, by a pipe brought from the end of one of the caſes on the 5th mutation. Let the diſtance between the ſpokes at L, and thoſe in the 5th mutation, be 7 inches. M, the nave of the 7th mutation, whoſe diameter muſt be $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches: in this nave fix 8 ſpokes, and on the front of them 2 circular fells, one of 4 feet 8 inches diameter, and one of 3 feet 11 diameter; on theſe fells tie 16 8-oz. or pound caſes as in N° 7. and carry leaders from one to the other, ſo that they may be all fired together. This mutation muſt be fired by a leader brought from the tail of one of the caſes on the 6th mutation.

Eighth and ninth mutations. The blocks of theſe may be turned out of one piece, whoſe length from P to D muſt be 12 inches. O, the block of the 8th mutation, which muſt be 6 inches diameter; and in it muſt be fixed 6 ſpokes, each 3 feet in length, ſtrengthened by an hexagon fell within 3 or 4 inches of the ends of the ſpokes: cloſe to the end of each ſpoke, in the front, fix a five-pointed brilliant ſtar; then 7 inches below each ſtar, tie two 10-inch 8 oz. caſes, ſo that the upper ends of the caſes may reſt on the fells, and their ends on the ſpokes: Each of theſe caſes muſt be placed parallel to the oppoſite fell: (ſee N° 8.) NNN, &c. are the caſes, and kkk, &c. the ſtars.

The 9th mutation is thus made. Let D be a block 7 inches diameter. In this block muſt be ſcrewed 6 ſpokes, 6 feet long each, with holes and grooves for leaders, as thoſe in the dodecaedron; at the end of each ſpoke, in the front, fix a ſpindle for a hexagon vertical wheel, 10 inches diameter, as in N° 9. When theſe wheels are on, carry a leader from each into the block, ſo that they may all meet; then lead a pipe from the end of one of the caſes of the 8th mutation, through a hole bored in the block D, to meet the leaders from the vertical wheels, ſo that they may all be fired together.

The ſpindles for larger pieces are required to be made very ſtrong, and as exact as poſſible: for a piece of 9 mutations, let the ſpindle be at the large end 1 inch diameter, and continue that thickneſs as far as the 7th mutation; and thence to the 5th, let its diameter be $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch; from the 5th to the 4th, 5-8ths

Of Wheels, &c. 5-8ths of an inch; from the 4th to the 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$ inch; and from the 2d to the end, 3-8ths of an inch. At the small end must be a nut to keep on the first wheel, and at the thick end must be a large nut, as shown by the figure; so that the screw part of the spindle being put through a post, and a nut screwed on tight, the spindle will be held fast and steady; but you are to observe, that that part of the spindle on which the moveable pieces are to run be made long enough for the wheels to run easy without sticking; the fixed pieces being made on different blocks, the leaders must be joined, after they are fixed on the spindle. The best method of preventing the fixed mutations from moving on the spindle is, to make that part of the spindle which goes through them square; but as it would be difficult to make them square holes through such long blocks as are sometimes required, it will be best to make them thus: Bore a hole a little larger than the diameter of the spindle; and at each end of the block, over the hole, fasten a piece of brass with a square hole in it to fit the spindle.

106. *To make an Horizontal Wheel change to a Vertical Wheel with a Sun in front.*

The sudden change of this piece is very pleasing; and gives great surprise to those who are not acquainted with the contrivance. A wheel for this purpose should be about three feet diameter, and its fell circular; on which tie 16 half-pound cases filled with brilliant charge: two of these cases must burn at a time; and on each end of the nave must be a tin barrel of the same construction as those on the regulated piece. The wheel being completed, prepare the post or stand thus: First have a stand made of any height, about three or four inches square; then saw off from the top a piece two feet long; this piece join again at the place where it was cut, with a hinge on one side, so that it may lift up and down in the front of the stand; then fix on the top of the bottom-part of the stand, on each side, a bracket; which brackets must project at right angles with the stand, one foot from the front, for the short piece to rest on. These brackets must be placed a little above the joint of the post, so that when the upper stand falls, it may lie between them at right angles with the bottom stand: which may be done by fixing a piece of wood, one foot long, between the brackets, and even with the top of the bottom stand; then, as the brackets rise above the bottom stand, they will form a channel for the short post to lie in, and keep it steady without straining the hinge. On the side of the short post, opposite the hinge, nail a piece of wood, of such a length, that, when the post is perpendicular, it may reach about $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot down the long post; to which being tied, it will hold the short stand upright. The stand being thus prepared, in the top of it fix a spindle 10 inches long: on this spindle put the wheel: then fix on a brilliant sun with a single glory; the diameter of this sun must be 6 inches less than that of the wheel. When you fire this piece, light the wheel first, and let it run horizontally till four cases are consumed: then from the end of the fourth case carry a leader into the tin barrel that turns over the end of the stand: this leader must be met by another brought through the top of the post, from a case filled with a strong port-fire charge, and tied to the bottom post, with its mouth facing the pack-thread which holds up the stand; so that when this case is lighted, it will burn the pack-thread, and let the wheel fall forward, by which means it will become vertical: then from the last case of the wheel, carry a leader into the barrel next the sun, which will begin as soon as the wheel is burnt out.

107. *Grand Volute illuminated with a projected Wheel in front.*

First have two hoops made of strong iron wire, one of 6 feet diameter, and one of 4 feet 2 inches; these hoops must be joined to scrolls A, A, A, &c. as in fig. 1. These scrolls must be made of the same sort of wire as the hoops; on these scrolls tie, with iron-binding wire, as many illuminating port-fires as they will hold, at two inches distance; clothe these port-fires with leaders, so that they may all take fire together. Then let C be a circular wheel of four spokes, 3 feet 6 inches diameter; and on its fell tie as many 4-oz. cases, head to tail, as will complete the circle, only allowing a sufficient distance between the cases, that the fire may pass free; which may be done by cutting the upper part of the end of each case a little shelving: on each spoke fix a 4-oz. case, about three inches from the fell of the wheel: these cases are to burn one at a time, and the first of them to begin with those on the fell, of which four are to burn at a time; so that the wheel will last no longer than $\frac{1}{5}$ of the cases on the fell, which in number should be 16 or 20. On the front of the wheel form a spiral line with strong wire, on which tie port-fires, placing them on a stant, with their mouths to face the same way as the cases on the wheel: all these port-fires must be fired with the second cases of wheel. Let D, D, D, &c. be spokes of wood, all made to screw into a block in the centre; each of these spokes may be in length about 4 feet 6 inches; in the top of each fix a spindle, and on each spindle put a spiral wheel of 8 spokes, such as E, E, E, &c. The blocks of these wheels must have a hole at top for the centre cases, and the spindle must have nuts screwed on their ends; which nuts should fit in the holes at top of the blocks, so that all the wheels must be put on before you fix in the centre cases: as some of these wheels, by reason of their situation, will not bear on the nut, it will be necessary to have smooth shoulders made on the spindles for the blocks to run on. The cases of these wheels are to burn double; and the method of firing them is, by carrying a leader from each down the spokes into the block in the centre, as in the dodecaedron, but the centre case of each wheel must begin with the two last cases as usual. It is to be observed, that the large circular wheel in front must have a tin barrel on its block, into which a pipe must be carried from one of the second cases on the wheel; this pipe being met by another from the large block, in which the 8 spokes are screwed, will fire all the spiral wheels and the illuminating port-fires at the same time. The cases of the projected wheel may be filled with a white charge, and those of the spiral wheels with a grey.

Plate CCLI.

108. *Moon and Seven Stars.*

Let fig. 2. be a smooth circular board 6 feet diameter: out of the middle of it cut a circular piece 12 or 14 inches diameter; and over the vacancy put white Persian silk, on which paint a moon's face: then let I, I, I, &c. be stars, each 4 or 5 inches diameter, cut out with five points, and covered with oiled silk: on the

Of Wheels, &c.

the front of the large circular board: draw a 7-pointed ſtar, as large as the circle will allow; then on the lines which form this ſtar, bore holes, wherein fix pointed ſtars. When this caſe is to be fired, it muſt be fixed upon the front of a poſt, on a ſpindle, with a wheel of brilliant fire behind the face of the moon: ſo that, while the wheel burns, the moon and ſtars will appear tranſparent; and when the wheel has burnt out, they will diſappear, and the large ſtar in front, which is formed of pointed ſtars, will begin, being lighted by a pipe of communication from the laſt caſe of the vertical wheel, behind the moon; this pipe muſt be managed in the ſame manner as thoſe in regulated pieces.

109. *Double Cone-Wheel illuminated.*

Plate CCLI.

This piece is repreſented by fig. 3. Let A be a ſtrong decagon wheel, 2 feet 6 inches diameter; then on each ſide of it fix a cone B and C: theſe cones are to conſiſt of a number of hoops, ſupported by 3 or 4 pieces of wood, in the manner of the ſpiral wheels. Let the height of each cone be 3 feet 6 inches; and on all the hoops tie port-fires horizontally, with their mouths outwards, and clothe the wheel with 8-oz. caſes, all to play horizontally, two at a time: the cones may be fired with the firſt or ſecond caſes. The ſpindle for this piece muſt go through both the cones, and riſe three feet above the point of the cone at top; ſo that its length will be 10 feet 4 inches from the top of the poſt H, in which it is fixed, allowing four inches for the thickneſs of the block of the wheel. The whole weight of the wheel and cones muſt bear on a ſhoulder in the ſpindle, on which the block of the wheel muſt turn. Near the top of the ſpindle muſt be a hole in the front, into which ſcrew a ſmall ſpindle, after the cones are on: then on this ſmall ſpindle fix a fun, D, compoſed of ſixteen 9-inch 4-oz. caſes of brilliant fire; which caſes muſt not be placed on a fell, but only ſtuck into a block of 6 inches diameter: then in the front of this fun muſt be a circular vertical wheel, 16 inches diameter; on the front of this wheel form with iron-wire a ſpiral line, and clothe it with illuminations after the uſual method. As this wheel is not to be fired till the cones are burnt out, the method of firing it is thus: Let the hole in the block, at the top of the uppermoſt cone, be a little larger than the ſpindle which paſſes thro' it. Then, from the firſt caſe of the vertical wheel before the fun, carry a leader down the ſide of the ſpindle to the top of the block of the horizontal wheel, on which muſt be a tin barrel: then this leader being met by another brought from the end of the laſt caſe of the horizontal wheel, will give fire to the vertical wheel ſo ſoon as the cones are extinguiſhed: but the fun, D, muſt not be fired till the vertical wheel is quite burnt out.

110. *Fire-Pumps.*

Caſes for fire-pumps are made as thoſe for tourbillons; only they are paſted, inſtead of being rolled dry. Having rolled and dried your caſes, fill them: firſt put in a little meal-powder, and then a ſtar; on which ram lightly a ladle or two of compoſition, then a little meal-powder, and on that a ſtar, then again compoſition; and ſo on till you have filled the caſe. Stars for fire-pumps ſhould not be round; but muſt be made either ſquare, or flat and circular, with a hole through the middle: the quantity of powder for throwing the ſtars muſt increaſe as you come near the top of the caſe; for, if much powder be put at the bottom, it will burſt the caſe. The ſtars muſt differ in ſize in this manner: Let the ſtar which you put in firſt be about $\frac{1}{4}$ leſs than the bore of the caſe; but let the next ſtar be a little larger, and the third ſtar a little larger than the ſecond, and ſo on: let them increaſe in diameter till within two of the top of the caſe, which two muſt fit in tight. As the loading of fire-pumps is ſomewhat difficult, it will be neceſſary to make two or three trials before you depend on their performance: when you fill a number of pumps, take care not to put in each an equal quantity of charge between the ſtars, ſo that when they are fired they may not throw up too many ſtars together. Caſes for fire-pumps ſhould be made very ſtrong, and rolled on 4 or 8 oz. formers, 10 or 12 inches long each.

Of Wheels, &c.

111. *Vertical Scroll Wheel.*

This wheel may be made of any diameter, but muſt be conſtructed as in fig. 4. to do which proceed thus: Have a block made of a moderate ſize, in which fix four flat ſpokes, and on them fix a flat circular fell of wood; round the front of this fell place port-fires; then on the front of the ſpokes form a ſcroll, either with a hoop or ſtrong iron wire; on this ſcroll tie caſes of brilliant fire, in proportion to the wheel, head to tail, as in the figure. When you fire this wheel, light the firſt caſe near the fell; then, as the caſes fire ſucceſſively, you will ſee the circle of fire gradually diminiſh: but whether the illuminations on the fell begin with the ſcroll or not, is immaterial, that being left entirely to the maker.

N. B. This wheel may be put in the front of a regulated piece, or fired by itſelf, occaſionally.

112. *Pin-Wheels.*

First roll ſome paper pipes, about 14 inches long each; theſe pipes muſt not be made thick of paper, two or three rounds of elephant paper being ſufficient. When your pipes are thoroughly dried, you muſt have a tin tube 12 inches long, to fit eaſy into the pipes; at one end of this tube fix a ſmall conical cup, which cone is called a *funnel*; then bend one end of one of the pipes, and put the funnel in at the other as far as it will reach, and fill the cup with compoſition: then draw out the funnel by a little at a time, ſhaking it up and down, and it will fill the pipe as it comes out. Having filled ſome pipes, have ſome ſmall blocks made about one inch diameter and half an inch thick: round one of theſe blocks wind and paſte a pipe, and to the end of this pipe join another; which muſt be done by twiſting the end of one pipe to a point, and putting it into the end of the other with a little paſte: in this manner join four or five pipes, winding them one upon the other ſo as to form a ſpiral line. Having wound on your pipes, paſte two ſlips of paper acroſs them to hold them together: beſides theſe ſlips of paper, the pipes muſt be paſted together.

There is another method of making theſe wheels, *viz.* by winding on the pipes without paſte, and ſticking them together with ſealing-wax at every half turn; ſo that when they are fired, the end will fall looſe every time the fire paſſes the wax, by which means the circle of fire will be conſiderably increaſed. The formers for theſe pipes are made from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 4-16ths of an inch diameter; and the compoſition for them is as follows: Meal-powder 8 oz. ſaltpetre 2 oz.

and

Fig. 1.

Fig. 4.

Fig. 6.

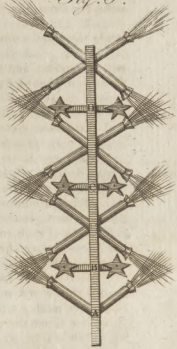


Fig. 5.

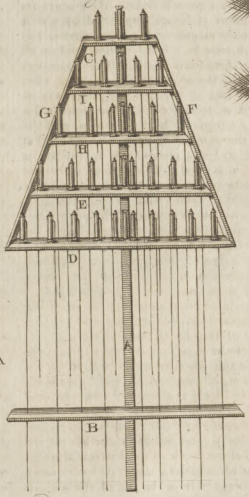


Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

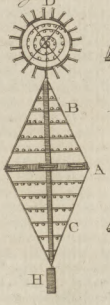


Fig. 7.

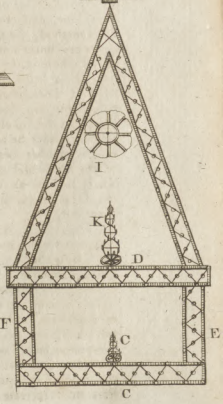


Fig. 8.

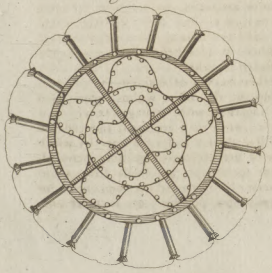


Fig. 9.

A Bell sculp.

Different Pieces of Fireworks.

and sulphur 12 among these ingredients may be mixed a little steel-filings or the dust of cast iron: this composition should be very dry, and not made too fine, or it will stick in the funnel. These wheels may be fired on a large pin, and held in the hand with safety.

113. *Fire-Globes.*

There are two sorts of fire-globes; one with projected cases; the other with the cases concealed, thus: Have a globe made of wood, of any diameter you choose, and divide the surface of it into 14 equal parts, and at each division bore a hole perpendicular to the centre: these holes must be in proportion to the cases intended to be used: in every hole except one, put a case filled with brilliant, or any other charge, and let the mouths of the cases be even with the surface of the globe; then cut in the globe a groove, from the mouth of one case to the other, for leaders, which must be carried from case to case, so that they may all be fired together; this done, cover the globe with a single paper, and paint it. These globes may be used to ornament a building.

Fire-globes with projected cases are made thus: Your globe being made with 14 holes bored in it as usual, fix in every hole except one, a case, and let each case project from the globe two thirds of its length; then clothe all the cases with leaders, so that they may all take fire at the same time. Fire-globes are supported by a pintle, made to fit the hole in which there is no case.

114. *To thread and join Leaders, and place them on different works.*

Joining and placing leaders is a very essential part of fire-works, as it is on the leaders that the performance of all complex works depends; for which reason the method of conducting pipes of communication shall be here explained in as plain a manner as possible. Your works being ready to be clothed, proceed thus: Cut your pipes of a sufficient length to reach from one case to the other; then put in the quick-match, which must always be made to go in very easy: when the match is in, cut it off within about an inch of the end of the pipe, and let it project as much at the other end; then fasten the pipe to the mouth of each case with a pin, and put the loose ends of the match into the mouths of the cases, with a little meal-powder: this done to all the cases, paste over the mouth of each two or three bits of paper. The preceding method is used for large cases, and the following for small, and for illuminations: First thread a long pipe; then lay it on the tops of the cases, and cut a bit of the under side, over the mouth of each case, so that the match may appear: then pin the pipe to every other case; but before you put on the pipes, put a little meal-powder in the mouth of each case. If the cases thus clothed are port-fires on illuminated works, cover the mouth of each case with a single paper; but if they are choaked cases, situated so that a number of sparks from other works may fall on them before they are fired, secure them with three or four papers, which must be pasted on very smooth, that there may be no creases for the sparks to lodge in, which oft set fire to the works before their time. Avoid as much as possible placing the leaders too near, or one across the other so as to touch, as it may happen that the flash of one will fire the other; therefore if your works should be so formed that the leaders must cross or touch, be sure to make them very strong, and secure at the joints, and at every opening.

When a great length of pipe is required, it must be made by joining several pipes in this manner: Having put on one length of match as many pipes as it will hold, paste paper over every joint; but, if a still greater length is required, more pipes must be joined, by cutting about an inch off one side of each pipe near the end, and laying the quick-match together, and tying them fast with small twine; after which, cover the joining with pasted paper.

115. *Placing Fire-works to be exhibited.*

Nothing adds more to the appearance of fire-works than the placing them properly; though the manner of placing them chiefly depends on the judgment of the maker. The following are the rules generally observed, whether the works are to be fired on a building or on stands: If they are a double set, place one wheel of a sort on each side of the building; and next to each of them, towards the centre, place a fixed piece, then wheels, and so on; leaving a sufficient distance between them for the fire to play from one without burning the other. Having fixed some of your works thus in front, place the rest behind them, in the centre of their intervals: The largest piece, which is generally a regulated or transparent piece, must be placed in the centre of the building, and behind it a sun, which must always stand above all the other works: A little before the building, or stands, place your large gerbes; and at the back of the works fix your marron batteries, *pots des aigrettes*, *pots des brins*, *pots des saucissons*, air-balloons, and flights of rockets: The rocket stands may be fixed behind, or any where else, so as not to be in the way of the works.

Single collections are fired on stands; which stands are made in the same manner as theodolite stands, only the top part must be long or short occasionally: these stands may be fixed up very soon without much trouble.

116. *Order of Firing.*

1. Two signal
2. Six sky
3. Two honorary
4. Four caduceus

} rockets

5. 6. 7. } Two { vertical, spiral, transparent } wheels illuminated

8. A line rocket of five changes
9. Four tourbillons

10. 11. 12. 13. 14. } Two { horizontal wheels, air balloons illuminated, Chinese fountains, regulating pieces of four mutations each, pots des aigrettes

15. Three large gerbes
16. A flight of rockets

17. 18. } Two { balloon wheels, cascades of brilliant fire

19. Twelve sky-rockets

20. 21. } Two { illuminated yew trees, air balloons of serpents, and 2 compound

22. Four tourbillons

23. 23. } Two { Fruiloni wheels, illuminated globes with horizontal wheels

Different Pieces of Fireworks.

25. One pot des fauciſſons
26. Two plural wheels
27. Marron battery
28. Two chandeliers illuminated.
29. Range of pots des brins
30. Twelve ſky-rockets
31. Two yew-trees of fire
32. Neſt of ſerpents
33. Two double cones illuminated
34. Regulating piece of ſeven mutations, *viz.*
    1. Vertical wheel illuminated
    2. Golden glory
    3. Octagon vertical wheel
    4. Porcupine's quills
    5. Croſs fires
    6. Star-piece with brilliant rays
    7. Six vertical wheels
35. Brilliant ſun
36. Large flight of rockets.

When water-works are to be exhibited, divide them into ſeveral ſets, and fire one ſet after every fifth or ſixth change of land and air-works. Obſerve this rule in firing a double ſet of works: Always begin with ſky-rockets, then two moveable pieces, then two fixed pieces, and ſo on; ending with a large flight of rockets, or a marron battery: if a ſingle collection, fire a fixed piece after every wheel or two, and now and then ſome air and water works.

117. *Fountain of Sky-rockets.*

Plate CCL. fig. 5. repreſents a fountain of 30 rockets. Let A be a perpendicular poſt, 16 feet high from the ground, and 4 inches ſquare. Let the rail, or croſs piece C, be 1 foot 6 inches long, 3 inches broad, and 1 thick. The rail D, at bottom, muſt be 6 feet long, 1 foot broad, and 1 inch thick. F and G are the two ſides which ſerve to ſupply the rails D,E,H,I,C: theſe ſides are 1 foot broad at bottom, and cut in the front with a regular ſlope, to 3 inches at top; but their back edges muſt be parallel with the front of the pots A. The breadth of the rails E,H,I, will be determined by the breadth of the ſides: all the rails muſt be fixed at 2 feet diſtance from each other, and at right angles with the pots. Having placed the rails thus, bore in the bottom rail 10 holes, at equal diſtances, large enough to receive the ſtick of a one-pound rocket: in the back edge of this rail cut a groove from one end to the other, fit to contain a quick-match; then cut a groove in the top of the rail, from the edge of each hole, into the groove in the back: in the ſame manner cut in the ſecond rail, E, 8 holes and grooves; in the third rail, H, 6 holes and grooves; in the fourth rail, I, 4 holes and grooves; and in the top rail, 2 holes and grooves. B, a rail with holes in it to guide the ends of the rocket-ſticks: this rail muſt be fixed 6 feet from the rail D. The fountain frame being thus made, prepare your rockets thus: Tie round the mouth of each a piece of thin paper, large enough to go twice round, and to project about $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch from the mouth of the rocket, which muſt be rubbed with wet meal-powder; in the mouth of each rocket put a leader, which ſecure well with the paper that projects from the mouth of the caſe: theſe leaders muſt be carried into the grooves in the back of the rails, in which lay a quick-match from one end to the other, and cover it with paſted paper; holes muſt be made in the rail D, to receive the ends of the ſticks of the rockets, in the rail E, and ſo on to the fourth rail; ſo that the ſticks of the rockets at top will go through all the rails. The rockets being ſo prepared, fix a gerbe, or white flower-pot, on each rail, before the poſt, with their mouths inclining a little forwards: theſe gerbes muſt be lighted all at once. Behind or before each gerbe, fix a caſe of brilliant or ſlow fire: theſe caſes muſt be filled ſo that they may burn out one after the other, to regulate the fountain; which may be done by carrying a leader from the end of each ſlow or brilliant fire, into the groove in the back of each rail. Different fixed rockets may be uſed in theſe fountains: but it will be beſt to fill the heads of the rockets on each rail with different ſorts of things, in this maner; thoſe at top with crackers, the next with rains, the third with ſerpents, the fourth with tailed ſtars, and the laſt flight with common or brilliant ſtars.

118. *Palm Tree.*

This piece, tho' made of common fires, and of a ſimple conſtruction, has a very pleaſing effect; owing to the fires interſecting ſo often, that they reſemble the branches of trees. Let A (fig. 6.) be a perpendicular poſt, of any thickneſs, ſo that it is ſufficiently ſtrong to hold the caſes; let the diſtance from B to C be 2 feet 6 inches, and C to D 2 feet 6 inches, and let the length of each croſs piece be 2 feet; on each end of each fix a five-pointed ſtar; then fix, on pegs made on purpoſe, 12-inch half-pound caſes of brilliant fire, as in the figure. All the caſes and ſtars muſt be fired at once. This piece ſhould be fixed high from the ground.

119. *Illuminated Pyramid, with Archimedian Screws, a Globe and vertical Sun,*

May be of any ſize. One made according to the dimenſions of fig. 7. will be a good proportion, whoſe height is 21 feet; from C to D, 6 feet; from E to F, 9 feet: the ſpace between the rails muſt be 6 inches, and the rails as thin as poſſible: in all the rails ſtick port-fires at 4 inches diſtance. The Archimedian ſcrews, G,K, are nothing more than double ſpiral wheels, with the caſes placed on their wheels horizontally inſtead of obliquely. The vertical ſun, I, need not conſiſt of more than 12 rays, to form a ſingle glory. The globe at top muſt be made in proportion to the pyramid; which being prepared according to the preceding directions, place your leaders ſo that all the illuminating portfires, ſcrews, globe, and ſun, may take fire together. The pyramid muſt be ſupported by the two ſides, and by a ſupport brought from a pole, which muſt be placed two feet from the back of the pyramid, that the wheels may run free.

120. *Roſe-piece and Sun.*

A roſe-piece may be uſed for a mutation of a regulated piece, or fired by itſelf: it makes the beſt appearance when made large; if its exterior diameter be 6 feet, it will be a good ſize. Fig. 8. ſhows the manner it appears in before it is fired. Let the exterior fell be made of wood, and ſupported by 4 wooden ſpokes: all the other parts, on which the illuminations are fixed, muſt be made of ſtrong iron wire: on the exterior fell place as many half-pound caſes of brilliant charge as you think proper, but the more the better; for the nearer the caſes are placed, the ſtronger will be the

Fig. 1.

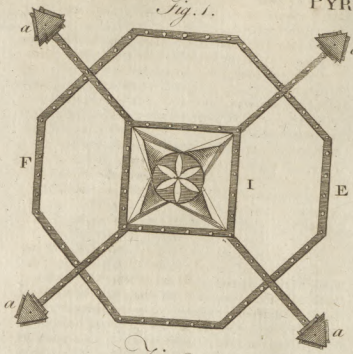


Fig. 3.

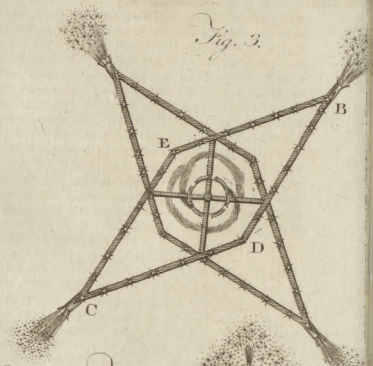


Fig. 2.

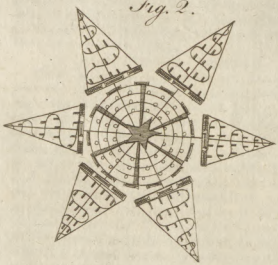


Fig. 6.

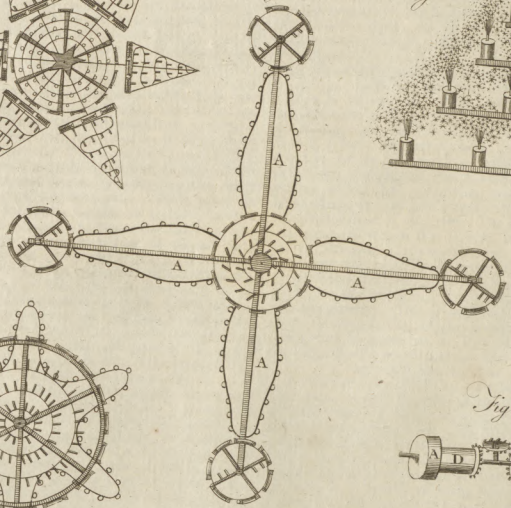


Fig. 5.

Fig. 4.

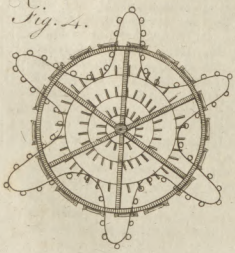
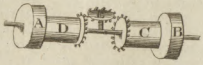


Fig. 7.



A. Bell Sculp.

Different Pieces of Fireworks.

the rays of the sun: the illuminations should be placed within 3 inches of each other: they must all be fired together, and burn some time before the sun is lighted; which may be done by carrying a leader from the middle of one of the illuminations, to the mouth of one of the sun cases.

121. *Transparent Stars with illuminated rays.*

Plate CCLI. fig. 9. represents an illuminated star. Let the diameter from A to B be 2 feet, and from C to D 7 feet. First make a strong circular back or body of the star, 2 feet diameter, to which you fix the illuminated rays: in the centre of the front of the body fix a spindle, on which put a double triangular wheel, 6 inches diameter, clothed with 2-ounce cases of brilliant charge; the cases on this wheel must burn but one at a time. Round the edge of the body nail a hoop made of thin wood or tin: this hoop must project in front 6 or 7 inches: in this hoop cut 3 or 4 holes to let out the smoke from the wheel. The star and garter may be cut out of strong pasteboard or tin, made in this manner: Cut a round piece of pasteboard, or tin, 2 feet diameter, on which draw a star, and cut it out; then over the vacancy paste Persian silk; paint the letters yellow; 4 of the rays yellow, and 4 red; the cross in the middle may be painted half red and half yellow, or yellow and blue. This transparent star must be fastened to the wooden hoop by a screw, to take off and on; the illuminated rays are made of thin wood, with tin sockets fixed on their sides within 4 inches of each other; in these sockets stick illuminating port-fires; behind the point of each ray fix a half-pound case of grey, black, or Chinese fire.

N. B. The illuminated rays to be lighted at the same time as the triangular wheel, or after it is burnt out; which may be done by a tin barrel being fixed to the wheel, after the manner of those in the regulated pieces. Into this barrel carry a leader from the illuminated rays, thro' the back of the star; which leader must be met by another, brought from the tail of the last case on the wheel.

122. *Transparent Table Star illuminated.*

Plate CCLII. Fig. 1. represents a table star, whose diameter, from E to F, is 12 feet; and from E to I, 4 feet. This proportion, observed on each side, will make the centre frame 4 feet square: in this square fix a transparent star, as in the figure. This star may be painted blue, and its rays made as those of the flaming stars described before. The wheel for this star may be composed of different coloured fires, with a charge or two of slow fire: the wheels *a, a, a, a,* may be cloathed with any number of cases, so that the star-wheel consist of the same: the illuminating port-fires, which must be placed very near each other on the frames, must be so managed as to burn as long as the wheels, and lighted at the same time.

123. *The regulated illuminated Spiral Piece, with a projected Star-wheel illuminated.*

This piece is represented by fig. 2, and is thus made. Have a block made 8 inches diameter; in this block screw 6 iron spokes, which must serve for spindles for the spiral wheels: these wheels are made as usual, each $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot diameter, and 3 feet in height: the spindles must be long enough to keep the wheels 4 or 5 inches from one another: at the end of each spindle must be a screw-nut, on which the wheels that hang downwards will run; and on the spindles which stand upwards must be a shoulder, for the blocks of the wheels to run on.

The projected star-wheel must turn on the same spindle on which the large block is fixed: this spindle must be long enough to allow the star-wheel to project a little before the spiral wheels: the exterior diameter of the star-wheel must be 3 feet 5. On this wheel fix 3 circles of iron wire, and on them port-fires; on the block place a transparent star, or a large 5-pointed brilliant star. The cases on this wheel may burn 4 at once, as it will contain near twice the number of one of the spiral wheels: the cases on the spiral wheels must be placed parallel to their fells, and burn two a a time.

125. *A Figure-piece illuminated with five-pointed Stars.*

The construction of this piece is very easy, as shown by fig. 3. whose diameter from B to C is 8 feet, and from D to F 2 feet: the vertical wheel in the centre must be 1 foot diameter, and consist of 6 four-ounce cases of different-coloured charge, which cases must burn double: on the frames fix 5-pointed brilliant or blue stars, rammed 4 inches with composition: let the space between each star be 8 inches; at each point fix a gerbe, or case of Chinese fire. When to be fired, let the gerbe, stars, and wheel, be lighted at the same time.

125. *The Star-wheel illuminated.*

This beautiful piece is shown by fig. 4. Its exterior fell is made of wood, 3 feet 6, or 4 feet diameter; within this fell, form with iron wire 3 circles, one less than the other, so that the diameter of the least may be about 10 inches: place the port-fires on these fells with their mouths inclining outwards, and the port-fires on the points of the star with their mouths projecting in front: let the exterior fell be clothed with 4-ounce cases of grey charge: these cases must burn 4 at a time, and be lighted at the same time as the illuminations.

126. *Pyramid of Flower-pots.*

Fig. 5. represents this curious piece, which must be made thus. Let the distance from A to B be 6 feet; and from one rail to the other, 2: on the bottom rail fix 5 paper mortars, each $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter; these mortars load with serpents, crackers, stars, &c.

In the centre of each mortar fix a case of spur-fire: on the second rail fix 4 mortars, so as to stand exactly in the middle of the intervals of them on the bottom rail; on the third rail place 3 mortars; on the fourth, 2; and on the top of the posts, 1: the bottom rail must be 6 feet long: all the mortars must incline a little forwards, that they may easily discharge; and the spur-fires rammed exactly alike, that the mortars may all be fired at the same time. Having prepared your pyramid according to the preceding directions, carry pipes of communication from one spur-fire to the other.

127. *The illuminated Regulating Piece.*

Fig. 6. represents one half of this piece. A,A, A,A, are flat wooden spokes, each 5 feet long: at the end of each place a vertical wheel, 10 inches diameter, clothed with 6 four-ounce cases of brilliant fire: these cases must burn but 1 at a time: on two of the spokes of each wheel place 2 port fires, which must be

Aquatic Fireworks.

lighted with the first case of the wheel; on each spoke A, A, &c. behind the wheels, place 6 cases of the same size with those on the wheels: these cases must be tied across the spokes with their mouths all one way, and be made to take fire successively one after the other, so that they may assist the whole pieces to turn round.

The diameter of the wheel B must be $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet; and its fell made of wood, which must be fixed to the large spokes: on this wheel place 24 cases of the same sort with those on the small wheels; these cases must burn 4 at a time: in this wheel make 3 circles with iron wire, and on them place illuminating port-fires, as in the figure: the star-points on the large spokes may be made of thin ash-hoops; the diameter of these points close to the centre-wheel must be 11 inches: on these points place port-fires, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches distance one from the other.

Fig. 7. represents the blocks of this piece. The diameters of these blocks, at A and B, must be 8 inches; and C and D, $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches: the length of each of these blocks must be 6 inches: at the small ends of these blocks fix an iron wheel 5 inches diameter, which wheels must have teeth, to turn the wheel E: this wheel is fixed on a small spindle screwed into the large spindle, which goes thro' the two blocks, and on which they run.

Supposing fig. 8. to be on the block A, in fig. 7. and to turn to the right, and another piece of the same construction on the block B, with its fires placed so as to turn it to the left; you will find them move very true and fast, by the help of the 3 iron wheels, which serve to regulate their motions, as well as to assist them in turning: let the iron circles in the front of the great wheels be of different diameters, so that when fired there may appear 6 circles. When this piece is fired, all the wheels and illuminations must be lighted at one time.

Sect. VI. *Aquatic Fire-works.*

Works that sport in the water are much esteemed by most admirers of fire-works, particularly water rockets; and as they seem of a very extraordinary nature to those who are unacquainted with this art, they merit a particular explanation.

128. *Water Rockets.*

May be made from 4 oz. to 2 lb. If larger, they are too heavy; so that it will be difficult to make them keep above water without a cork float, which must be tied to the neck of the case; but the rockets will not dive so well with, as without floats.

Cases for these are made in the same manner and proportion as sky-rockets, only a little thicker of paper. When you fill those which are drove solid, put in first 1 ladle-full of slow fire, then 2 of the proper charge, and on that 1 or 2 ladles of sinking charge, then the proper charge, then the sinking charge again, and so on, till you have filled the case within 3 diameters; then drive on the composition 1 ladle-full of clay; through which make a small hole to the charge; then fill the case, within $\frac{1}{2}$ a diameter, with corn-powder, on which turn down 2 or 3 rounds of the case in the inside; then pinch and tie the end very tight; having filled your rockets, (according to the above directions), dip their ends in melted rosin or sealing wax, or else secure them well with grease. When you fire these rockets, throw in 6 or 8 at a time; but, if you would have them all sink, or swim, at the same time, you must drive them with an equal quantity of composition, and fire them all together.

129. *To make Pipes of Communication, wich may be used under Water.*

Pipes for this purpose must be a little thicker of parper than those for land. Having rolled a sufficient number of pipes, and kept them till dry, wash them over with drying oil, and set them to dry; but when you oil them, leave about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch at each end dry, for joints; if they were oiled all over, when you come to join them, the paste would not stick where the paper is greasy: after the leaders are joined, and the paste dry, oil the joints. These pipes will lie many hours under water, without receiving any damage.

130. *Horizontal Wheels for the Water.*

First get a large wooden bowl without a handle; than have an octagon wheel made of a flat board 18 inches diameter, so that the length of each side will be near 7 inches: in all the sides cut a groove for the cases to lie in. This wheel being made, nail it on the top of the bowl; than take 8 4 oz. cases, filled with a proper charge, each about 6 inches in length. Now, to clothe the wheel with these cases, get some whittish-brown paper, and cut it into slips 4 or 5 inches broad, and 7 or 8 long: these slips being pasted all over on one side, take one of the cases, and roll one of the slips of paper about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch on its end, so that there will remain about $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches of the paper hollow from the end of the case: this case tie on one of the sides of the wheel, near the corners of which must be holes bored, through which you put the packthread to tie the cases: having tied on the first case at the neck and end, put a little meal powder in the hollow paper; then paste a slip of paper on the end of another case, the head of which put into the hollow paper on the first, allowing a sufficient distance from the tail of one to the head of the other for the pasted paper to bend without tearing: the second case tie on as you did the first: and so on with the rest, except the last, which must be closed at the end, unless it is to communicate to any thing on the top of the wheel, such as fire-pumps or brilliant fires, fixed in holes cut in the wheel, and fired by the last or second case, as the fancy directs: 6, 8, or any number, may be placed on the top of the wheel, provided they be not too heavy for the bowl.

Before you tie on the cases, cut the upper part of all their ends, except the last, a little shelving, that the fire from one may play over the other, without being obstructed by the case. Wheel-cases have no clay drove in their ends, nor pinched, but are always left open, only the last, or those which are not to lead fire, which must be well secured.

131. *Water Mines.*

For these mines you must have a bowl with a wheel on it, made in the same manner as the water-wheel; only in its middle there must be a hole, of the same diameter you design to have the mine. These mines are tin pots, with strong bottoms, and a little more than 2 diameters in length: your mine must be fixed in

Aquatic Fireworks. in the hole in the wheel, with its bottom resting on the bowl; then loaded with serpents, crackers, stars, small water-rockets, &c. in the same manner as pots of aigrettes; but in their centre fix a case of Chinese fire, or a small gerbe, which must be lighted at the beginning of the last case on the wheel. These wheels are to be clothed as usual.

132. *Fire-Globes for the Water.*

Bowls for water-globes must be very large, and the wheels on them of a decagon form: on each side of which nail a piece of wood 4 inches long; and on the outside of each piece cut a groove, wide enough to receive about $\frac{3}{4}$ of the thickness of a 4-oz. case: these pieces of wood must be nailed in the middle of each face of the wheel, and fixed in an oblique direction, so that the fire from the cases may incline upwards: the wheel being thus prepared, tie in each groove a 4-oz. case, filled with a grey charge; than carry a leader from the tail of one case to the mouth of the other.

Globes for these wheels are made of 2 tin hoops, with their edges outwards, fixed one within the other, at right angles. The diameter of these hoops must be somewhat less than that of the wheel. Having made a globe, drive in the centre of a wheel an iron spindle, which must stand perpendicular, and its length 4 or 6 inches more than the diameter of the globe.

This spindle serves for an axis, on which the globe is fixed, which, when done, must stand 4 or 6 inches from the wheel: round one side of each hoop must be soldered little bits of tin, $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches distance from each other; which pieces must be 2 inches in length each, and only fastened at one end, the other ends being left loose, to turn round the small port-fires, and hold them on: these port-fires must be made of such a length, as will last out the cases on the wheel. You are to observe, that there need not be any port-fires at the bottom of the globe within 4 inches of the spindle; for, if there were, they would have no effect, but only burn the wheel: all the port-fires must be placed perpendicular from the centre of the globe, with their mouths outwards; and must all be clothed with leaders, so as all to take fire with the second case of the wheel; which cases must burn two at a time, one opposite the other. When two cases of a wheel begin together, two will end together; therefore the two opposite end cases must have their ends pinched and secured from fire. The method of firing such wheels is, by carrying a leader from the mouth of one of the first cases to that of the other; which leader being burnt through the middle, will give fire to both at the same time.

133. *Odoriferous Water Balloons.*

These balloons are made in the same manner as air-balloons, but very thin of paper, and in diameter $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch, with a vent of $\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter. The shells being made, and quite dry, fill them with any of the following compositions, which must be rammed in tight: these balloons must be fired at the vent, and put into a bowl of water. Odoriferous works are generally fired in rooms.

Composition I. Saltpetre 2 oz. flour of sulphur 1 oz. camphor $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. yellow amber $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. charcoal-dust $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. flour of benjamin or assa odorata $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. all powdered very fine and well mixed.

II. Saltpetre 12 oz. meal-powder 3 oz. frankincense 1 oz. myrrh $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. camphor $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. charcoal 3 oz. all moistened with the oil of spike. Aquatic Fireworks.

III. Saltpetre 2 oz. sulphur $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. antimony $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. amber $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. cedar rasپings $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. all mixed with the oil of roses and a few drops of bergamot.

IV. Saltpetre 4 oz. sulphur 1 oz. saw-dust of juniper $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. saw-dust of cypress 1 oz. camphor $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. myrrh 2 drams, dried rosemary $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. cortex elaterii $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. all moistened a little with the oil of roses.

N. B. Water rockets may be made with any of the above compositions, with a little alteration, to make them weaker or stronger, according to the size of the cases.

134. *Water Balloons.*

Having made some thin paper-shells, of what diameter you please, fill some with the composition for water balloons, and some after this manner: Having made the vent of the shells pretty large, fill them almost full with water rockets, marrons, squibs, &c. Then put in some blowing powder, sufficient to burst the shells; and afterwards fix in the vent a water-rocket, long enough to reach the bottom of the shell, and its neck to project a little out of the vent; this rocket must be open at the end, to fire the powder in the shell, which will burst the shell, and disperse the small rockets, &c. in the water. When you have well secured the large rocket in the vent of the shell, take a cork float with a hole in its middle, which fit over the head of the rocket, and fasten it to the shell: this float must be large enough to keeep the balloon above water.

135. *Water Squibs,*

Are generally made of 1-oz. serpent cases 7 or 8 inches long, filled two thirds with charge, and the remainder bounced. The common method of firing them is this: Take a water-wheel, with a tin mortar in its centre, which load with squibs after the usual method; but the powder in the mortar must be no more than will just throw the squibs out (easily into the water): you may place the cases on the wheel either obliquely or horizontally; and on the top of the wheel, round the mortar, fix six cases of brilliant fire, perpendicular to the wheel: these cases must be fired at the beginning of the last case of the wheel, and the mortar at the conclusion of the same.

136. *A Sea Fight with small Ships, and to prepare a Fire-ship for it.*

Having procured four or five small ships, of two or three feet in length, (or as many as you design to fight), make a number of small reports, which are to serve for guns. Of these range as many as you please on each side of the upper decks; then at the head and stern of each ship fix a 2-oz. case, 8 inches long, filled with a slow port fire receipt; but take care to place it in such a manner that the fire may fall in the water, and not burn the rigging: in these cases bore holes at unequal distances from one another, but make as many in each case as half the number of reports, so that one case may fire the guns on one side, and the other those on the opposite. The method of firing the guns is, by carrying a leader from the holes in the cases to the reports on the decks; you must make these leaders very small, and be careful in calculating the burning of the slow-fire in the regulating cases, that more than two guns be not fired at a time. When you would have a broad-

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broadside given, let a leader be carried to a cracker, placed on the outside of the ship; which cracker must be tied loose, or the reports will be too slow: in all the ships put artificial guns at the port-holes.

Having filled and bored holes in two port-fires for regulating the guns in one ship, make all the rest exactly the same; then, when you begin the engagement, light one ship first, and set it a sailing, and so on with the rest, sending them out singly, which will make them fire regularly, at different times, without confusion; for the time between the firing of each gun will be equal to that of lighting the slow fires.

The fire-ship may be of any size; and need not be very good, for it is always lost in the action. To prepare a ship for this purpose, make a port-fire equal in size with those in the other ships, and place it at the stern; in every port place a large port-fire, filled with a very strong composition, and painted in imitation of a gun, and let them all be fired at once by a leader from the slow fire, within two or three diameters of its bottom; all along both sides, on the top of the upper deck, lay star-composition about half an inch thick and one broad, which must be wetted with thin size, then primed with meal-powder, and secured from fire by pasting paper over it; in the place where you lay this composition, drive some little tacks with flat heads, to hold it fast to the deck: this must be fired just after the sham guns, and when burning will show a flame all round the ship: at the head take up the decks, and put in a tin mortar loaded with crackers, which mortar must be fired by a pipe from the end of the slow fire; the firing of this mortar will sink the ship, and make a pretty conclusion. The regulating port-fire of this ship must be lighted at the same time with the first fighting ship.

Having prepared all the ships for fighting, we shall next proceed with the management of them when on the water. At one end of the pond, just under the surface of the water, fix two running blocks, at what distance you choose the ships should fight; and at the other end of the pond, opposite to each of these blocks, under the water, fix a double block; then on the land, by each of the double blocks, place two small windlasses; round one of them turn one end of a small cord, and the other end put through one of the blocks; then carry it through the single one at the opposite end of the pond, and bring it back through the double block again, and round the other windlass: to this cord, near the double block, tie as many small strings as half the number of the ships, at what distance you think proper; but these strings must not be more than two feet each: make fast the loose end of each to a ship, just under her bow-sprit; but if tied to the keel, or too near the water, it will overset the ship. Half the ships being thus prepared, near the other double block fix two more windlasses, to which fasten a cord, and to it tie the other half of the ships as before: when you fire the ships, pull in the cord with one of the windlasses, to get all the ships together; and when you have set fire to the first, turn that windlass which draws them out, and so on with the rest, till they are all out in the middle of the pond; then by turning the other windlass, you will draw them back again; by which method you may make them change sides, and tack about backwards and forwards at pleasure. For the fire-ship, fix the blocks and windlasses between the others, so that when she sails out, she will be between the other ships: you must not let this ship advance till the guns at her ports take fire.

137. *To fire Sky-rockets under water,*

You must have stands made as usual, only the rails must be placed flat instead of edgewise, and have holes in them for the rocket sticks to go through; for if they were hung upon hooks, the motion of the water would throw them off: the stands being made, if the pond is deep enough, sink them at the sides, so deep, that, when the rockets are in, their heads may just appear above the surface of the water; to the mouth of each rocket fix a leader, which put through the hole with the stick; then a little above the water must be a board, supported by the stand, and placed along one side of the rockets; then the ends of the leaders are turned up through holes made in this board, exactly opposite the rockets. By this means you may fire them singly or all at once. Rockets may be fired by this method in the middle of a pond, by a Neptune, a swan, a water-wheel, or any thing else you choose.

138. *To represent Neptune in his Chariot.*

To do this to perfection, you must have a Neptune made (made of wood, or basket work) as big as life, fixed on a float large enough to bear his weight; on which must be two horses heads and necks, so as to seem swimming, as shown by fig. 11. For the wheels of the chariot, there must be two vertical wheels of black fire, and on Neptune's head a horizontal wheel of brilliant fire, with all its cases, to play upwards. When this wheel is made, cover it with paper or pasteboard, cut and painted like Neptune's coronet; then let the trident be made without prongs, but instead of them, fix three cases of a weak grey charge, and on each horse's head put an 8-oz. case of brilliant fire, and on the mouth of each fix a short case, of the same diameter, filled with the white-flame receipt, enough to last out all the cases on the wheels: these short cases must be open at bottom, that they may light the brilliant fires; for the horses eyes, put small port-fires, and in each nostril put a small case filled half with grey charge, and the rest with port-fire composition. Plate CCXLIX.

If Neptune is to give fire to any building on the water; at his first setting out, the wheels of the chariot, and that on his head, with the white flames on the horses heads, and the port-fires in their eyes and nostrils, must all be lighted at once; then from the bottom of the white flames carry a leader to the trident. As Neptune is to advance by the help of a block and cord, you must manage it so as not to let him turn about, till the brilliant fires on the horses and the trident begin; for it is by the fire from the horses, (which plays almost upright) that the building, or work, is lighted; which must be thus prepared. From the mouth of case which is to be first fired, hang some loose quick-match to receive the fire from the horses. When Neptune is only to be shown by himself, without setting fire to any other works; let the white flames on the horses be very short, and not to last longer than one case of each wheel, and let two cases of each wheel burn at a time.

139. *Swans and Ducks in water.*

If you would have the swans or ducks discharge rockets into the water, they must be made hollow, and of

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of paper, and filled with ſmall water rockets, with ſome blowing powder to throw them out: but if this is not done, they may be made of wood, which will laſt many times. Having made and painted ſome ſwans, fix them on floats: then in the places where their eyes ſhould be, bore holes two inches deep, inclining downwards, and wide enough to receive a ſmall port-fire; the port-fire caſes for this purpoſe muſt be made of braſs, two inches long, and filled with a ſlow bright charge. In the middle of one of theſe caſes make a little hole; then put the port-fire in the eye-hole of the ſwan, leaving about half an inch to project out; and in the other eye put another port-fire, with a hole made in it: then in the neck of the ſwan, within two inches of one of the eyes, bore a hole ſlantwiſe, to meet that in the port-fire; in this hole put a leader, and carry it to a water-rocket, that muſt be fixed under the tail with its mouth upwards. On the top of the head place two 1-oz. caſes, 4 inches long each, drove with brilliant fire; one of theſe caſes muſt incline forwards, and the other backwards: theſe muſt be lighted at the ſame time as the water-rocket; to do which, bore a hole between them in the top of the ſwan's head, down to the hole in the port-fire, to which carry a leader: if the ſwan is filled with rockets, they muſt be fired by a pipe from the end of the water-rocket under the tail. When you ſet the ſwan a ſwimming, light the two eyes,

Aquatic Fireworks.

140. *Water Fire-fountains.*

To make a fire-fountain, you muſt firſt have a float made of wood, three feet diameter; then in the middle fix a round perpendicular poſt, four feet high, and two inches diameter; round this poſt fix three circular wheels made of thin wood, without any ſpokes. The largeſt of theſe wheels muſt be placed within two or three inches of the float, and muſt be nearly of the ſame diameter. The ſecond wheel muſt be 2 feet 2 inches diameter, and fixed at two feet diſtance from the firſt. The third wheel muſt be 1 foot 4 inches diameter, and fixed within ſix inches of the top of the poſt: the wheels being fixed, take 18 four or eight oz. caſes of brilliant fire, and place them round the firſt wheel with their mouths outwards, and inclining downwards; on the ſecond wheel place 13 caſes of the ſame, and in the ſame manner as thoſe on the firſt; on the third, place 8 more of theſe caſes, in the ſame manner as before, and on the top of the poſt fix a gerbe; then clothe all the caſes with leaders, ſo that both they and the gerbe may take fire at the ſame time. Before you fire this work, try it in the water to ſee if the float is properly made, ſo as to keep the fountain upright.

P Y R

PYROTICS, in medicine, cauſtics, or remedies either actually or potentially hot; and which accordingly will burn the fleſh, and raiſe an eſchar. See CAUSTICS.

PYRRHICHA, in antiquity, a kind of exerciſe on horſe-back, or a feigned combat, for the exerciſe of the cavalry.

It was thus called from its inventor Pyrrhichus, or Pyrrhus of Cydonia, who firſt taught the Cretans to march in meaſure and cadence to battle, and to obſerve the pace of the Pyrrhic foot.—Others derive the name from Pyrrhus the ſon of Achilles, who inſtituted this exerciſe at the obſequies of his father. Ariſtotle ſays, that it was Achilles himſelf who invented it.

The Romans alſo called it *Indus Trojanus*, the "Trojan game;" and Aulus Gellius, *decurſus*.—It is doubtleſs this exerciſe that we ſee repreſented on medals by two cavaliers in front running with lances, and the word *decurſio* in the exergum.

PYRRHICHIUS, in the Greek and Latin poetry, a foot conſiſting of two ſyllables, both ſhort;—as, *Deus*.—Among the ancients this foot is alſo called *periambus*; by others, *hegemona*.

PYRRHO, a Greek philoſopher, born at Elis in Peloponneſus, flouriſhed about 300 B. C. He was the diſciple of Anaxarchus, whom he accompanied as far as India. He had made painting his profeſſion, before he devoted himſelf to the ſtudy of philoſophy. He eſtabliſhed a ſect whoſe fundamental principle was, That there is nothing true or falſe, right or wrong, honeſt or diſhoneſt, juſt or unjuſt; or that there is no ſtandard of any thing beyond law or cuſtom, and that uncertainty and doubt belong to every thing. From this continual ſeeking after truth and never finding it, the ſect obtained the name of *Sceptics* or *Pyrrhonians*, from the founder.

PYRRHUS, the name of two kings of EPIRUS. See that article.

P Y R

PYRRHONIANS, a ſect of ancient philoſophers, the followers of the doctrines of PYRRHO. See the preceding article.

PYRUS, the PEAR-TREE; a genus of the pentagynia order, belonging to the icoſandria claſs of plants. To this genus Linnæus has joined the apple and quince; but, on account of the remarkable difference between the fruits, the laſt is treated under the article CYDONIA. The other ſpecies are,

1. The communis, or common pear-tree, riſes with an upright large trunk, branching 30 or 40 feet high, in ſome widely around, in others more erectly, and forming a conical head; oval, lanceolated, ſerrated leaves, and corymbous cluſters of white flowers from the ſides of the branches, ſucceeded by large fruit extended at the baſe. Under this ſpecies are comprehended almoſt endleſs varieties, all bearing the above deſcription. They bear their flowers and fruit upon ſpurs, ariſing from the ſides of the branches from two or three years old and upwards; the ſame branches and ſpurs continuing fruitful for a great number of years. The different varieties furniſh fruit for uſe from the beginning of July till the months of May and June next year; which, according to their times of ripening, may be divided into three claſſes, ſummer-pears, autumn pears, and winter pears. The ſummer pears ripen in different ſorts from the beginning of July until the middle or end of September, and are generally fit to eat from the tree, or at leaſt do not keep a week or two before they rot. The autumn pears come to their perfection in October, November, and December; ſome ripening nearly on the tree in October and the beginning of November, others requiring to lie ſome time in the fruitery, while ſome will keep two months: but all the winter-pears, though they attain their full growth on the tree by the end of October and in November, yet they do not acquire perfection for

Pyrus.

for eating till from the end of November to April and May. Those of each class have different properties; some being melting, others breaking, some mealy, and some hard and austere fit only for kitchen uses. As many of the finest sorts were first obtained from France, they are still continued in most catalogues by French names.

2. The malus, or common apple-tree, grows 20 or 30 feet high, having oval serrated leaves, and sessile umbels of whitish red flowers, succeeded by large, roundish, and oblong fruit, concave at the base. The varieties of this species are amazingly great with respect to the differences of the fruit. The botanists contend, that the wilding, or crab-apple of the woods and hedges, is the original kind, and from the seeds of which the cultivated apple was first obtained. The varieties of this last no doubt are multiplied to some hundreds in different places, having been all first accidentally obtained from the seed or kernels of the fruit, and the approved sorts continued and increased by grafting upon crabs or any kind of apple-stocks: but although the number of varieties is very considerable, there are not above 40 or 50 sorts retained in the nurserymens catalogue. These varieties arrive at full growth in successive order from July to the end of October, improve in perfection after being gathered, and several of the winter kinds in particular keep good for many months, even till the arrival of apples next summer.

3. The coronaria, or sweet-scented crab of Virginia, grows 12 or 15 feet high, having angular, serrated leaves, pedunculated umbels of whitish-red, sweet-scented flowers, succeeded by small round crabs, remarkably sour and austere. There is one variety, called the *evergreen Virginian crab-tree*.

Culture. All the varieties of the pear-tree are hardy, and will succeed in any common soil of a garden or orchard. They are propagated by grafting and budding upon any kind of pear-stocks; also occasionally upon quince-stocks, and sometimes upon white-thorn stocks; but pear-stocks are greatly preferable to all others for general use.—All kinds of apples are propagated in the same manner; using apple-stocks instead of pear-stocks. They will succeed in any common soil of a garden or orchard, and in any free situation except in a low and very moist soil, in which they are apt to canker, and very soon go off. In a liable loam they are generally very successful.

PYTHAGORAS, a most celebrated philosopher of Samos, was born about 590 years before Christ, and flourished in the time of Tarquin the last king of Rome. He travelled for knowledge to Egypt, Babylon, and various parts of Greece; but settled at Croton in Italy, where he opened a school that was frequented from all parts. After the manner of the Egyptians, he inculcated his doctrines by symbols. He forbad the eating of flesh, taught the transmigration of souls, made considerable discoveries in arts and sciences, and delivered a great variety of precepts for civil and political conduct. His maxims of morality were admirable; for he was for having the study of philosophy solely tend to elevate man to a resemblance of the Deity. He believed that God is a soul diffused through all nature, and that from him human souls are derived; that they are immortal, and that men need only take pains to purge themselves of their vices, in order to be united to the Deity. He made unity the principle of all things; and believed, that between God and man there are various orders of spiritual beings, who are the ministers of the Supreme Being. He condemned all images of the Deity, and would have him worshipped with as few ceremonies as possible. His disciples brought all their goods into a common stock, contemned the pleasures of sense, abstained from swearing, eat nothing that had life, and believed in the doctrine of a metemplychosis. See the article METEMPSYCHOSIS.

Pythagoras made his scholars undergo a severe noviciate of silence for at least two years; and it is said, that, where he discerned too great an itch for talking, he extended it to five: his disciples were therefore divided into two classes, of which the first were simple hearers, and the last such as were allowed to propose their difficulties, and learn the reasons of all that was taught there. The Pythagoreans, it is said, on their rising from bed, roused the mind with the sound of the lyre, in order to make them more fit for the actions of the day; and at night resumed the lyre, in order to prepare themselves for sleep, by calming all their tumultuous thoughts. The figurative manner in which he gave his instructions, was borrowed from the Hebrews, Egyptians, and other orientals. Some think he derived his philosophy from the books of Moses, and that he conversed with Ezekiel and Daniel at Babylon: but this is mere conjecture.

The circumstances of his death are variously related. Some say that he was burnt at Milo's house at Crotona, together with his disciples. Others say that he escaped from the flames; and, being pursued out of the city, stopped in a field of beans, and chose rather to be killed than open his mouth. Dicæarchus says, that he fled to the temple of the Muses at Metapontus, where he died of hunger. Others assert that he was killed, with all his disciples, by the Agrigentines. Arnobius affirms, that he was burnt alive in a temple, &c. But Justin seems to insinuate, that after his having lived 20 years at Crotona, he died in peace in a very advanced age at Metapontum, to which city he had retired. His memory was held in such veneration, that his house was converted into a temple, and he was honoured as a god.

Some authors say, that he left nothing in writing; but Laërtius and others attribute several treatises to him. His golden verses, attributed by some to one of his disciples, are allowed to be an exact copy of the sentiments of that divine philosopher, from whose school proceeded the greatest philosophers and legislators.

PYTHAGOREANS, a sect of ancient philosophers, so called from being the followers of Pythagoras. See the preceding article.

PYTHIA, in antiquity, the priestess of the temple of Apollo at Delphos, who delivered the oracles. See ORACLE.

PYTHIAN GAMES, in Grecian antiquity, sports instituted near Delphos in honour of Apollo, on account of his slaying the serpent Python. See APOLLO.—These games, at their first institution, were celebrated

Pyrus || Pythian.

QUADRANTS.

Plate CCLIII.

Fig. 1.
No. 1. The Common Quadrant.

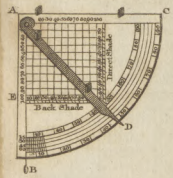


Fig. 2. Astronomical Quadrant.

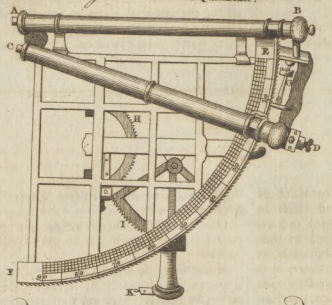
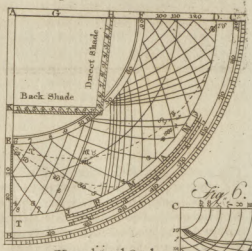
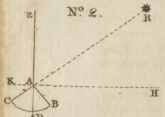


Fig. 4. Gunter's Quadrant.





Horodifical Qadrant.

Fig. 6.

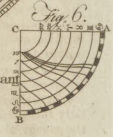


Fig. 9.
Gunner's Quadrant.

Fig. 10. Quadrant of Altitude.

Fig. 5.
Hadley's Quadrant.

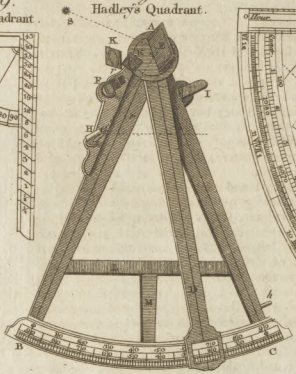


Fig. 7. Sutton's Quadrant.

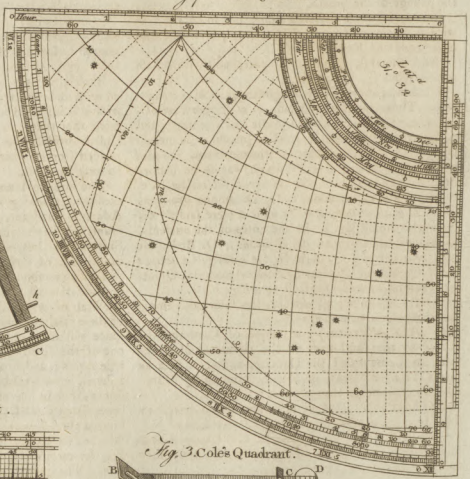


Fig. 8. Smical Quadrant.

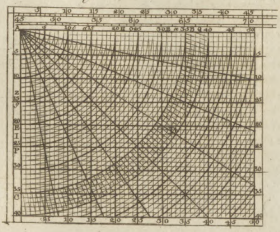
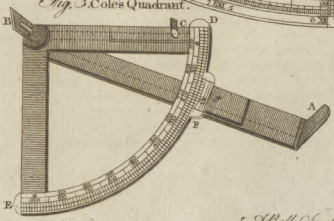


Fig. 3. Cole's Quadrant.



A Bell Sculp.

lebrated only once in nine years; but afterwards every fifth year, from the number of the Parnassian nymphs who came to congratulate Apollo, and to make him presents on his victory. The victor was crowned with garlands.

PYTHON, in fabulous history, a monstrous serpent, produced by the earth after Deucalion's deluge. Juno being exasperated at Latona, who was beloved by Jupiter, commanded this serpent to destroy her; but flying from the pursuit of the monster, she escaped to Delos, where she was delivered of Diana and Apollo, the latter of whom at length destroyed Python with his arrows, in memory of which victory the Pythian games were instituted. See APOLLO.

Q.

Q, or *q*, the 16th letter and 12th consonant of our alphabet; but is not to be found either in the Greek, old Latin, or Saxon alphabets; and indeed some would entirely exclude it, pretending that k ought to be used wherever this occurs. However, as it is formed in the voice in a different manner, it is undoubtedly a distinct letter: for, in expressing this sound, the cheeks are contracted; and the lips, particularly the under one, are put into a cannular form, for the passage of the breath.

The q is never founded alone, but in conjunction with u, as in *quality*, *question*, *quite*, *quote*, *&c.* and never ends any English word.

As a numeral, Q stands for 500; and with a dash over it, thus $\overline{Q}$, for 500,000.

Used as an abbreviature, *q* signifies *quantity*, or *quantum*. Thus, among physicians, *q. pl.* is *quantum placet*, i. e. "as much as you please" of a thing; and *q. s.* is *quantum sufficit*, i. e. "as much as is necessary." Q. E. D. among mathematicians, is *quod erat demonstrandum*, i. e. "which was to be demonstrated;" and Q. E. F. is *quod erat faciendum*, i. e. "which was to be done." Q. D. among grammarians, is *quasi dictum*, i. e. "as if it were said;" or, "as who should say." In the notes of the ancients, Q. stands for *Quintus*, or *Quintius*; Q. B. V. for *quod bene vertat*; Q. S. S. S. for *quæ supra scripta sunt*; Q. M. for *Quintus Mutius*, or *quomodo*; Quint. for *Quintilius*; and Quæs. for *quæstor*.

QUACK, among physicians, the same with empiric. See the article EMPIRIC.

QUADI, (Tacitus); a people of Germany, situated to the south-east of the mountains of Bohemia, on the banks of the Danube, and extending as far as the river Marus, or March, running by Moravia, which country they occupied.

QUADRAGESIMA, a denomination given to lent, from its consisting of 40 days. See LENT.

QUADRANGLE, in geometry, the same with a quadrilateral figure, or one consisting of four sides and four angles.

QUADRANS, the quarter or fourth part of any thing, particularly the *as*, or pound.

QUADRANS, in English money, the fourth part of a penny. Before the reign of Edward I. the smallest coin was a *sterling*, or penny, marked with a cross; by the guidance of which a penny might be cut into halves for a halfpenny, or into quarters or four parts for farthings; till, to avoid the fraud of unequal cuttings, that king coined halfpence and farthings in distinct round pieces.

QUADRANT, in geometry, the arch of a circle, containing 90°, or the fourth part of the entire periphery.

Sometimes also the space or area, included between this arch and two radii drawn from the centre to each extremity thereof, is called a *quadrant*, or, more properly, a *quadrantal space*, as being a quarter of an entire circle.

QUADRANT, also denotes a mathematical instrument of great use in astronomy and navigation, for taking the altitudes of the sun and stars, as also for taking angles in surveying, &c.

This instrument is variously contrived, and furnished with different apparatus, according to the various uses it is intended for; but they all have this in common, that they consist of a quarter of a circle, whose limb is divided into 90°. Some have a plummet suspended from the centre, and are furnished with sights to look through.

The principal and most useful quadrants are the common surveying quadrant, astronomical quadrant, Adams's quadrant, Cole's quadrant, Gunter's quadrant, Hadley's quadrant, horodictical quadrant, Sutton's or Collins's quadrant, and the sinical quadrant, &c. of each of which in order.

1. The common surveying quadrant, ABC, fig. 1. is made of brass, wood, or any other solid substance; the limb of which BC is divided into 90°, and each of these farther divided into as many equal parts as the space will allow, either diagonally or otherwise. On one of the semi-diameters AC, are fitted two moveable sights; and to the centre is sometimes also fixed a label, or moveable index AD, bearing two other sights; but in lieu of these last sights there is sometimes fitted a telescope: also from the centre there is hung a thread with a plummet; and on the under side or face of the instrument is fitted a ball and socket, by means of which it may be put into any position. The general use of it is for taking angles in a vertical plane, comprehended under right lines going from the centre of the instrument, one of which is horizontal, and the other is directed to some visible point. But besides the parts already described, there is frequently added on the face, near the centre, a kind of compartment, EF, called the *quadrat*, or *geometrical square*. See QUADRAT. Plate CCLIII.

This quadrant may be used in different situations: for

for observing heights or depths, its plane must be disposed perpendicularly to the horizon; but to take horizontal distances, its plane is disposed parallel thereto. Again, heights and distances may be taken two ways, viz. by means of the fixed sights and plummet, or by the label: As to which, and the manner of measuring angles, see GEOMETRY, p. [12.] [13.]

2. The astronomical quadrant is a large one, usually made of brass, or wooden bars faced with iron plates; having its limb, FE, (fig. 2.) nicely divided, either diagonally or otherwise, into degrees, minutes, and seconds; and furnished with two telescopes, one fixed on the side of the quadrant, at AB; and the other, CD, moveable about the centre, by means of the screw G. The dented wheels I, H, serve to direct the instrument to any object or phænomenon.—The use of this curious instrument, in taking observations of the sun, planets, and fixed stars, is obvious; for being turned horizontally upon its axis, by means of the telescope AB, till the object is seen thro' the moveable telescope, then the degrees, &c. cut by the index give the altitude required. See ASTRONOMY, nº 177, 182, &c.

Plate CCLIII.

3. Cole's quadrant is a very useful instrument invented by Mr Benjamin Cole. It consists of six parts, viz. the staff AB, (fig. 3.); the quadrantal-arch DE; three vanes A,B,C; and the vernier, FG. The staff is a bar of wood about two feet long, an inch and a quarter broad, and of a sufficient thickness to prevent it from bending or warping. The quadrantal arch is also of wood; and is divided into degrees, and third-parts of a degree, to a radius of about nine inches; to its extremities are fitted two radii, which meet in the centre of the quadrant by a pin, round which it easily moves. The sight-vane A is a thin piece of brass, almost two inches in height, and one broad, placed perpendicularly on the end of the staff A, by the help of two screws passing through its foot. Through the middle of this vane is drilled a small hole, thro' which the coincidence or meeting of the horizon and solar spot is to be viewed. The horizon vane B is about an inch broad, and two inches and a half high, having a slit cut thro' it of near an inch long and a quarter of an inch broad; this vane is fixed in the centre-pin of the instrument, in a perpendicular position, by the help of two screws passing thro' its foot, whereby its position with respect to the sight-vane is always the same, their angles of inclination being equal to 45 degrees. The shade-vane C is composed of two brass plates. The one, which serves as an arm, is about four inches and a half long, and three quarters of an inch broad, being pinned, at one end, to the upper limb of the quadrant by a screw, about which it has a small motion; the other end lies in the arch, and the lower edge of the arm is directed to the middle of the centre-pin: the other plate, which is properly the vane, is about two inches long, being fixed perpendicularly to the other plate, at about half an inch distance from that end next the arch; this vane may be used either by its shade, or by the solar spot cast by a convex lens placed therein. And, because the wood-work is often apt to warp or twist, therefore this vane may be rectified by the help of a screw, so that the warping of the instrument may occasion no error in the observation, which is performed in the following manner: Set the line G on the vernier against a degree on the upper limb of the quadrant, and turn the screw on the backside of the limb forward or backward, till the hole in the sight-vane, the centre of the glass, and the sunk spot in the horizon-vane, lie in a right line.

To find the sun's altitude by this instrument: Turn your back to the sun, holding the instrument by the staff, with your right hand, so that it be in a vertical plane passing thro' the sun; apply your eye to the sight-vane, looking through that and the horizon-vane till you see the horizon; with the left hand slide the quadrantal arch upwards, until the solar spot or shade, cast by the shade-vane, fall directly on the spot or slit in the horizon-vane; then will that part of the quadrantal arch, which is raised above G or S (according as the observation respected either the solar spot or shade) show the altitude of the sun at that time. But, if the meridian altitude be required, the observation must be continued, and, as the sun approaches the meridian, the sea will appear through the horizon-vane, and then is the observation finished; and the degrees and minutes, counted as before, will give the sun's meridian altitude: or the degrees counted from the lower limb upwards will give the zenith-distance.

4. Adams's quadrant differs only from Cole's quadrant, in having an horizontal vane, with the upper part of the limb lengthened; so that the glass, which casts the solar spot on the horizon-vane, is at the same distance from the horizon-vane as the sight-vane at the end of the index.

5. Gunter's quadrant, so called from its inventor Edmund Gunter, is represented by fig. 4; and, besides the apparatus of other quadrants, has a stereographical projection of the sphere on the plane of the equinoctial. It has also a calendar of the months, next to the divisions of the limb.—*Use of Gunter's quadrant.* 1. To find the sun's meridian altitude for any given day, or the day of the month for any given meridian altitude. Lay the thread to the day of the month in the scale next the limb; and the degree it cuts in the limb, is the sun's meridian altitude. Thus the thread, being laid on the 15th of May, cuts 59° 30′, the altitude sought; and, contrarily, the thread, being set to the meridian altitude, shows the day of the month. 2. To find the hour of the day. Having put the bead, which slides on the thread, to the sun's place in the ecliptic, observe the sun's altitude by the quadrant; then, if the thread be laid over the same in the limb, the bead will fall upon the hour required. Thus suppose on the 10th of April, the sun being then in the beginning of Taurus, I observe the sun's altitude by the quadrant to be 36°; I place the bead to the beginning of Taurus in the ecliptic, and lay the thread over 36° of the limb; and find the bead to fall on the hour-line marked 3 and 9; accordingly the hour is either 9 in the morning, or 3 in the afternoon. Again, laying the bead on the hour given, having first rectified or put it to the sun's place, the degree cut by the thread on the limb gives the altitude. Note, the bead may be rectified otherwise, by bringing the thread to the day of the month, and the bead to the hour-line of 12. 3. To find the sun's declination from his place given, and contrariwise. Set the bead to the sun's place in the ecliptic, move the thread

Quadrant. thread to the line of declination ET, and the bead will cut the degree of declination required. Contrarily, the bead being adjusted to a given declination, and the thread moved to the ecliptic, the bead will cut the sun's place. 4. The sun's place being given, to find his right ascension, or contrarily. Lay the thread on the sun's place in the ecliptic, and the degree it cuts on the limb is the right ascension sought. Contrarily, laying the thread on the right ascension, it cuts the sun's place in the ecliptic. 5. The sun's altitude being given, to find his azimuth, and contrariwise. Rectify the bead for the time, as in the second article, and observe the sun's altitude; bring the thread to the compliment of that altitude; thus the bead will give the azimuth sought, among the azimuth-lines. 6. To find the hour of the night from some of the five stars laid down on the quadrant. (1.) Put the bead to the star you would observe, and find how many hours it is off the meridian, by article 2. (2.) Then, from the right ascension of the star, subtract the sun's right ascension converted into hours, and mark the difference; which difference, added to the observed hour of the star from the meridian, shews how many hours the sun is gone from the meridian, which is the hour of the night. Suppose on the 15th of May the sun is in the 4th degree of Gemini, I set the bead to Arcturus; and, observing his altitude, find him to be in the west about 52° high, and the bead to fall on the hour-line of 2 in the afternoon; then will the hour be 11 hours 50 min. past noon, or 10 min. short of midnight: for 62°, the sun's right ascension, converted into time, makes 4 hours 8 minutes; which, substracted from 13 hours 58 minutes, the right ascension of Arcturus, the remainder will be 9 hours 50 minutes; which added to 2 hours, the observed distance of Arcturus from the meridian, shows the hour of the night to be 11 hours 50 minutes.

Plate CCLIII. 6. Hadley's quadrant, (fig. 5.) so called from its inventor J. Hadley, Esq. consists of the following particulars: 1. An octant, or $\frac{1}{8}$ part of a circle, ABC. 2. An index D. 3. The speculum E. 4. Two horizontal glasses, F,G. 5. Two screens, K,K. 6. Two sight-vanes, H,I.

The octant consists of two radii, AB, AC, which are strengthened by the braces L,M, and the arch BC; which, tho' containing only 45°, is nevertheless divided into 90 primary divisions, each of which stands for degrees, and are numbered 0, 10, 20, 30, &c. to 90; beginning at each end of the arch for the convenience of numbering both ways, either for altitudes or zenith-distances. Again, each degree is subdivided into minutes.

The index D, is a flat bar, moveable round the centre of the instrument; and that part of it which slides over the graduated arch, BC, is open in the middle, with Vernier's scale on the lower part of it; and underneath is a screw, serving to fasten the index against any division.

The speculum E, is a piece of flat glass, quicksilvered on one side, set in a brass box, and placed perpendicular to the plane of the instrument, the middle part of the former coinciding with the centre of the latter. And, because the speculum is fixed to the index, the position of it will be altered by the moving of the index along the arch. The rays of an observed object are received on the specu[illegible], and from thence reflected on one of the horizon-glasses, F,G; which are two small pieces of looking-glass placed on one of the limbs, their faces being turned obliquely to the speculum, from whence they receive the reflected rays of observed objects. This glass, F, has only its lower part quicksilvered, and set in brass-work; the upper part being left transparent to view the horizon. The glass G has in its middle a transparent slit, thro' which the horizon is to be seen. And because the warping of the wood-work, and other accidents, may distend them from their true situation, there are three screws passing thro' their feet, whereby they may be easily replaced. The screens are two pieces of coloured glass, set in two square brass-frames K,K, which serve as screens to take off the glare of the sun's rays, which would be otherwise too strong for the eye; the one is tinged much deeper than the other, and, as both of them move on the same centre, they may be both or either of them used: in the situation they appear in the figure, they serve for the horizon-glass F; but, when they are wanted for the horizon-glass G, they must be taken from their present situation, and placed on the quadrant above G.

The sight-vanes are two pins, H and I, standing at right angles to the plane of the instrument; that at H has one hole in it, opposite to the transparent slit in the horizon-glass G; the other, at I, has two holes in it, the one opposite to the middle of the transparent part of the horizon-glass F, the other rather lower than the quicksilvered part: this vane has a piece of brass on the back of it, which moves round a centre, and serves to cover either of the holes.

There are two sorts of observations to be made with this instrument: the one, when the back of the observer is turned towards the object, and therefore called the *back observation;* the other, when the face of the observer is turned towards the object, which is called the *fore-observation.*

To rectify the instrument for the fore-observation: Slacken the screw in the middle of the handle behind the glass F; bring the index close to the button *b*; hold the instrument in a vertical position, with the arch downwards; look thro' the right-hand hole in the vane I, and thro' the transparent part of the glass F, for the horizon; and if it lies in the same right line with the image of the horizon seen on the quicksilvered part, the glass F is rightly adjusted; but, if the two horizontal-lines disagree, turn the screw at the end of the handle backwards or forwards, until those lines coincide; then fasten the middle screw of the handle, and the glass is rightly adjusted.

To take the sun's altitude by the fore-observation. Having fixed the screens above the horizon-glass F, and suited them proportionally to the strength of the sun's rays, turn your face towards the sun, holding the instrument with your right hand, by the braces L,M, in a vertical position, with the arch downwards; put your eye close to the right-hand hole in the vane I, and view the horizon thro' the transparent part of the horizon-glass F, moving at the same time the index D with your left hand, till the reflex solar spot coincides with the line of the horizon; then the degrees counted from C, or that end next your body, will give the altitude of the sun at that time, observing to add

or subtract 16 minutes, according as the upper or lower edge of the sun's reflex image is made use of. But to obtain the sun's meridian altitude, which is the thing wanted, in order to find the latitude; the observations must be continued, and, as the sun approaches the meridian, the index D must be continually moved towards B, in order to maintain the coincidence between the reflex solar spot and the horizon; and consequently, as long as this motion can maintain the same coincidence, the observation must be continued, and when the sun has attained the meridian, and begins to descend, the coincidence will require a retrograde motion of the index, or towards C; and then is the observation finished, and the degrees counted, as before, will give the sun's meridian altitude, or those from B the zenith-distance; observing to add 16′=semidiam. ☉, if the sun's lower edge is brought to the horizon; or to subtract 16′, when the horizon and upper edge coincide.

To take the altitude of a star by the fore-observation: Through the vane H, and the transparent slit in the glass G, look directly to the star; and at the same time move the index, till the image of the horizon behind you being reflected by the great speculum, is seen in the quicksilvered part of G, and meets the star; then will the index show the degrees of the star's altitude.

To rectify the instrument for the back-observation: Slacken the screw in the middle of the handle, behind the glass G; turn the button *b* on one side, and bring the index as many degrees before *o*, as is twice the drip of the horizon at your height above the water; hold the instrument vertical, with the arch downwards; look through the hole of the vane H; and if the horizon, seen through the transparent slit in the glass G, coincides with the image of the horizon seen in the quicksilvered part of the same glass, then the glass G is in its proper position; but, if not, set it by the handle, and fasten the screw as before.

To take the sun's altitude by the back observation: Put the stem of the screens K, K, into the hole *r*, and, in proportion to the strength or faintness of the sun's rays, let one, both, or neither of the frames of those glasses be turned close to the face of the limb; hold the instrument in a vertical position, with the arch downwards, by the braces L, M, with your left hand; turn your back towards the sun, and put your eye close to the hole in the vane H, observing the horizon thro' the transparent slit in the horizon-glass G; with your right-hand move the index D, till the reflected image of the sun be seen in the quicksilvered part of the glass G, and in a right line with the horizon; swing your body to and fro, and if the observation be well made, the sun's image will be observed to brush the horizon, and the degrees reckoned from C, or that part of the arch farthest from your body, will give the sun's altitude at the time of observation; observing to add 16′ = the sun's semidiameter, if the sun's upper edge be used; and subtract 16′ from the altitude, if the observation respected the lower edge.

The directions here given for taking of altitudes at sea, would be sufficient, were there not two corrections necessary to be made before the altitude can be accurately assigned, *viz.* one on account the observer's eye being raised above the level of the sea, and the other on account of the refraction occasioned in small altitudes by the haziness of the atmosphere.

We shall therefore give a table, shewing the corrections necessary to be made to altitudes on both these accounts.

height of the eye in feet.	corrections in minutes in	altitudes in degrees.	corrections in degrees.	altitude in degrees.	corrections in minutes.
5	2′	1	23′	12	4′
10	3′	2	17 1/2′	15	3 1/2′
15	4′	3	14′	20	2 1/2′
20	5′	4	11′	25	2
25	5 1/2′	5	9′	30	1 1/2′
30	6′	6	8′	35	1 1/2′
35	6 1/2′	7	7′	40	1′
40	7′	8	6′	50	0 1/2′
45	7 1/2′	9	5 1/2′	60	0 1/2′
50	8′	10	5′	70	6 1/2′

General rules for using this table of corrections. 1. In the fore-observations, add the sum of the corrections to the observed zenith-distance, for the true zenith-distance; or, take the sum of the corrections from the observed altitude, and the remainder will be the altitude. 2. In the back-observations, add the dips, or corrections for the height of the eye, and subtract the refractions for altitudes; and for zenith-distances, subtract the dips, and add the refractions.

Example: By a back-observation, the altitude of the sun's lower edge was found by Hadley's quadrant to be 25° 12′; the eye being 30 feet above the horizon. By the table, the dip on 30 feet is 6′, and the refraction on 25° is 2′; therefore 25° 12′—16′ (=semidiam. ☉) = 24° 56′, and 24° 56′ + 6′ (by rule 2) = 25° 2′, and lastly 25° 2′—2′ (by rule 2) = 25° = the true or corrected altitude.

A considerable improvement has been made in the construction of this quadrant by Mr Peter Dollond, famous for his invention of achromatic telescopes. The glasses of the quadrants should be perfect planes, and have their surfaces perfectly parallel to one another. By a practice of several years, Mr Dollond found out methods of grinding them of this form to great exactness; but the advantage which should have arisen from the goodness of the glasses was often defeated by the index glass being bent by the frame which contains it. To prevent this, Mr Dollond contrived the frame so that the glass lies on three points, and the part that presses on the front of the glass has also three points opposite to the former. These points are made to confine the glass by three screws at the back acting directly opposite to the points between which the glass is placed. The principal improvements, however, are in the methods of adjusting the glasses, particularly for the back-observation. The method formerly practised for adjusting that part of the instrument by means of the opposite horizons at sea was attended with so many difficulties that it was scarce ever used: for so little dependence could be placed on the observations taken this way, that the best Hadley's sextants made for the purpose of observing the distances of the moon from the sun

ſun or fixed ſtars have been always made without the horizon-glaſs for the back-obſervation; for want of which, many valuable obſervations of the ſun and moon have been loſt, when their diſtance exceeded 120 degrees. To make the adjuſtment of the back-obſervation eaſy and exact, he applied an index to the back horizon-glaſs, by which it may be moved in a parallel poſition to the index glaſs in order to give it the two adjuſtments in the ſame manner as the fore horizon-glaſs is adjuſted. Then, by moving the index to which the back horizon-glaſs is fixed exactly 90 degrees (which is known by the diviſions made for that purpoſe), the glaſs will be thereby ſet at right angles to the index glaſs, and will be properly adjuſted for uſe; and the obſervations may be made with the ſame accuracy by this as by the fore-obſervation. To adjuſt the horizon-glaſſes in the perpendicular poſition to the plane of the inſtrument, he contrived to move each of them by a ſingle ſcrew, which goes through the frame of the quadrant, and is turned by means of a milled head at the back; which may be done by the obſerver while he is looking at the object. To theſe improvements alſo he added a method invented by Mr Maſkelyne, of placing darkening-glaſſes behind the horizon-glaſſes. Theſe, which ſerve for darkening the object ſeen by direct viſion, in adjuſting the inſtrument by the ſun or moon, he placed in ſuch a manner as to be turned behind the fore horizon-glaſs, or behind the back horizon-glaſs: there are three of theſe glaſſes of different degrees of darkneſs.

We have been the more particular in our deſcription and uſe of Hadley's quadrant, as it is undoubtedly the beſt hitherto invented.

7. Horodictical quadrant, a pretty commodious inſtrument, ſo called from its uſe in telling the hour of the day.—Its conſtruction is this: From the centre of the quadrant, C, fig. 6. whoſe limb AB is divided into 90°, deſcribe ſeven concentric circles at intervals at pleaſure; and to theſe add the ſigns of the zodiac, in the order repreſented in the figure. Then, applying a ruler to the centre C and the limb AB, mark upon the ſeveral parallels the degrees correſponding to the altitude of the ſun when therein, for the given hours; connect the points belonging to the ſame hour with a curve line, to which add the number of the hour. To the radius CA fit a couple of ſights, and to the centre of the quadrant C tie a thread with a plummet, and upon the thread a bead to ſlide. If now the head be brought to the parallel wherein the ſun is, and the quadrant directed to the ſun, till a viſual ray paſs through the ſights, the bead will ſhow the hour. For the plummet, in this ſituation, cuts all the parallels in the degrees correſponding to the ſun's altitude. Since then the bead is in the parallel which the ſun deſcribes, and through the degrees of altitude to which the ſun is elevated every hour there paſs hour-lines, the bead muſt ſhow the preſent hour. Some repreſent the hour-lines by arches of circles, or even by ſtraight lines, and that without any ſenſible error.

Plate CCLIII.

8. Sutton's or Collins's quadrant (fig. 7.) is a ſtereographic projection of one quarter of the ſphere between the tropics, upon the plane of the ecliptic, the eye being in its north-pole: it is fitted to the latitude of London. The lines running from the right hand to the left, are parallels of altitude; and thoſe croſſing them are azimuths. The leſſer of the two circles, bounding the projection, is one fourth of the tropic of Capricorn; the greater is one fourth of that of Cancer. The two ecliptics are drawn from a point on the left edge of the quadrant, with the characters of the ſigns upon them; and the two horizons are drawn from the ſame point. The limb is divided both into degrees and time; and, by having the ſun's altitude, the hour of the day may be found here to a minute. The quadrantal arches next the centre contain the calendar of months; and under them, in another arch, is the ſun's declination. On the projection are placed ſeveral of the moſt noted fixed ſtars between the tropics; and the next below the projection is the quadrant and line of ſhadows.—To find the time of the ſun's riſing or ſetting, his amplitude, his azimuth, hour of the day, &c, by this quadrant: lay the thread over the day and the month, and bring the bead to the proper ecliptic, either of ſummer or winter, according to the ſeaſon, which is called *rectifying*; then, moving the thread, bring the bead to the horizon, in which caſe the thread will cut the limb in the time of the ſun's riſing or ſetting before or after ſix; and at the ſame time the bead will cut the horizon in the degrees of the ſun's amplitude.—Again, obſerving the ſun's altitude with the quadrant, and ſuppoſing it ſound 45° on the fifth of May, lay the thread over the fifth of May, bring the bead to the ſummer ecliptic, and carry it to the parallel of altitude 45°; in which caſe the thread will cut the limb at 55° 15′, and the hour will be ſeen among the hour-lines to be either 41′ paſt nine in the morning, or 19′ paſt two in the afternoon.—Laſtly, the bead among the azimuths ſhows the ſun's diſtance from the ſouth 50° 41′. But note, that if the ſun's altitude be leſs than what it is at ſix o'clock, the operation muſt be performed among thoſe parallels above the upper horizon; the bead being rectified to the winter ecliptic.

9. Sinical quadrant (fig. 8.) conſiſts of ſeveral concentric quadrantal arches, divided into eight equal parts by radii, with parallel right lines croſſing each other at right angles. Now any one of the arches, as BC, may repreſent a quadrant of any great circle of the ſphere, but is chiefly uſed for the horizon or meridian. If then BC be taken for a quadrant of the horizon, either of the ſides, as AB, may repreſent the meridian; and the other ſide, AC, will repreſent a parallel, or line of eaſt and weſt: and all the other lines, parallel to AB, will be alſo meridians; and all thoſe parallel to AC, eaſt and weſt lines, or parallels.—Again, the eight ſpaces into which the arches are divided by the radii, repreſent the eight points of the compaſs in a quarter of the horizon; each containing 11° 15′. The arch BC is likewiſe divided into 90°, and each degree ſubdivided into 12′, diagonal-wiſe. To the centre is fixed a thread, which, being laid over any degree of the quadrant, ſerves to divide the horizon.

If the ſinical quadrant to be taken for a fourth part of the meridian, one ſide thereof, AB, may be taken for the common radius of the meridian and equator; and then the other, AC, will be half the axis of the world. The degrees of the circumference, BC, will repreſent degrees of latitude; and the parallels to the ſide AB, aſſumed from every point of latitude to the axis AC, will be radii of the parallels of latitude, as like-

Quadrant. likewise the fine complement of those latitudes.

Suppose, then, it be required to find the degrees of longitude contained in 83 of the lesser leagues in the parallel of 48°; lay the thread over 48° of latitude on the circumference, and count thence the 83 leagues on AB, beginning at A; this will terminate in H, allowing every small interval four leagues. Then tracing out the parallel HE, from the point H to the thread; the part AE of the thread shows that 125 greater or equinoctial leagues make 6° 15′; and therefore that the 83 lesser leagues AH, which make the difference of longitude of the course, and are equal to the radius of the parallel HE, make 6° 15′ of the said parallel.

If the ship sails an oblique course, such course, besides the north and south greater leagues, gives lesser leagues easterly and westerly, to be reduced to degrees of longitude of the equator. But these leagues being made neither on the parallel of departure, nor on that of arrival, but in all the intermediate ones, we must find a mean proportional paaallel between them. To find this, we have on the instrument a scale of cross latitudes. Suppose then it were required to find a mean parallel between the parallels of 40° and 60°; with your compasses take the middle between the 40th and 60th degree on the scale: this middle point will terminate against the 51st degree, which is the mean parallel required.

The principal use of the sinical quadrant is to form triangles upon, similar to those made by a ship's way with the meridians and parallels; the sides of which triangles are measured by the equal intervals between the concentric quadrants and the lines N and S, E and W: and every fifth line and arch is made deeper than the rest. Now, suppose a ship to have sailed 150 leagues north-east, one fourth north, which is the third point, and makes an angle of 33° 44′ with the north-part of the meridian: here are given the course and distance sailed, by which a triangle may be formed on the instrument similar to that made by the ship's course; and hence the unknown parts of the triangle may be found. Thus, supposing the centre A to represent the place of departure; count, by means of the concentric circles along the point the ship sailed on, *viz.* AD, 150 leagues: then in the triangle AED, similar to that of the ship's course, find AE = difference of latitude, and DE = difference of longitude, which must be reduced according to the parallel of latitude come to.

Plate CCLIII. 10. Gunner's quadrant, (fig. 9.) sometimes called *gunner's square*, is that used for elevating and pointing cannon, mortars, &c. and consists of two branches either of brass or wood, between which is a quadrantal arch divided into 90 degrees, beginning from the shorter branch, and furnished with a thread and plummet, as represented in the figure.——The use of the gunner's quadrant is extremely easy; for if the longest branch be placed in the mouth of the piece, and it be elevated till the plummet cut the degree necessary to hit a proposed object, the thing is done. Sometimes on one of the surfaces of the long branch, are noted the division of diameters and weights of iron bullets, as also the bores of pieces.

QUADRANT *of Altitude* (fig. 10.) is an appendage of the artificial globe, consisting of a lamina, or slip of brass, the length of a quadrant of one of the great circles of the globe, and graduated. At the end, where the division terminates, is a nut rivetted on, and furnished with a screw, by means whereof the instrument is fitted on the meridian, and moveable round upon the rivet to all points of the horizon, as represented in the figure referred to.——Its use is to serve as a scale in measuring of altitudes, amplitudes, azimuths, &c. See ASTRONOMY, n° 320, &c.

Quadrat || Quail.

QUADRAT, a mathematical instrument, called also a *Geometrical Square*, and *Line of Shadows*: it is frequently an additional member on the face of the common quadrant, as also on those of Gunter's and Sutton's quadrants. See GEOMETRY, [p. 10.] and Plate CXXXVIII. fig. 1—5.

QUADRAT, in astrology, the same with quartile. See QUARTILE.

QUADRAT, in printing, a piece of metal used to fill up the void spaces between words, &c. There are quadrats of different sizes; as m-quadrats, n-quadrats, &c. which are respectively of the dimensions of these letters, only lower, that they may not receive the ink.

QUADRATIC EQUATIONS, in algebra, those wherein the unknown quantity is of two dimensions, or raised to the second power.

QUADRATRIX, in geometry, a mechanical line, by means whereof we can find right lines equal to the circumference of circles, or other curves, and their several parts.

QUADRATURE, in geometry, denotes the squaring, or reducing a figure to a square. Thus, the finding of a square, which shall contain just as much surface or area as a circle, an ellipsis, a triangle, &c. is the quadrature of a circle, ellipsis, &c. See GEOMETRY.

QUADRATURE, in astronomy, that aspect of the moon when she is 90° distant from the sun; or when she is in a middle point of her orbit, between the points of conjunction and opposition, namely, in the first and third quarters.

QUADRATUS, in anatomy, a name given to several muscles on account of their square figure. See ANATOMY, *Table of the Muscles*.

QUADREL, in building, a kind of artificial stone, so called from its being perfectly square. The quadrels are made of a chalky earth, &c. and dried in the shade for two years. These were formerly in great request among the Italian architects.

QUADRIGA, in antiquity, a car or chariot drawn by four horses. On the reverses of medals, we frequently see the emperor or Victory in a quadriga, holding the reins of the horses; whence these coins are, among the curious, called *nummi quadrigati*, and *victoriati*.

QUADRILATERAL, in geometry, a figure whose perimeter consists of four angles; whence it is also called a *quadrangular figure*.

QUADRILLE, a little troop or company of cavaliers, pompously dressed, and mounted for the performance of carousals, justs, tournaments, runnings at the ring, and other gallant divertisements.

QUADRILLE, is also the name of a game at cards, to be learned only by practice.

QUADRUPEDS, in zoology; those animals which have four limbs or legs proceeding from the trunk of their body. See ZOOLOGY.

QUAIL, in zoology. See TETRAO.

Quails are to be taken by means of the call, during their

Quail, Quakers.

their whole wooing time, which lasts from April to August. The proper times for using the call are at sun-rising, at nine o'clock in the morning, at three in the afternoon, and at sun-set; for these are the natural times of the quail's calling. The notes of the cock and hen quail are very different, and the sportsman who expects to succeed in the taking them must be expert in both: for when the cock calls, the answer is to be made in the hen's note; and when the hen calls, the answer is to be made in the cock's. By this means, they will come up to the person so that he may, with great ease, throw the net over them and take them. If a cock-quail be single, on hearing the hen's note he will immediately come; but if he have a hen already with him, he will not forsake her. Sometimes, though only one quail answers to the call, there will three or four come up; and then it is best to have patience, and not run to take up the first, but stay till they are all entangled, as they will soon be.

The quail is a neat cleanly bird, and will not run much into dirty or wet places: in dewy mornings, they will often fly instead of running to the call; and in this case, it is best to let them go over the net, if it so happens that they fly higher than its top, and the sportsman then changing sides, and calling again, the bird will come back, and then will probably be taken in the net.

The calls are to be made of a small leather purse, about two fingers wide, and four fingers long, and made in the shape of a pear; this is to be stuffed half-full of horse-hair, and at the end of it is to be placed a small whistle, made of the bone of a rabbit's leg, or some other such bone: this is to be about two inches long, and the end formed like a flageolet, with a little soft wax. This is to be the end fastened into the purse; the other is to be closed up with the same wax, only that a hole is to be opened with a pin, to make it give a distinct and clear sound. To make this sound, it is to be held full in the palm of the hand, with one of the fingers placed over the top of the wax, then the purse is to be pressed, and the finger is to shake over the middle of it, to modulate the sound it gives into a sort of shake. This is the most useful call; for it imitates the note of the hen-quail, and seldom fails to bring a cock to the net, if there be one near the place.

The call that imitates the note of the cock, and is used to bring to the hen to him, is to be about four inches long, and above an inch thick; it is to be made of a piece of wire turned round and curled, and covered with leather; and one end of it must be closed up with a piece of flat wood, about the middle of which there must be a small thread or strap of leather, and at the other end is to be placed the same sort of pipe, made of bone, as is used in the other call. The noise is made by opening and closing the spiral, and gives the same sound that the cock does when he gives the hen a signal that he is near her.

QUAKERS, a religious society that began to be distinguished by this name in England, where it first took its rise, about the middle of the last century. Its founder was George Fox, an illiterate person, and by trade a shoemaker. See the article (*George*) Fox.

William Sewel, a Dutchman, published, in the year 1717, the history of this people. He was one of their persuasion, a man of learning, and known to the public by his Dictionary of the Dutch and English languages. He had access to all their records, corresponded with the most eminent, lived at the time when the facts he recorded were recent, and we have not heard that any part of his history has been controverted; and as we are informed that it has been published by the approbation of the Quakers, we may therefore consider it as an authentic history of their rise, progress, and principal opinions.

Quakers.

The name of *Quaker* was affixed to this people early, by way of reproach. In their assemblies it sometimes happened, that some were so far struck with the remembrance of their past follies and forgetfulness of their condition, others so deeply affected with a sense of God's mercies to them, that they actually trembled and quaked. The nickname so suited the vulgar taste, that it immediately became general. *Friends*, or *The friends of truth*, was the name they were commonly known by to one another; but the epithet above-mentioned was stamped upon them by their adversaries, and perhaps indelibly.

The following abstract from the propositions of our countryman, the eminent Barclay, will perhaps exhibit as clear a summary of their opinions as can well be comprised within the limits allowed to this article.

1. The height of all happiness is placed in the true knowledge of God. 2. The true knowledge of God is alone to be obtained by the revelation of the Spirit of God. 3. The revelation of the Spirit of God to the saints has produced the scriptures of truth. 4. From whence it appears, that mankind in general is fallen and degenerated. 5. That God out of his infinite love hath offered universal redemption by Christ, who tasted death for every man. 6. That there is an evangelical and saving light and grace in all. 7. That as many as resist not this light, but receive the same, in them are produced holiness, righteousness, purity, and the fruits which are acceptable to God: 8. Even so as to arrive at a state of freedom from actual sinning and transgressing the law of God; 9. Yet with a possibility of sinning. 10. That as all true knowledge in things spiritual is received by the Spirit of God, so by it every true minister of the gospel is ordained and prepared for the ministry; and as they have freely received, so are they freely to give. 11. That the true worship of God is in spirit and in truth; not limited to place or time, or subject to the intervention of any person; but is to be performed under the moving of the Holy Spirit in our hearts, yet without derogating from the necessity and utility of public united worship, (in which their sufferings and constancy have been most remarkable). 12. That baptism is a pure and spiritual thing, the baptism of the spirit and fire. 13. That the communion of the body and blood of Christ is inward and spiritual. 14. That it is not lawful for any human authority to force the consciences of others on account of difference in worship or opinion, except such opinions tend to the prejudice or his neighbour in his life or estate, or are inconsistent with human society. 15. That as the end of religion is to redeem man from the spirit of this world, and to lead into inward communion with God; therefore all vain customs and habits are to be rejected, which tend to divert the

Quakers. the mind from a ſenſe of the fear of God, and that evangelical ſpirit wherewith Chriſtians ought to be leavened.

Such are the ſentiments of this people as propoſed to the public by their apologiſt, who has largely commented on theſe topics in a work that has paſſed thro' many editions in Engliſh, and has been printed in moſt of the modern languages.

Their particularities of addreſs, language, and behaviour; their declining the uſe of arms, even in their own defence; their refuſing to pay tithes or contribute to the ſupport of miniſters in any ſhape; likewiſe their refuſing to ſwear or take an oath on any occaſion whatever; have ſubjected them to much obloquy, and many ſufferings. On what principles, and by what arguments, they vindicate themſelves from the objections raiſed againſt them by their adverſaries, may be ſeen in this elaborate performance. Government has, however, in many inſtances, extended to this people great indulgences; convinced, no doubt, by their patient ſuffering, that their profeſſions of conſcientious ſcruples were ſincere, and that nothing dangerous to ſociety could be apprehended from a people who diſclaimed the uſe of arms both offenſive and defenſive. The œconomy of this ſociety likewiſe deſerves our notice. It appears by their hiſtory, that ſoon after the preaching of George Fox had drawn together in many parts of England conſiderable bodies of people profeſſing the ſame opinions, he found it expedient for their better government to eſtabliſh regular meetings for diſcipline. The following is, as nearly as we can collect, the plan that is eſtabliſhed amongſt them.

Where there are any Quakers, they meet together every month, to conſider of the neceſſities of their poor, and to provide for their relief; to hear and determine complaints ariſing among themſelves; to inquire into the converſation of their reſpective members in regard to morality and conformity to their religious ſentiments; to allow the paſſing of marriages; and to enjoin a ſtrict regard to the peace and good order of the ſociety, the proper education of their young people, and a general attention to the principles and practices of their profeſſions. In every country where there are monthly meetings, a meeting of the like kind is held, and for ſimilar purpoſes, every quarter. This meeting conſiſts of deputies ſent from the ſeveral monthly meetings, who are charged with anſwers in writing to queries propoſed to them reſpecting the good order of the ſociety. At theſe meetings appeals are received, in caſe of any diſputes; and differences ſettled, if poſſible. Advices are given as occaſions offer; and aſſiſtance is afforded to any of the monthly meetings, in caſe of a larger proportion of poor, or any ſimilar expences. As there are Quakers in moſt parts of England, there are few counties which have not theſe quarterly meetings. And from theſe are deputed 4, 6 or 8 of their members once a-year to their annual aſſembly at London.

The annual meeting is commonly held in Whitſunweek, not from any ſuperſtitious reference, as they ſay, to the effuſion of the Holy Ghoſt at the time of pentecoſt, but merely as it is a ſeaſon moſt generally convenient to the body. At this anniverſary meeting, conſiſting of deputies from every quarterly meeting, and a number of the moſt judicious of their perſuaſion in London, ſelected for the purpoſe of acting on all emergencies for the good of the ſociety, accounts are received of the ſtate of the ſociety in every part of the world where it exiſts. The deputies bring with them accounts ſigned by order of the reſpective quarterly meetings, informing the yearly meeting, If any diſunion appears; if there is any neglect in regard to the religious education of their youth; if the poor are well provided for; if they keep to their teſtimony againſt paying tithes, and againſt bearing arms; if they pay the king his duties, cuſtoms, and exciſe, and forbear to deal in goods ſuſpected to be run. Appeals are here received, and finally determined; propoſitions received, and conſidered; and rules formed on particular emergencies: And, laſtly, ſuch advices are ſent to the ſubordinate meetings as the particular or general ſtate of the ſociety requires.

Perhaps this is the only ſociety in the world that have allowed any ſhare in the management of their affairs to the female ſex; which they do upon the principle that male and female are one in Chriſt. Accordingly we find them in every department of their inſtitution. They have women-preachers, for whom the celebrated Locke made an excellent apology. Theſe have alſo their meetings of diſcipline; in which the like care is taken in regard to the female youth, and the good order of their ſex, as is done by the men in reſpect to their own. And when we reflect what a number of individuals of both ſexes are kept in good order by the police of this ſociety, how few of them are brought into courts of juſtice as delinquents, how peaceable their behaviour, and how exemplary their conduct, we cannot but think their principles deſerve a more accurate examination than has hitherto been attempted, owing perhaps to the vulgar prejudices circulated againſt them. We ſhall cloſe this article with obſerving, that, according to the beſt of our information, neither their miniſters, nor thoſe who have the principal care of the ſociety, enjoy any pecuniary emolument or advantages. A few clerks only receive ſalaries for keeping their records; ſo that perhaps there is not a religious ſociety now exiſting, where principle has greater influence in promoting the ends of their inſtitution.

It is remarkable, that all the ſettlements of the Europeans in America, except the Quaker ſettlement of Penſilvania, were made by force of arms, with very little regard to any prior title in the natives. The kings of Spain, Portugal, France, and Britain, together with the States of Holland, then the only maritime powers, gave grants of ſuch parts of America as their people could lay hold on, ſtudying only to avoid interference with their European neighbours. But Mr Penn, being a Quaker, did not think his powers from king Cha. II. a ſufficient title to the country ſince called *Penſilvania:* He therefore aſſembled the ſachems or princes then in that country, and purchaſed from them the extent of land that he wanted. The government of this province is moſtly in the hands of the Quakers, who never have any quarrels with the natives. When they deſire to extend their ſettlements, they purchaſe new lands of the ſachems, never taking any thing from them by force.

force. How unlike is this conduct to that of the Spaniards, who murdered millions of the natives of Mexico, Terra Firma, Peru, Chili, &c.

QUALITY, is defined by Mr Locke to be the power in a subject of producing any idea in the mind. *Primary and Secondary* QUALITIES. See METAPHYSICS, nº 31—35.

Chemical QUALITIES, those qualities principally introduced by means of chemical experiments, as fumigation, amalgamation, cupellation, volatilization, precipitation, &c.

QUALITY, is also used for a kind of title given to certain persons, in regard of their territories, signiories, or other pretensions.

QUANGSI, a province of China, bounded on the north by Koe-Tcheau and Hu-Quang; on the east, by Yunan and Quantong; on the south, by the same and Ton-quin; and on the west, by Yun-nan. It produces great plenty of rice, being watered by several large rivers. The southern part is a flat country, and well cultivated; but the northern is full of mountains covered with trees. It contains mines of all sorts; and there is a gold-mine lately opened. Among other animals there are porcupines and rhinoceroses. The capital town is Quie-ling.

QUANG-TONG, a province of China, bounded on the east by Kiang-Si and Fokien; on the south, by the ocean; and on the west, by Tonquin. This province is diversified by valleys and mountains; and yields two crops of corn in a year. It abounds in gold, jewels, silk, pearls, tin, quick-silver, sugar, brass, iron, steel, salt-petre, ebony, and several sorts of odoriferous wood; besides fruits of all sorts proper to the climate. They have a prodigious number of ducks, whose eggs they hatch in ovens; and a tree, whose wood is remarkably hard and heavy, and thence called *iron-wood*. The mountains are covered with a sort of osiers which creep along the ground, and of which they make baskets, hurdles, matts, and ropes. Canton is the capital town.

QUANTITY, any thing capable of estimation or mensuration; or which, being compared with another thing of the same kind, may be said to be greater or less than it, equal or unequal to it.

QUANTITY, in grammar, an affection of a syllable, whereby its measure, or the time wherein it is pronounced, is ascertained; or that which determines the syllable to be long or short.

Quantity is also the object of prosody, and distinguishes verse from prose; and the œconomy and arrangement of quantities, that is, the distribution of long and short syllables, makes what we call the *number*. See POETRY, Part III.

The quantities are used to be distinguished, among grammarians, by the characters ˘, short, as pĕr; and —, long, as rōs. There is also a common, variable, or dubious quantity; that is, syllables that are one time taken for short ones and at another time for long ones; as the first syllable in *Atlas*, *patres*, &c.

QUARANTINE, is a trial which ships must undergo when suspected of a pestilential infection. It may be ordered by the king, with advice of the privy-council, at such times, and under such regulations, as he judges proper. Ships ordered on quarantine must repair to the place appointed, and must continue there during the time prescribed, (generally six weeks); and must have no intercourse with the shore, except for necessary provisions, which are conveyed with every possible precaution. When the time is expired, and the goods opened and exposed to the air as directed, if there be no appearance of infection they are admitted to port.

Ships infected with the pestilence must proceed to St Helen's Pool in the Scilly islands, and give notice of their situation to the custom-house officers, and wait till the king's pleasure be known.

Persons giving false information to avoid performing quarantine, or refusing to go to the place appointed, or escaping, also officers appointed to see quarantine performed, deserting their office, neglecting their duty, or giving a false certificate, suffer death as felons.

Goods from Turkey, or the Levant, may not be landed without license from the king, or certificate that they have been landed and aired at some foreign port.

QUARLES (Francis), the son of James Quarles clerk to the board of green cloth and purveyor to queen Elisabeth, was born in 1592. He was educated at Cambridge; became a member of Lincoln's inn; and was for some time cup-bearer to the queen of Bohemia, and chronologer to the city of London. It was probably on the ruin of her affairs that he went to Ireland as secretary to archbishop Usher; but the troubles in that kingdom forcing him to return, and not finding affairs more at peace in England, some disquiets he met with were thought to have hastened his death, which happened in 1644. His works both in prose and verse are numerous, and were formerly in great esteem, particularly his Divine Emblems: but the obsolete quaintness of his style has caused them to fall into neglect, excepting among particular classes of readers.

QUARRY, a place under ground, out of which are got marble, free-stone, slate, limestone, or other matters proper for building. See STRATA.

Some lime-stone quarries in Fife are highly worthy the attention of the curious, on account of an amazing mixture of sea-bodies found in them. One of this kind was opened, about the year 1759, at a farm called *Enderteel*, in the neighbourhood of Kirkaldy, belonging to General St Clair.

The flakes of the stone, which are of unequal thickness, most of them from eight to ten inches, lie horizontally dipping towards the sea. Each of these flakes, when broken, presents to our view an amazing collection of petrified sea bodies, as the bones of fishes, stalks of sea-weed, vast quantities of shells, such as are commonly found on those coasts, besides several others of very uncommon figures. In some places the shells are so numerous, that little else is to be seen but prodigious clusters or concretions of them. In the uppermost stratum the shells are so entire, that the outer crust or plate may be scraped off with the fingar; and the stalks of the sea-weed have a darkish colour, not that glossy whiteness which they have in the heart of the quarry. The smallest rays or veins of the shells are deeply indented on the stone, like the impression of

Quarry of Quarter.

of a ſeal upon wax. In ſhort, no ſpot at the bottom of the ocean could exhibit a greater quantity of ſea-bodies than are to be found in this ſolid rock; for we have the ſkeletons of ſeveral fiſhes, the *antennæ* or feelers of lobſters, the roots and ſtalks of ſea-weeds, with the very *capſulæ* which contain the ſeed. The place where all theſe curioſities are found, is on an eminence about an Engliſh mile from the ſea; and as the ground is pretty ſteep the whole way, it may be 200 feet higher at leaſt.

There are two or three things to be remarked here. 1. That among all the bodies we have mentioned, there are none but what are ſpecifically heavier than water. This holds ſo conſtantly true, that the ſea-weed, which floats in water when the plant is entire, has been ſtripped of the broad leaves, which make it buoyant, before it has been lodged here. 2. The ſhells have been all empty; for the double ones, as thoſe of the flat kind, are always found ſingle, or with one ſide only. 3. The rock ſeems to have been gradually deſerted by the ſea, and, for a long time, waſhed with the tides; for the upper ſurface is all eaten, and hollowed in many places like an honey-comb, juſt as we obſerve in flat rocks expoſed every tide to the acceſs and receſs of the waters. See the article SEA.

QUARRY, or *Quarrel*, among glaziers, a pane of glaſs cut in a diamond form.

Quarries are of two kinds, ſquare and longe; each of which are of different ſizes, expreſſed by the number of the pieces that make a foot of glaſs, viz. eighths, tenths, eighteenths, and twentieths: but all the ſizes are cut to the ſame angles, the acute angle in the ſquare quarrels being 77° 19′, and 67° 21′ in the long ones.

QUARRY, among hunters, is ſometimes uſed for a part of the entrails of the beaſt taken, given by way of reward to the hounds.

QUARRY, in falconry, is the game which the hawk is in purſuit of, or has killed.

QUARTAN, a meaſure containing the fourth part of ſome other meaſure.

QUARTAN, a ſpecies of intermitting fever. See MEDICINE, n° 134. 263—270.

QUARTATION, is an operation by which the quantity of one thing is made equal to a fourth part of the quantity of another thing. Thus when gold allayed with ſilver is to be parted, we are obliged to facilitate the action of the aquafortis, by reducing the quantity of the former of theſe metals to one fourth part of the whole maſs; which is done by ſufficiently increaſing the quantity of the ſilver, if it be neceſſary. This operation is called *quartation*, and is preparatory to the parting; and even many authors extend this name to the operation of parting. See the article PARTING.

QUARTER, the fourth part of any thing, the fractional expreſſion for which is $\frac{1}{4}$.

QUARTER, in weights, is generally uſed for the fourth part of an hundred weight averdupois, or 28 lb.

Uſed as the name of a dry meaſure, *quarter* is the fourth part of a ton in weight, or eight buſhels.

QUARTER, a term in the manege. To work from quarter to quarter, is to ride a horſe three times in upon the firſt of the four lines of a ſquare; then changing your hand, to ride him three times upon the ſecond: and ſo to third and fourth; always changing hands, and obſerving the ſame order.

Quarter.

QUARTERS, with reſpect to the parts of a horſe, is uſed in various ſenſes: thus the ſhoulders and fore-legs are called the *fore-quarters*, and the hips and hinder-legs the *hind-quarters*. The quarters of a horſe's foot, are the ſides of the coffin, comprehending between the toe and the heel: the inner quarters, are thoſe oppoſite to one another, facing from one foot to the other; and theſe are always weaker than the outſide quarters, which lie on the external ſides of the coffin. Falſe quarters, are a cleft in the horn of a horſe's hoof, extending from the coronet to the ſhoe. A horſe is ſaid to be quarter-caſt, when for any diſorder in the coffin we are obliged to cut one of the quarters of the hoof.

QUARTER, in aſtronomy, the fourth part of the moon's period: thus, from the new moon to the quadrature is the firſt quarter; from this to full moon, the ſecond quarter, &c.

QUARTER, in heraldry, is applied to the parts or members of the firſt diviſion of a coat that is quartered, or divided into four quarters.

Franc-QUARTER, in heraldry, is a quarter ſingle or alone; which is to poſſeſs one fourth part of the field. It makes one of the honourable ordinaries of a coat.

QUARTER *of a Ship*, that part of the ſhip's ſide which lies towards the ſtern; or which is comprehended between the aftmoſt end of the main chains and the ſides of the ſtern, where it is terminated by the quarter-pieces.

Although the lines by which the quarter and bow of a ſhip, with reſpect to her length, are only imaginary, yet experience appears ſufficiently to have aſcertained their limits: ſo that if we were to divide the ſhip's ſides into five equal portions, the names of each ſpace would be readily enough expreſſed. Thus the firſt, from the ſtern, would be the quarter; the ſecond, abaft the midſhips; the third, the midſhips; the fourth, before the midſhips; and the fifth, the bow. Whether theſe diviſions, which in reality are ſomewhat arbitrary, are altogether improper, may be readily diſcovered by referring to the mutual ſituation or approach of two adjacent veſſels. The enemy boarded us on the larboard ſide! Whereabouts? Abaft the midſhips, before the midſhips, &c.

Plate CCLIV. fig. 1. repreſents a geometrical elevation of a quarter of a 74 gun ſhip. A the keel, with *a* the falſe keel beneath it. B the ſtern-poſt. D D the quarter-gallery, with its balluſtrades and windows. E E the quarter-pieces, which limit and form the outlines of the ſtern. F the taffarel, or upper pieces of the ſtern. F G the profile of the ſtern, with its galleries. H the gun-ports of the lower-deck; *b* the gun-ports of the upper and quarter deck. I the after-part of the mizen-channel. K the wing-tranſom. K G the lower counter. L B the ſtation of the deck-tranſom. L Q the after-part of the main-wale. D R the after-part of the channel-wale, parallel to the main-wale. S U the ſheer-rail, parallel to both wales. T *t* the rudder. A *s* F the rake of the ſtern. P *i i* the drift-rails. T U the after-part of the load *water-line*; *k k l* the curve of the ſeveral decks correſponding to thoſe repreſented in the head. See the article HEAD.

As the marks, by which veſſels of different conſtructions

Plate CCLIV.

Fig. 1.

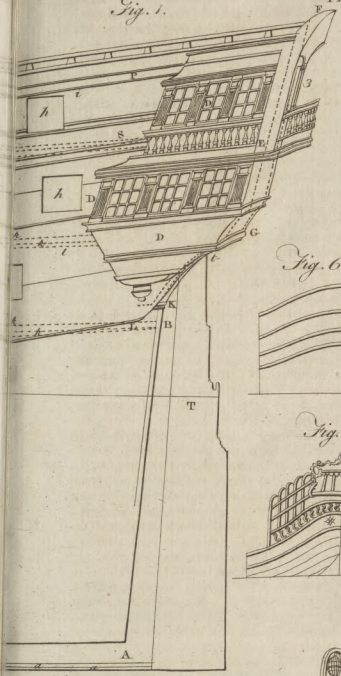


Fig. 2.

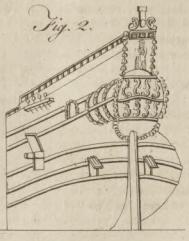


Fig. 3.

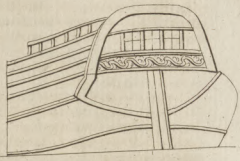


Fig. 6.

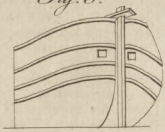


Fig. 8.

RAMPHASTOS Tucan

Fig. 4.

Fig. 7.

Fig. 10.

REDUCTION

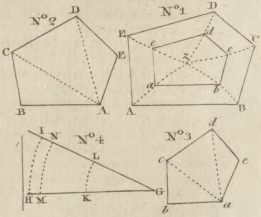


Fig. 5.

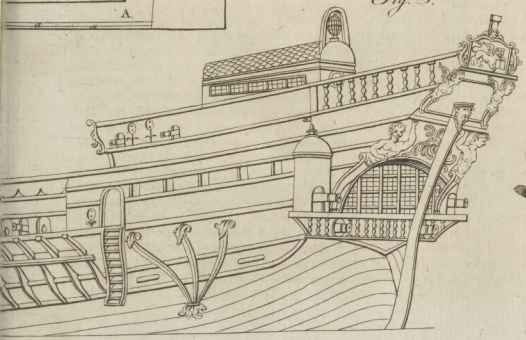


Fig. 9.

RECURVIROSTRA

J. Bell Sculp.

Quarter. ſtructions are diſtinguiſhed from each other, are generally more conſpicuous on the ſtern or quarter, than any other part, we have repreſented ſome of the quarters, which aſſume the moſt different ſhapes, and form the greateſt contraſt with each other. Fig. 2. ſhows the ſtern and quarter of a Dutch ſlight. Fig. 3. the ſtern and quarter of a cat. Fig. 4. is the ſtern and quarter of a common galley. Fig. 5. exhibits the quarter of a firſt-rate galley, otherwiſe called a *galleaſſe*. Fig. 6. the quarter of a Dutch dogger, or galliot. Fig. 7. repreſents the ſtern and quarter of a ſloop of war.

The quarters of all other ſhips have a near affinity to thoſe above exhibited. Thus all ſhips of the line, and Eaſt-Indiamen, are formed with a quarter little differing from the principal figure in this plate. Xebecs have quarters nearly reſembling thoſe of galeaſſes, only ſomewhat higher. Hagboats and pinks approach the figure of *cats*, the former being a little broader in the ſtern, and the latter a little narrower; and the ſterns and quarters of cats ſeem to be derived from thoſe of fly-boats. The ſterns of Dutch doggers and galliots are indeed ſingular, and like thoſe of no other modern veſſel; they have nevertheleſs a great reſemblance to the ſhips of the ancient Grecians, as repreſented in medals and other monuments of antiquity.

On the QUARTER, may be defined an arch of the horizon, contained between the line prolonged from the ſhip's ſtern and any diſtant object, as land, ſhips, &c. Thus if the ſhip's keel lies on an eaſt and weſt line, the ſtern being weſtward, any diſtant object perceived on the north-weſt or ſouth-weſt, is ſaid to be on the larboard or ſtarboard quarter.

QUARTER-*Bill*, a roll, or liſt, containing the different ſtations, to which all the officers and crew of the ſhip are quartered in the time of battle, and the names of all the perſons appointed to thoſe ſtations.

QUARTER-*Maſter*, is an officer, generally a lieutenant, whoſe principal buſineſs is to look after the quarters of the ſoldiers, their cloathing, bread, ammunition, firing, &c. Every regiment of foot and artillery has a quarter-maſter, and every troop of horſe one, who are only warrant-officers, except in the Blues.

QUARTER-*Maſter-General*, is a conſiderable officer in the army; and ſhould be a man of great judgment and experience, and well ſkilled in geography. His duty is to mark the marches and encampments of an army: he ſhould know the country perfectly well, with its rivers, plains, marſhes, woods, mountains, defiles, paſſages, &c. even to the ſmalleſt brook. Prior to a march, he receives the order and route from the commanding general, and appoints a place for the quarter-maſters of the army to meet him next morning, with whom he marches to the next camp; where being come, and having viewed the ground, he marks out to the regimental quarter-maſters the ground allowed each regiment for their camp: he chooſes the head quarters, and appoints the villages for the generals of the army's quarters: he appoints a proper place for the encampment of the train of artillery: he conducts foraging parties, as likewiſe the troops to cover them againſt aſſaults, and has a ſhare in regulating the winter-quarters and cantonments.

QUARTER-*Netting*, a ſort of net-work, extended along the rails on the upper part of a ſhip's quarter. In a ſhip of war theſe are always double, being ſupported by iron cranes, placed at proper diſtances. The interval is ſometimes filled with cork, or old ſails; but chiefly with the hammocs of the ſailors, ſo as to form a parapet to prevent the execution of the enemy's ſmall arms in battle.

QUARTER-*Seſſions*, a general court held quarterly by the juſtices of peace of each county.

QUARTER-*Staff*, a long ſtaff borne by foreſters, park-keepers, &c. as a badge of their office; and occaſionally uſed as a weapon.

QUARTERS, a name given at ſea to the ſeveral ſtations where the officers and crew of a ſhip of war are poſted in action. See NAVAL *Tactics*, p. 5325, § 5.

The number of men appointed to manage the artillery is always in proportion to the nature of the guns, and the number and condition of the ſhip's crew. They are, in general, as follow, when the ſhip is well manned, ſo as to fight both ſides at once occaſionally:

Pounder.	No. of men.	Pounder.	No. of men.
To a 42	15	To a 9	6
32	13	6	5
24	11	4	4
18	9	3	3
12	7		

This number, to which is often added a boy to bring powder to every gun, may be occaſionally reduced, and the guns nevertheleſs well managed. The number of men appointed to the ſmall arms, on board his Majeſty's ſhips and ſloops of war, by order of the admiralty, are,

Rate of the ſhip.	No. of men to the ſmall arms
1ſt	150
2d	120
3d of 80 guns	100
— of 70 guns	80
4th of 60 guns	70
4th of 50 guns	60
5th	50
6th	40
Sloops of war	30

The lieutenants are uſually ſtationed to command the different batteries, and direct their efforts againſt the enemy. The maſter ſuperintends the movements of the ſhip, and whatever relates to the ſails. The boatſwain, and a ſufficient number of men, is ſtationed to repair the damaged rigging; and the gunner and carpenter, wherever neceſſary, according to their reſpective offices.

The marines are generally quartered on the poop and forecaſtle, or gang-way, under the direction of their officers; although, on ſome occaſions, they aſſiſt at the great guns, particularly in diſtant cannonading.

QUARTERS, at a ſiege, the encampment upon one of the moſt principal paſſages round a place beſieged, to prevent relief and convoys.

Head QUARTERS *of an Army*, the place where the commander in chief has his quarters. The quarters of generals of horſe are, if poſſible, in villages behind the right and left wings, and the generals of foot are of-

ten in the ſame place: but the commander in chief ſhould be near the centre of the army.

QUARTERS *of Refreſhment*, the place or places where troops that have been much haraſſed are put to recover themſelves during ſome part of the campaign.

Intrenched QUARTERS, a place fortified with a ditch and parapet to ſecure a body of troops.

Winter QUARTERS, ſometimes means the ſpace of time included between leaving the camp and taking the field; but more properly, the places where the troops are quartered during the winter.

The firſt buſineſs, after the army is in winter-quarters, is to form the chain of troops to cover the quarters well: which is done either behind a river, under cover of a range of ſtrong poſts, or under the protection of fortified towns. Huſſars are very uſeful on this ſervice.

It ſhould be obſerved, as an invariable maxim, in winter-quarters, that your regiments be diſpoſed in brigades, to be always under the eye of a general officer; and, if poſſible, let the regiments be ſo diſtributed, as to be each under the command of its own chief.

QUARTERING, in heraldry, is dividing a coat into four or more quarters, or quarterings, by parting, couping, &c. that is, by perpendicular and horizontal lines, &c.

QUATUORVIR, in antiquity, formerly written IIII. VIR, a Roman magiſtrate, who had three colleagues joined with him in the ſame adminiſtration, and had the care of conducting and ſettling the colonies ſent into the provinces. There were alſo quatuorviri appointed to inſpect and take care of repairs, &c.

QUAVER, in muſic, a meaſure of time equal to half a crotchet, or an eighth part of a ſemibreve.

QUAY. See KEY.

QUEBEC, a handſome and large town of America, and capital of Canada. The firſt place taken notice of upon landing here, is a ſquare of an irregular figure, with well-built houſes on each ſide; on the back of which is a rock; on the left it is bounded by a ſmall church; and on the right are two rows of houſes, parallel to each other. There is another between the church and the harbour; as alſo another long row on the ſide of the bay. This may be looked upon as a kind of ſuburb; and between this and the great ſtreet is a very ſteep aſcent, in which they have made ſteps for the foot-paſſengers to go up. This may be called the *Upper Town*, wherein is the biſhop's palace; and between two large ſquares is a fort where the governor lodges. The Recolets have handſome houſes over-againſt it, and on the right is the cathedral church: over-againſt this is the Jeſuits college, and between them are well-built houſes; from the fort runs two ſtreets, which are croſſed by a third, and between theſe is a church and a convent. In the ſecond ſquare are two deſcents to the river of St Charles. The Hotel Dieu is in the midway; and from thence are ſmall houſes, which reach to the houſe of the intendant. On the other ſide of the Jeſuits college, where the church ſtands, is a pretty long ſtreet in which is a nunnery. Almoſt all the houſes are built of ſtone, and there are about 7000 inhabitants; the fort is a handſome building, but not quite finiſhed. Quebec is not regularly fortified: but it cannot be eaſily taken; for the harbour is flanked with two baſtions, which at high tides are almoſt level with the water. A little above one of the baſtions is a demi-baſtion, partly taken out of the rock; and above it, on the ſide of the gallery of the fort, is a battery of 25 pieces of cannon: ſtill above this is a ſquare fort, called the *citadel*, and the ways from one fortification to another are difficult to paſs. To the left of the harbour, on the ſide of the road, there are large batteries of cannon and ſome mortars; beſides theſe, there are ſeveral other fortifications not very eaſy to be deſcribed. In 1711, the Britiſh fitted out a fleet with a deſign to conquer Canada, which failed on account of the raſhneſs of the admiral, who, contrary to the advice of his pilot, went too near the Seven iſles, and ſo loſt his largeſt ſhips and 3000 of his beſt ſoldiers. It is about 300 miles north-weſt of Boſton in New-England. On October 18, 1759, it was taken by the Britiſh, under the command of general Wolfe, who loſt his life in the battle, after he had the ſatisfaction to know that our troops were victorious. Admiral Saunders commanded a ſquadron of men of war, and did immenſe ſervice in reducing this place; there being not a man in the navy but what was active on this occaſion, not excepting the ſailors belonging to the tranſport veſſels. After this valuable acquiſition, all Canada came under the juriſdiction of the crown of Great Britain. W. Long. 69. 48. N. Lat. 46. 55.

QUEDLINGBURG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and on the confines of the duchy of Brunſwick. Here is a famous abbey, whoſe abbeſs is a princeſs of the empire, and who ſends deputies to the diets. Her contingent is one horſeman and ten footmen. E. Long. 11. 31. N. Lat. 51. 58.

QUEEN, a woman who holds a crown ſingly.

The title of *queen* is alſo given by way of courteſy to her that is married to a king, who is called by way of diſtinction *queen-conſort*; the former being termed *queen-regent*. The widow of a king is alſo called *queen*, but with the addition of *dowager*. See ROYAL *Family*.

QUEEN-*Gold*, is a royal duty or revenue belonging to every queen of England during her marriage to the king, payable by perſons in this kingdom and Ireland, on divers grants of the king by way of fine or oblation, &c. being one full tenth part above the entire fines, on pardons, contracts or agreements, which becomes a real debt to the queen, by the name of *aurum reginæ*, upon the party's bare agreement with the king for his fine and recording the ſame.

QUEEN's-*County*, a diviſion of the province of Leinſter in Ireland; ſo called from the Popiſh queen Mary, in whoſe reign it was firſt made a county by the earl of Suſſex then lord-deputy. It is bounded on the ſouth by Kilkenny and Catherlogh; by King's county on the north and weſt; part of Kildare and Catherlogh on the eaſt; and part of Tipperary on the weſt. Its greateſt length from north to ſouth is 35 miles, and its breadth near as much; but it is unequal both ways. This county was anciently full of bogs and woods, though now pretty well incloſed, cultivated, and inhabited. The baronies contained in it are ſeven; and it ſends eight members to parliament.

QUEENBOROUGH, a town of the iſle of Sheppey in Kent, which ſends two members to parliament, though

though consisting only of about 100 low brick houses, and scarce 350 inhabitants. The chief employment of the people here is oyster drudging; oysters being very plentiful and of a fine flavour. E. Long. 0. 50. N. Lat. 51. 25.

QUEENS-FERRY, a town of Scotland, in the shire of Lothian, seated on the south side of the river Forth, 9 miles west of Edinburgh.

QUINTIN (St), an ancient, famous, and strong town of France, in Picardy, and capital of Vermandois. The church is thought to be one of the finest in France. A famous battle was fought here in 1557, between the French and Spaniards. It is seated on an eminence by the river Somme. E. Long. 3. 22. N. Lat. 49. 50.

QUERCI, a province of Guienne in France; bounded on the north by Limosin, on the east by Rouergue and Auvergne, on the south by Upper Languedoc, and on the west by Agenois and Perigord. It is divided into Upper and Lower; and is fertile in corn, wine, and fruits. Cahors is the capital town.

QUERCUS, the OAK-TREE; a genus of the polyandria order, belonging to the monoecia class of plants.

Species. 1. The robur, or common English oak, grows from about 60 or 70 to 100 feet high, with a prodigious large trunk, and monstrous spreading head; oblong leaves, broadest towards the top, the edges acutely sinuated, having the angles obtuse. There is a variety, having the leaves finely striped with white. This species grows in great abundance all over England in woods, forests, and hedge-rows; is naturally of an amazing large growth; there being accounts of some above 100 feet stature, with wonderful large trunks and spreading heads; and is supposed to continue its growth many centuries.

2. The prinus, or chesnut-leaved American oak, grows 50 or 60 feet high; having large oblong-oval smooth leaves pointed both ways, the edges sinuated-serrated, with the sinuses uniformly round.

3. The phellos, or willow-leaved American oak, grows 40 or 50 high, having long narrow smooth entire leaves like those of the willow. There is a variety called the *dwarf willow-leaved oak.*

4. The alba, or white Virginian oak, grows 30 or 40 feet high, having a whitish bark, with long obliquely-pinnatifid light-green leaves, the sinuses and angles obtuse.

5. The nigra, or black Virginian oak, grows 30 or 40 feet high, having a dark-coloured bark, large wedge-shaped slightly-trilobated leaves.

6. The rubra, or red Virginian oak, grows about 60 feet high, having a dark-greyish bark, long obtusely sinuated leaves, with the sinuses terminated by bristly points, and have sometimes red spotted veins, but generally dying in autumn to a reddish colour, remaining on the trees late in the season.

7. The esculus of Pliny, or cut-leaved Italian oak, grows about 30 feet high, having a purplish bark, oblong deeply-sinuated smooth leaves, and long slender close-sitting acorns in very large cups.

8. Ægilops, or large prickly-cupped Spanish oak, grows 70 or 80 feet high or more, with a very large trunk and widely-spreading head, having a whitish bark, large oblong-oval deeply-serrated smooth leaves, the serratures bowed backward, and large acorns placed in singularly large prickly cups. This is a noble species, almost equal in growth to our common English oak.

9. Cerris, or smaller prickly-cupped Spanish oak, grows 30 or 40 feet high, and has oblong lyre-shaped pinnatifid transversely-jagged leaves, downy underneath, and small acorns placed in prickly cups.

10. The ilex, or common evergreen oak, grows 40 or 50 feet high, having a smooth bark, oval and oblong undivided serrated petiolated leaves, downy and whitish underneath. The varieties are, broad-leaved, narrow-leaved, and sometimes both sorts and other different shaped leaves on the same tree, also sometimes with sawed and prickly leaves.

11. The gramuntia, or Montpelier holly-leaved evergreen oak, grows 40 or 50 feet high; and has oblong-oval, close-sitting sinuated spinous leaves, downy underneath, bearing a resemblance to the leaves of holly.

12. The suber, or cork-tree, grows 30 or 40 feet high, having a thick rough fungous cleft bark, and oblong-oval undivided serrated leaves, downy underneath. This species furnishes that useful material cork; it being the bark of the tree, which becoming of a think fungous nature, under which, at the same time, is formed a new bark, and the old being detached for use, the tree still lives, and the succeeding young bark becomes also of the same thick spongy nature in six or seven years, fit for barking, having likewise another fresh bark forming under it, becoming cork like the others in the like period of time; and in this manner these trees wonderfully furnish the cork for our use, and of which is made the corks for bottles, bungs for barrels, and numerous other useful articles. The tree grows in great plenty in Spain and Portugal, and from which countries we receive the cork.

13. The coccifera, scarlet or kermes oak, grows but 14 or 15 feet high, branching all the way, and of bushy growth; with large oval undivided indented spinous leaves; and producing small glandular excrescencies, called *kermes* or *scarlet grain*, used by the dyers. The small scarlet glands found on this tree, is the effect of certain insects depositing their eggs betwixt the bark of the branches and leaves, causes an extravasation of the sap, and forms the excrescence or substance in question, which being dried is the kermes or scarlet pastel.

14. The Molucca, Moluccan oak, commonly called *American live oak*, grows about 40 feet high, having oval spear-shaped smooth entire leaves, and small oblong eatable acorns.

All the above 14 species of quercus produce flowers annually in the spring, about April or May, of a yellowish colour, but make no ornamental appearance, and are males and females separated in the same tree; the males being in loose amentums, and the females sitting close to the buds in thick leathery hemispherical calixes, succeeded by the fruit or acorns, which are oval nuts fixed by their base into rough permanent cups, and mostly sit quite close, and some on short footstalks, ripening in autumn, which in the common English oak is in great abundance, and often in tolerable plenty on some of the other sorts: those of all the kinds serve-

Quercus. ſerve for propagating their reſpective ſpecies; they are alſo excellent food for ſwine and deer, the common oak in particular.

Uſes, &c. Oak-trees, of all the above ſorts, may be employed in gardening to diverſify large ornamental plantations in out grounds, and in forming clumps in ſpacious lawns, parks, and other extenſive opens; the evergreen kinds in particular have great merit for all ornamental purpoſes in gardens. But all the larger growing kinds, both deciduous and evergreens, demand eſteem principally as firſt-rate foreſt-trees for their timber. The Engliſh oak, however, claims precedence as a timber-tree, for its prodigious height and bulk, and ſuperior worth of its wood. Every poſſeſſor of conſiderable eſtates ought therefore to be particularly aſſiduous in raiſing woods of them, which is effected by ſowing the acorns either in a nurſery and the plants tranſplanted where they are to remain, or ſowed at once in the places where they are always to ſtand. All the ſorts will proſper in any middling ſoil and open ſituation, though in a loamy ſoil they are generally more proſperous: however, there are but few ſoils in which oaks will not grow; they will even thrive tolerably in gravelly, ſandy, and clayey land, as may be obſerved in many parts of this country of the common oak.

The propagation of the ſtriped-leaved varieties of the common oak, and any particular variety of the other ſpecies, muſt be effected by grafting, as they will not continue the ſame from ſeed: the grafting may be performed upon any kind of oakling-ſtocks raiſed from the acorns, and train them for ſtandards like the others.

The oak is remarkable for its ſlowneſs of growth, bulk, and longevity. It has been remarked that the trunk has attained to the ſize only of 14 inches in diameter, and of ſome to 20, in the ſpace of fourſcore years. As to bulk, we have an account of an oak belonging to Lord Powis, growing in Broomfield wood, near Ludlow in Shropſhire, in the year 1764, the trunk of which meaſured 68 feet in girth, 23 in length, and which, reckoning 90 feet for the larger branches, contained in the whole 1455 feet of timber round meaſure, or 29 loads and five feet, at 50 feet to a load. And, with reſpect to longevity, Linnæus gives account of an oak 260 years old; but we have had ſome traditions of ſome in England (how far to be depended upon we know not) that have attained to more than double that age. Beſides the grand purpoſes to which the timber is applied in navigation and architecture, and the bark in tanning of leather, there are other uſes of leſs conſequence, to which the different parts of this tree have been referred. The Highlanders uſe the bark to dye their yarn of a brown colour, or, mixed with copperas, of a black colour. They call the oak *the king of all the trees in the foreſt*; and the herdſman would think himſelf and his flock unfortunate if he had not a ſtaff of it. The ſaw-duſt from the timber, and even the leaves of the tree, have been found capable of tanning, though much inferior to the bark for that purpoſe. The bark, alſo, after being uſed for tanning, are employed in gardening for making bark-beds, forming the moſt eligible kind of hot-beds for the culture of the pine-apple and all other tender exotics of the hot-houſe temperature. So great is the aſtringency of the bark, that in a larger doſe, like the Peruvian kind, it has been known to cure the ague. The expreſſed juice of the galls or oak-apples (excreſcences occaſioned by a ſmall inſect called *cynips*) mixed with vitriol and gum-arabic, will make ink. The leaves of the oak are very ſubject to be covered with a ſweet viſcous juice called *honey-dew*, which bees and other inſects are very fond of. The acorns are a good food to fatten ſwine and turkies; and, after the ſevere winter of the year 1709, the poor people in France were miſerably conſtrained to eat them themſelves. There are, however, acorns produced from another ſpecies of oak, which are eaten to this day in Spain and Greece, with as much pleaſure as cheſnuts, without the dreadful compulſion of hunger.

Queſne ‖ Quevedo.

QUESNE (Abraham du), marquis of Queſne, admiral of the naval forces of France, and one of the greateſt men of the laſt age, was born in Normandy in 1610. He contributed to the defeating of the naval power of Spain before Gattari; was dangerouſly wounded before Barcelona in 1642, and on other occaſions: he went into the ſervice of the Swedes, and became vice-admiral; gave the Danes an entire defeat, killed their admiral, and took his ſhip. He was recalled into France in 1647, and commanded the ſquadron ſent to Naples. The ſea-affairs of France being much fallen, he fitted out divers ſhips for the relief of the royal army that blocked up Bourdeaux; which was the principal cauſe of the ſurrender of the town. He was very fortunate in the laſt wars of Sicily, where he beat the Dutch thrice, and De Ruyter was killed. He alſo obliged the Algerines to ſue for peace from France in a very humble manner. In ſhort, Aſia, Africa, and Europe, felt the effects of his valour. He was a Proteſtant; yet the king beſtowed on him the land of Bouchet, and to immortalize his memory gave it the name of that great man. He died in 1688.

QUESTION, in logic, a propoſition ſtated by way of interrogation.

QUESTION, or *Torture*. See RACK.

QUESTOR, or QUÆSTOR, in Roman antiquity, an officer who had the management of the public treaſure.

The queſtorſhip was the firſt office any perſon could bear in the commonwealth, and gave a right to ſit in the ſenate.

At firſt there were only two; but afterwards two others were created, to take care of the payment of the armies abroad, of ſelling the plunder, booty, &c. for which purpoſe they generally accompanied the conſuls in their expeditions; on which account they were called *peregrini*, as the firſt and principal two were called *urbani*.

The number of queſtors was afterwards greatly increaſed. They had the keeping of the decrees of the ſenate: and hence came the two offices of *queſtor principis*, or *auguſti*, ſometimes called *candidatus principis*, whoſe office reſembled in moſt reſpects that of our ſecretaries of ſtate; and the *queſtor palatii*, anſwering in a great meaſure to our lord chancellor.

QUEUE, in heraldry, ſignifies the tail of a beaſt: thus if a lion be borne with a forked tail, he is blazoned double-queued.

QUEVÉDO de VILLEGAS (Franciſco), a celebrated Spaniſh poet, born at Madrid in 1570. He was deſcended

descended from a noble family, and was made a knight of St James; but was thrown into prison by order of count Olivarez, whose administration he satirized in his verses, and was not set at liberty till after that minister's disgrace. Quevedo wrote some heroic, lyric, and facetious poems. He also composed several treatises on religious subjects, and has translated some authors into Spanish. He died in 1645. The most known of his works are, 1. The Spanish Parnassus. 2. The Adventurer Buscon. 3. Visions of Hell Reformed, &c.

QUICK, or QUICKSET *Hedge*, among gardeners, denotes all live hedges, of whatever sort of plants they are composed, to distinguish them from dead hedges; but in a more strict sense of the word, it is restrained to those planted with the hawthorn, under which name those young plants or sets are sold by the nursery gardeners who raise them for sale. See the article HEDGE.

QUICKLIME, a general name for all calcareous substances when deprived of their fixed air; such as chalk, limestone, oyster-shells, &c. calcined.

Quicklime has the following properties. 1. It is entirely soluble in water, with which it unites so rapidly as to occasion considerable heat. When exposed to air, it imbibes moisture from thence. When united with as much water as is sufficient to make it a fluid paste, it is called *slaked lime*. Water saturated with quicklime is called *lime water*. According to Brandt, lime-water contains about one part of quicklime to 700 or 800 parts of water. Slaked lime, or lime-water, being exposed to the atmosphere, attract from thence particles of fixable air which float in it, by which means the quicklime is rendered mild, insoluble in water, and therefore appears on the surface of the lime-water, or of the slaked lime where this combination happens, in the state of mild or combined calcareous earth, convertible by a second calcination into quicklime, and is called *cream of lime*.

If the earth dissolved in lime-water be precipitated from thence by any substance containing fixable air, as by mild alkalies or magnesia, it will unite with this air, become mild, and resume its former weight and properties which it possessed before calcination. But if it be precipitated from the water by means of some substance which does not contain fixable air, but which is more strongly disposed than the earth to unite with the water, for instance, spirit of wine, the earth thus precipitated will be in the state of quicklime, that is, caustic, and soluble in water.

2. Quicklime unites with acids without effervescence, which is nothing else than an extrication of the fixable air, of which quicklime has been already deprived. It nevertheless saturates as much acid as it would have done if it had not been calcined.

3. Quicklime is more powerfully disposed to unite with fixable air than fixed or volatile alkalis, or magnesia. Hence, when treated with these substances, it takes from them their fixable air, and is itself rendered mild, and restored to its original weight and properties. Thus two drams of chalk, having been by calcination reduced to one dram and eight grains of quicklime, were thrown into a filtrated solution of an ounce of mild fixed alkali in two ounces of water, and digested during some time; by which the calcareous earth became mild, and weighed one dram and 58 grains. By means of magnesia, the calcareous earth may be precipitated from lime-water; and this earth is found to be mild, and to have deprived the magnesia of its fixable air. By depriving alkalies of their fixable air, quicklime renders them more caustic and solvent, for the same reason that itself is by this privation of air rendered more caustic and powerfully solvent. This increase of causticity and dissolving power is consistent with a general rule, namely, that the more simple or less compounded any body is, that is, the less its general tendency to union is satisfied, the more disposed it is to unite with or dissolve other substances.

4. Quicklime has a disposition to unite with sulphur, with which it forms a hepar of sulphur, similar to that made by sulphur united with an alkali, and, like this, soluble in water. It is also disposed to unite with oils and with animal and vegetable matters, with respect to which it discovers a caustic and corrosive property.

4. Quicklime mixed with sand forms a mass which hardens, and is used as a cement or mortar.

All these properties of quicklime have been the objects of consideration to the chemists and philosophers; who have, as usual, been divided in their opinions on the subject. The evident resemblance of the action of quicklime to fire, has given occasion for one party to derive all the active properties of this substance from fire; while, on the other hand, its want of heat, and incapacity of setting bodies on fire, unless by an accession of water, were objections altogether insurmountable. On the other hand, those who denied the materiality of fire, and affirmed that it consists only in a motion mechanically produced among the particles of bodies, were altogether at a loss to show a reason why this motion, or any thing resembling it, should continue perhaps for months after the exciting cause is taken away. To remove this difficulty, some have had recourse to the action of a latent acid communicated to the quicklime by the fire; and which one chemist (Mr Meyer) has distinguished by the name of *acidum pingue* *. But on this hypothesis it may be remarked in the first place, that the action of acids is as difficult to be explained as that of fire; and, in the second place, that as all substances, by calcination into quicklime, lose considerably of their weight, it seems very improbable that they should acquire an acid or any other substance which could increase their weight. Besides, from the experiments of Dr Black, it appears, that the diminution of weight in calcareous substances, is owing to their parting with a quantity of fixed air, the weight of which is much more considerable than that of any moisture or fatty matter they contain. The loss of this fixed air is now also universally allowed to be the reason of the causticity of the quicklime, as its superior attraction for fixed air is looked upon to be the reason why it renders fixed and volatile alkalies caustic like itself. The only question therefore can be, By what means are the calcareous earths deprived of their fixed air? To this question the answer is evident, namely, that the action of the fire expels the fixed air; and if this is the case, it is evident, that to this action of fire, continued, the caustic properties of the lime are owing.

* See Air, n° 16, 17.

We

Quicklime. We come now to the discussion of the question, Whether quicklime is to be considered as a pure earth, or a combination of it with something else?—Most of the chemists, since the discovery of fixed air, have been inclined to think, that quicklime is a pure earth uncombined with any thing else, and that it approaches more nearly to the state of elementary earth than any other. But this opinion seems not to have a solid foundation; for there are other earths, such as the basis of alum, which, as far as they can be examined by us, are equally pure with quicklime, and yet discover not the smallest causticity, even after the most violent calcination. Besides, from the property which quicklime has of depriving alkaline salts of their fixed air, we may learn, that there exists in it, when kept by itself, a certain principle which prevents it from absorbing again the fixed air, with which it was once so closely united, except in certain circumstances. It is well known, that fixed alkalies, as well as those which are volatile, will absorb fixed air from the common atmosphere: and hence, tho' they are prepared in the most caustic state, they will in a very short time become mild, by an exposure to the atmosphere; nay, it requires no small degree of care to prevent the atmosphere from having as much access to them as is necessary to change them from a caustic to a mild state. Now, as these substances thus attract the fixed air from the atmosphere, it thence appears that the atmosphere parts very readily with the fixed air which it contains. The quicklime, however, though it has a greater attraction for fixed air than the alkalies, yet does not become near so soon mild from exposure to the air as the alkalies which have less attraction than itself. Hence the necessary inference must be, that quicklime, after being once calcined, instead of attracting, repels fixed air, unless it is placed in certain circumstances, wherein the repelling power is destroyed, and the attractive power again manifests itself. Now it is manifest, that the power which originally repelled the fixed air was the action of fire; and consequently, while the quicklime refuses to attract fixed air, we must conclude that it is the same action which prevents the union. Quicklime, therefore, is not a pure earth, but a combination of a pure earth with fire; just as chalk, or limestone uncalcined, is not a pure earth, but a combination of a pure earth with fixed air. In all chemical trials, then, where quicklime is used, the double elective attraction will manifest itself as much as in a combination of different salts, metals, and acids. Thus, when water is poured on quicklime, the attraction between that element and earth is stronger than the attraction between earth and fire. The consequence is, that the water expels the fire, just as vitriolic acid poured upon sea-salt expels the marine acid. The fire then, having nothing with which it can form a chemical combination, becomes sensible to the touch, first making the lime very hot, and then gradually dissipating in the atmosphere. However, as the water combines with the earth but in very small quantity, it can only expel the fire from that quantity with which it does combine; and consequently the lime still retains its caustic quality, though in a degree somewhat milder than what it was originally. We must also consider, that water itself has a considerable attraction for fire as well as for earth; and the consequence of this must be, that part of the lime will be dissolved in the water, if more of that element is added than what the earth can absorb without losing the form of a dry powder. Hence the origin of lime-water, which is only a small quantity of lime in its caustic state dissolved in a large quantity of water. This dissolution is owing to the double attraction of fire to earth and water; for as long as the water can admit the calcined earth to that intimate union with itself which is called a *chemical combination*, the earth must still retain all the causticity which the fire gives it, and dissolve in the water. When the earth is in too large quantity to be thus combined with the water, the latter is only absorbed into the pores of the earth, where by its bulk it splits the stone or calcined matter all to pieces, and reduces it to an impalpable powder, expelling a proportional quantity of fire from those pores which it now occupies. The water, however, is capable of radically dissolving but a very small portion of calcined earth: and therefore, the same quantity of quicklime will serve for preparing lime-water a great number of times over; but at last a large quantity is left, which seems to be quite inert, and has lost the properties of quicklime. Those who have tried the experiment of lixiviating lime with fresh quantities of water till it ceases to be soluble, have fixed the proportion of soluble matter in the lime at about one-third of the whole; but from Dr Black's experiments it appears that quicklime may all be dissolved in water at once, provided the water is in sufficient quantity. Its inactivity, therefore, after repeated affusions of water, must be owing to some change produced by the water; but whether this is owing to an absorption of all the fire it contained by the great quantity of water, or to a supply of fixed air given by the water, has not yet been determined by any experiment.

If, instead of pouring cold water upon quicklime, we pour that which is already heated, the absorption is much less complete; because the water, having already a superfluous quantity of heat, is resisted by that which is contained in the quicklime in a latent state; and hence it is a general observation, that hot water is less proper for flaking lime than cold. But if we pour on any acid upon quicklime which contains a great quantity of fire in a latent state, and has likewise a violent attraction for the earth, a much greater degree of heat is produced than with simple water. With the vitriolic acid, indeed, this is not so well perceived, if the common calcareous earths are made use of; because their insolubility in this acid diminishes its effect: but if, instead of these earths, we take magnesia newly calcined, the heat is so great, that the aqueous vapour, not having time to evaporate slowly, is driven off with a considerable explosion. If the common calcareous earths, well calcined, are dissolved in the nitrous acid, a most violent degree of heat is produced; more indeed than in any other case where a liquid is concerned: for the nitrous acid itself contains a great deal of latent heat; the quicklime does the same; and by the intimate union of the earth with the acid, all this latent heat, at least a great part of it, both in the quicklime and spirit of nitre, is displaced, and attacks the aqueous fluid as being nearest to it; from whence it is dissipated in the air, or ab-

Quicklime, Quickfilver. absorbed by the neighbouring subſtances. The ſame thing happens, only in a leſs degree, when the marine acid is employed.

When quicklime is mixed with a ſolution of mild alkali, a double decompoſition, and two new compoſitions, take place. The quicklime may be conſidered as a combination of earth and fire, while the alkali in the preſent caſe acts as a combination of ſalt and air. Theſe two ſubſtances, therefore, are no ſooner put into ſuch circumſtances as enable them to act on each other, than the quicklime attracts the air from the alkali, and gives its own fire in exchange, which the alkali takes up, and thus is rendered cauſtic, while the quicklime becomes mild. Nevertheleſs, though the alkali here ſeems to have the greater attraction for fire, and the quicklime for air; yet it appears, that the alkali is by no means capable of keeping the fire which it has imbibed for any length of time; for no ſooner is it expoſed to the action of the air, than it parts with the fire which it had imbibed, regains its air, and becomes mild. This, however, in all probability is owing to its extreme ſolubility in water while in a cauſtic ſtate; for quicklime itſelf when diſſolved in water very eaſily regains its fixed air, nay, even more than it contains in a natural ſtate. See the article SALT.

On the whole, then, the properties of quicklime may be explained in a very eaſy manner on Dr Black's principle of latent heat. That heat conſiſts in a latent ſtate in quicklime, as well as in vapour, we have inconteſtible proofs; becauſe, in all caſes where quicklime changes its nature and becomes more mild, a degree of heat is produced, and which is always proportionable to the change made on the quicklime. In the making of quicklime, therefore, the air is expelled, and a proportional quantity of fire enters; in diſſolving it in an acid, ſlaking, &c. an acid, air, or water, expels part of the heat, which then becomes ſenſible. By long expoſure to the air, the heat gradually evaporates; the fixed air reſumes its place; and the quicklime, being thus increaſed in bulk, embraces thoſe bodies very cloſely which lie neareſt to it, inſomuch, that, when mixed with ſand and ſtones, it will harden with them almoſt into the ſolidity of a rock. See CEMENT and MORTAR. When mixed with animal or vegetable ſubſtances, it deſtroys or decompounds them both by the action of its internal heat, and by its attraction for a certain acid contained in the animal ſubſtances, and an oily matter in the vegetables; and hence its property of burning cloth, though its attraction for the oily matter juſt mentioned makes it an excellent whitener when properly applied. See BLEACHING.

QUICKSILVER, or MERCURY, a metallic ſubſtance, fluid, except in extreme degrees of cold, of a ſhining white appearance, very much reſembling ſilver; its ſpecific gravity the greateſt of all metals next to gold and platina. For the method of extracting this metal from its ore, ſee METALLURGY, p. 4957. For the various preparations from it, ſee CHEMISTRY, nº 153, 205, 250, 414. and PHARMACY, nº 479, 751, 754, 755, 756, 757, 758, 759, 760, 761, 762, 763. Quickſilver.

Mercury may eaſily be cleanſed from thoſe extraneous matters which adhere only ſlightly to it, by making it paſs through a new, clean, and cloſe cloth, and afterwards by heating it. When mercury has been thus purified, and is free from all metallic allay, it is conſiderably fluid. A phoſphoric light is produced by ſhaking in the dark ſuch mercury contained in a barometer. Its integrant parts, like thoſe of melted metals, ſeem mutually to attract each other, and always acquire a convex or ſpherical form when they touch bodies with which they have no tendency to unite. Prieſtley on Air, vol. iv. p. 152, &c.

A new method of purifying quickſilver from lead has been diſcovered by Dr Prieſtley; of which he gives the following account.

"I take a glaſs phial with a ground ſtopper (ſuch being generally pretty ſtrong) containing 10 or 12 ounces of water, and fill about one-fourth of it with the foul quickſilver; then, putting in the ſtopper, I hold it inverted with both my hands, and ſhake it violently, generally ſtriking the hand that ſupports it againſt my thigh. When I have given it 20 or 30 ſtrokes in this manner, I take out the ſtopper, and blow into the phial with a pair of bellows; which I do in order to change the air that has become in part phlogiſticated, and knowing that the purer the air is the faſter the proceſs advances.

"After a ſhort time, if the mercury be very foul, the ſurface will not only become black, but a great quantity of the upper part of it will be, as it were, coagulated, ſo as to be eaſily ſeparated from the reſt. I therefore invert the phial; and covering the mouth of it with my finger, let out all the mercury that will flow eaſily, and put the black coagulated part into a cup by itſelf. This I preſs repeatedly with the end of my finger, till I make a complete ſeparation of the running mercury from the black powder; and putting the powder by itſelf, I pour back the mercury to the reſt of the maſs out of which it was taken, in order to be agitated with it again.

"This proceſs I repeat till I find that no more black matter can be ſeparated; and it is not a little remarkable, that the operator will be at no loſs to know when the proceſs is completed. For the ſame quantity of lead ſeems to come out of it in equal times of agitation, and conſequently the whole becomes pure at once. Alſo, whereas, while the lead was in the mercury, it felt, as I may ſay, like ſoft clay, the moment the lead is ſeparated from it, it begins to rattle as it is ſhaken, ſo that any perſon in the room may perceive when it has been agitated enough (A).

"That the mercury is made quite pure by this proceſs I aſcertained by diſtillation. For having diſtilled in a glaſs veſſel a large quantity of quickſilver, in which both lead and tin had been purpoſely diſſolved, and which had only been agitated in this manner afterwards, I found nothing more than a light whitiſh ſtain on the bottom of the retort.

"When a quantity of the black powder is procured,

(A) Pure mercury may alſo be diſtinguiſhed from that which is very impure, by this circumſtance, viz. that a mixture of lead or tin, at leaſt, very much diminiſhes its attraction of coheſion. For, when pure mercury is contained in a glaſs or earthen veſſel, there will be a hollow ſpace between the metal and the veſſel; whereas, if there be lead or tin it, the whole ſurface, even to the place of contact with the veſſel, will be perfectly level.

it

it is very eafy, by diftillation, to feparate the mercury from the calx; and I do not know a readier method of procuring the calx of lead, or tin, and perhaps the calx of other metals alfo. The quantity of black mercurial powder is very confiderable in proportion to the lead or tin mixed with it; though it is not eafy to afcertain this with exactnefs, becaufe, in endeavouring to feparate the powder from the running mercury, a good deal of it is, by mere trituration, converted into running mercury; and I do not know but that, in time, the whole might be reftored by this means, and the calx of lead, &c. be got quite pure. However, from the following experiments it will be feen what proportion they generally bear to each other, after a tolerably careful feparation. It will be feen alfo, that when all the quickfilver that was converted into black powder is expelled from lead or tin by heat, there will remain more weight of the calx than there was of the metal; as might be expected. But as I applied more heat than was neceffary to feparate the quickfilver, a good deal of the air, and whatever elfe contributes to the additional weight of the calx, is, no doubt, expelled with it.

"Having mixed 1 dwt. of lead with about five pounds of quickfilver, I expelled it all by agitation, in the method defcribed above; when, weighing the black powder, it was found to be 1 oz. 10 dwt. 5 gr. fome particles of the running mercury being, however, ftill vifible in it. When the quickfilver was expelled by heat, the calx of the lead appeared in the form of a brownifh powder, and weighed 1 dwt. 5 gr.

"Having mixed 1 dwt. of tin with the abovementioned quantity of quickfilver, and having expelled it again by agitation, the black powder, with fome fmall globules of quickfilver mixed with it, weighed 2 oz. 1 dwt. 5 gr. and the calx, which was a tolerably white powder, weighed 1 dwt. 7 gr.

"The feparation of tin from quickfilver by agitation is not effected near fo foon as lead. It requires at leaft four times the labour. It alfo requires proportionably more time to feparate the black powder from the thick amalgam, in the manner defcribed above.

"Quickfilver is feparated from lead or tin when the mafs is agitated in water, as well as in air; but it feems to require more time. In this procefs it is alfo eafily perceived when all the bafe metal is expelled; the phenomena of the agitation of this amalgam and of pure mercury in water being very remarkably different. It is even eafy to perceive, by this means, in a moment, whether the quickfilver be pure or not. For if it be impure, the water becomes opake the moment the agitation commences; which is by no means the cafe with pure quickfilver, efpecially if the water in which it is agitated has not been ufed for this purpofe before. Alfo, the black matter fufpended in the water in which pure quickfilver has been agitated is (except in a cafe that will be defcribed hereafter) prefently depofited; whereas the water in which the amalgam has been agitated does not become clear in feveral days. It may alfo be perceived how the quickfilver approaches towards purity, by this depofit being made more or lefs readily.

"Alfo, the phenomena during the agitation in thefe two cafes are ftrikingly different, tho' not eafily defcribed in words. More efpecially, the mixture of quickfilver with lead or tin does not feem to admit the water to mix with it; whereas pure quickfilver, by violent agitation, may be fo thoroughly mixed with the water, that it will fometimes be feveral feconds after the agitation is difcontinued, before it have entirely difengaged itfelf from the water; and in doing this it exhibits a very pleafing fpectacle. By this means, as in the procefs without water, it may be perceived at once when the feparation of the bafe metal and the mercury is completely effected.

"Having a large quantity of water made very black with the agitation of a mixture of quickfilver and lead, I agitated a quantity of common air in it a long time, and let it ftand feveral days; but the air was not fenfibly injured by this means; fo that though this water and the calcined amalgam fufpended in it do contain phlogifton, it is not by this means imparted to the air.

"I evaporated a pint of the diftilled water in which quickfilver and tin had been agitated, and which had ftood till it was quite tranfparent, when a white fediment remained, but it did not weigh more than a few grains."

By long agitation in water, the pureft quickfilver will be converted into a black powder. The procefs fucceeds beft when as much water is ufed as is three or four times the bulk of quickfilver. This black matter, however, is not permanent, but becomes running mercury by being merely expofed to the air, without trituration, or any other kind of operation. Spirit of wine anfwers the purpofe as well as water; and the appearance feems to be occafioned by a fmall quantity of fuperfluous phlogifton adhering to the metal.

QUICK-MATCH, among artillery men, a kind of combuftible preparation formed of three cotton ftrands drawn into length, and dipped in a boiling compofition of white-wine vinegar, faltpetre, and mealed powder. After this immerfion it is taken out hot, and laid in a trough where fome mealed powder, moiftened with fpirits of wine, is thoroughly incorporated into the twifts of the cotton, by rolling it about therein. Thus prepared, they are taken out feparately, and drawn through mealed powder; then hung upon a line till dried, by which they are fit for immediate fervice.

QUID PRO QUO, in law, *q. d.* "what for what," denotes the giving one thing of value for another; or the mutual confideration and performance of both parties to a contract.

QUID *pro quo*, or QUI *pro quo*, is alfo ufed in phyfic to expreis a miftake in the phyfician's bill, where *quid* is wrote for *quo*, i. e. one thing for another; or of the apothecary in reading *quid* for *quo*, and giving the patient the wrong medicine. Hence the term is in the general extended to all blunders or miftakes committed in medicine, either in the prefcription, the preparation, or application of remedies.

QUIDDITY, QUIDDITAS, a barbarous term ufed in the fchools for *effence*. The name is derived hence, that it is by the effence of a thing that it is *tale quid*, fuch

Quietists || Quin.

such a *quid*, or thing, and not another. Hence what is essential to a thing is said to be *quiddative*.

QUIETISTS, a religious sect, famous towards the close of the last century.

They were so called from a kind absolute rest and inaction, which they supposed the soul to be in when arrived at that state of perfection which they called the *unitive life*; in which state, they imagined the soul wholly employed in contemplating its God, to whose influence it was entirely submissive, so that he could turn and drive it where and how he would. In this state, the soul no longer needs prayers, hymns, &c. being laid, as it were, in the bosom and between the arms of its God, in whom it is in a manner swallowed up.

The Mahometans seem to be no strangers to quietism. They expound a passage in the seventieth chapter of the Koran, viz. "O thou soul, which art at rest, return unto thy Lord, &c." of a soul, which, having, by pursuing the concatenation of natural causes, raised itself to the knowledge of that being which produced them and exists of necessity, rests fully contented, and acquiesces in the knowledge, &c. of him, and in the contemplation of his perfection.

QUILLET (Claude), an eminent Latin poet of the 17th century, was born at Chinon, in Touraine, and practised physic there with reputation: but having declared against the pretended possession of the nuns of Loudun, in a manuscript treatise, the original of which is now in the library of the Sorbonne, he was obliged to retire into Italy, where he became secretary to the marshal d'Estrees, the French ambassador at Rome. In 1655 Quillet having published in Holland a Latin poem, entitled *Callipædia*, under the name of *Calvidius Lætus*, he there inserted some verses against the cardinal Mazarine and his family; but that cardinal making him some gentle reproaches, he retrenched what related to the cardinal, in another edition, and dedicated it to him, Mazarine having, before it was printed, gave him an abbey. He died in 1661, aged 59, after having given Menage all his writings, and 500 crowns to pay the expence of printing them; but the abbé took the money and papers, and published none of them. His *Callipædia*, or the Art of getting beautiful Children, has been translated into English verse.

QUILLS, the large feathers taken out of the end of the wing of a goose, crow, &c.

Quills are denominated from the order in which they are fixed in the wing, the second and third quills being the best for writing, as they have the largest and roundest barrels.

Crow-quills are chiefly used for drawing. In order to harden a quill that is soft, thrust the barrel into hot ashes, stirring it till it is soft, and then taking it out, press it almost flat upon your knee with the back of a penknife, and afterwards reduce it to a roundness with your fingers. If you have a number to harden, set water and alum over the fire, and while it is boiling put in a handful of quills, the barrels only, for a minute, and then lay them by.

QUIN (James), a celebrated performer on the English stage, was born at London in 1693. He was intended for the bar; but preferring Shakespear to the statutes at large, he on the death of his father, when it was necessary for him to do something with himself, appeared on the stage at Drury-lane. In 1720, he first displayed his comic powers in the character of Falstaff, and soon after appeared to as great advantage in Sir John Brute; but it was upon Booth's quitting the stage, that Quin appeared to full advantage, in the part of Cato. He continued a favourite performer until the year 1748, when on some disgust between him and Mr Rich the manager, he retired to Bath, and only came up annually to act for the benefit of his friend Ryan; until the loss of two front teeth spoilt his utterance for the stage. While Mr Quin continued upon the stage, he constantly kept company with the greatest geniuses of the age. He was well known to Pope and Swift; and the earl of Chesterfield frequently invited him to his table: but there was none for whom he entertained a higher esteem, than for the ingenious Mr Thomson, to whom he made himself known by an act of generosity, that does the greatest honour to his character, and of which we have given a particular account in Mr Thomson's life. Mr Quin's judgment in the English language recommended him to his royal highness Frederick prince of Wales, who appointed him to instruct his children in speaking and reading with a graceful propriety; and Quin being informed of the elegant manner in which his present majesty delivered his first gracious speech from the throne, he cried out in a kind of ecstasy, "Ay—I taught the boy to speak!" Nor did his majesty forget his old tutor; for, soon after his accession to the throne, he gave orders, without any application being made to him, that a genteel pension should be paid to Mr Quin during his life. Mr Quin, indeed, was not in absolute need of this royal benefaction; for as he was never married, and had none but distant relations, he sunk 2000 l. which was half his fortune, in an annuity, for which he obtained 200 l. a-year; and with about 2000 l. more in the funds, lived in a decent manner during the latter part of his life at Bath, from whence he carried on a regular correspondence with Mr Garrick, and generally paid a visit to his friends in the metropolis once a-year, when he constantly passed a week or two at Mr Garrick's villa at Hampton. He died of a fever in 1766.

Quina || Quinarius.

QUINAUT (Philip), a celebrated French poet, born of a good family at Paris in 1635. He cultivated poetry from his infancy, and 16 dramatic pieces of his were acted between the year 1653 and 1666. In the mean time Quinaut was not so much devoted to poetry, but that he applied himself to the study of the law; and made his fortune by marrying the widow of a rich merchant to whom he had been useful in his profession. Quinaut afterwards turned his attention to the composing of operas, which were set to music by the famous Lully; and Lully was charmed with a poet whose verses were not too nervous to yield to the capricious airs of music. He died in 1688, after having enjoyed a handsome pension from Lewis XIV. for many years: and we are told he was extremely penitent in his last illness, for all those of his compositions which tended to inspire love and pleasure.

QUINARIUS, in antiquity, a little Roman coin, equal to half the denarius. It was properly the Roman halfpenny.

QUINCE, in botany. See CIDONIA.

QUINCUNX, in Roman antiquity, denotes any thing that consists of five-twelfths of another; but particularly of the *as*.

QUINCUNX *Order*, in gardening, is a plantation of trees, disposed originally in a square consisting of five trees, one at each corner, and a fifth in the middle; which disposition, repeated again and again, forms a regular grove, wood, or wilderness.

QUINDECAGON, in geometry, a plain figure with 15 sides and 15 angles.

QUINDECEMVIRI, in Roman antiquity, a college of 15 magistrates, whose business it was to preside over the sacrifices. They were also the interpreters of the Sibyl's books; which, however, they never consulted but by an express order of the senate.

QUINQUAGENARIUS, in Roman antiquity, an officer who had the command of 50 men.

QUINQUAGESIMA SUNDAY, Shrove Sunday, so called as being about the 50th day before Easter.

QUINQUATRIA, in Roman antiquity, festivals celebrated in honour of Minerva, with much the same ceremonies as the Panathenæa were at Athens.

QUINQUENNALIS, in Roman antiquity, a magistrate in the colonies and municipal cities of that empire, who had much the same office as the ædile at Rome.

QUINQUEREMIS, in the naval architecture of the ancients, a name given to a galley which had five rows of oars. They divided their vessels in general into *monocrota* and *polycrota*. The former had only one tire of rowers: the latter had several tires of them, from two or three, up to 20, 30, or even 40; for such a vessel we have an account of in the time of Philopater, which required no less than 4000 men to row it.

Meibom has taken off from the imaginary improbability of there ever having been such a vessel, by reducing the enormous height supposed necessary for such a number of rows of oars and men to work them, by finding a better way of placing the men than others had thought of. The quinqueremes of the ancients had 420 men in each; 300 of which were rowers, and the rest soldiers. The Roman fleet at Messina consisted of 330 of these ships; and the Carthaginian, at Lilybœum, of 350 of the same size. Each vessel was 150 feet long. Thus 130,000 men were contained in the one, and 150,000 in the other, with the apparatus and provisions necessary for such expeditions as they were intended for. This gives so grand an idea of the ancient naval armaments, that some have questioned the truth of the history; but we find it related by Polybius, an historian too authentic to be questioned, and who expresses his wonder at it while he relates it.

QUINQUEVIRI, in Roman antiquity, an order of five priests, peculiarly appointed for the sacrifices to the dead, or celebrating the rites of Erebus.

QUINQUINA. See CINCHONA.

QUINSY, or QUINZY. See MEDICINE, n° 285—288.

QUINTESSENCE, in chemistry, a preparation consisting of the essential oil of some vegetable substance, mixed and incorporated with spirit of wine.

QUINTESSENCE, in alchemy, is a mysterious term, signifying the fifth or last and highest essence of power in a natural body.

QUINTILE, in astronomy, an aspect of the planets when they are 72 degrees distant from one another, or a fifth part of the zodiac.

QUINTILIANUS (Marcus Fabius), a celebrated Latin orator, and the most judicious critic of his time, was a native of Calagurris, or Calahorra, in Spain; and was the disciple of Domitius Afer, who died in the year 59. He taught rhetoric at Rome 20 years, with great applause; and not only laid down rules for speaking, but exhibited his eloquence at the bar. Some authors imagine, but with little foundation, that he arrived to the consulship; but it is more certain, that he was preceptor to the grandsons of the emperor Domitian's sister. There is still extant his excellent work entitled *Institutiones Oratoriæ*, which is a treatise of rhetoric in 12 books; where his precepts, judgment, and taste, are justly admired. These institutions were found entire by Poggius, in an old tower of the abbey of St Gal, and not in a grocer's shop in Germany as some authors have imagined. There is also attributed to Quintilian a dialogue *De causis corruptæ eloquentiæ*; but it is more commonly ascribed to Tacitus. The best editions of Quintilian's works are those of Mr Obreight, published at Strasburg in 2 vols 4to, in 1698, and of M. Capperonier, in folio. There is an English translation by Mr Guthrie.

Quintilian had a son of the same name, on whom he bestows great praises. This son ought not to be confounded with Quintilian, the father, or rather the grandfather, of him who is the subject of this article, and who wrote 145 declamations. Ugolin of Parma published the first 136 in the 15th century; the nine others were published in 1563 by Peter Ayrault, and afterwards by Peter Pithou in 1580. There have also been 19 other declamations, printed under the name of Quintilian the Orator; but, in the opinion of Vossius, they were written neither by that orator nor his grandfather.

QUINTILIANS, a sect of ancient heretics, thus called from their prophetess Quintilia. In this sect the women were admitted to perform the sacerdotal and episcopal functions. They attributed extraordinary gifts to Eve for having first eaten of the tree of knowledge; told great things of Mary the sister of Moses, as having been a prophetess, &c. They added, that Philip the deacon had four daughters who were all prophetesses and were of their sect. In these assemblies it was usual to see the virgins entering in white robes, personating prophetesses.

QUINTIN, a considerable town of France, in Brittany, with the title of a duchy, and a fine castle. It is seated in a valley on the river Goy, near a large forest of the same name. W. Long. 1. 51. N. Lat. 48. 26.

QUINTIN MATSYS, also called the *Farrier of Antwerp*, famous for being transformed, by the force of love, from a blacksmith to a painter. He had followed the trade of a blacksmith and farrier near 20 years; when falling in love with a painter's daughter, who was very handsome, and disliked nothing but his trade, he quitted it, and betook himself to painting, in which he made a very uncommon progress. He was a diligent and careful imitator of ordinary life, and succeeded better in representing the defects than the beauties of nature. Some historical performances of this master deserve commendation, particularly a Descent from the Cross, in the cathedral at Antwerp: but his best known

known picture is that of the two Misers in the gallery at Windsor. He died in 1529.

QUINTINIE (John de la), a celebrated French gardener, born at Poictiers in 1626. He was brought up to the law; and acquitted himself so well at the bar, as to acquire the esteem of the chief magistrate. M. Tamboneau, president of the chamber of accounts, engaged him to undertake the preceptorship of his only son, which Quintinie executed entirely to his satisfaction; applying his leisure hours to the study of writers on agriculture, ancient and modern, to which he had a strong inclination. He gained new lights by attending his pupil to Italy; for all the gardens about Rome being open to him, he failed not to add practice to his theory. On his return to Paris, M. Tamboneau gave up the management of his garden entirely to him; and Quintinie applied so closely to it, that he became famous all over France. Lewis XIV. erected a new office purposely for him, that of director of the royal fruit and kitchen gardens; and these gardens, while he lived, were the admiration of the curious. He lived to a good old age, though we learn not the time of his death; his Directions for the Management of Fruit and Kitchen Gardens, are esteemed all over Europe.

QUINTUS CALABER, a Greek poet, who wrote a large Supplement to Homer's Iliad, in 14 books, in which a relation is given of the Trojan war from the death of Hector to the destruction of Troy. It is conjectured, from his style and manner, that he lived in the fifth century. Nothing certain can be collected either concerning his person or country. His poem was first made known by cardinal Bessarion, who discovered it in St Nicholas's church, near Otranto in Calabria; from whence the author was named *Quintus Caliber*. He was first published at Venice by Aldus, but it is not said in what year.

QUINTUS CURTIUS. See CURTIUS.

QUIRE *of* PAPER, the quantity of 24 or 25 sheets.

QUIRINALIA, in antiquity, a feast celebrated among the Romans in honour of Romulus.

QUIRITES, in Roman antiquity. In consequence of the agreement entered into by Romulus and Tatius king of the Sabines, Rome was to retain its name, taken from Romulus; and the people were to be called *Quirites*, from Cures, the principal town of the Sabines, a name used in all public addresses to the Roman people.——Dion. Hal. says, that each particular citizen was to be called *Romanus*, and the collective body of them *Quirites*; yet it appears by this ancient form of words used at funerals, *Ollus Quiris letho datus est*, that each private citizen was also called *Quiris*.

The origin of the word *Quirites*, which was at first peculiar to the Sabines, and became, in Romulus's time, the general name of the inhabitants of Rome, has been much sought for; and the most probable account antiquity gives us of them, is this. The word *Quiris*, according to Plutarch (p. 36.) and some others, signified in the Sabine language, both a *dart*, and a *warlike deity armed with a dart*. It is uncertain whether the god gave name to the dart, or the dart to the god. But be that as it will, this *Quiris*, or *Quirinus*, was either Mars, or some other god of war; and the worship of *Quiris* continued in Rome all Romulus's reign: but after his death, he was honoured with the name *Quirinus*, and took the place of the god *Quiris*.

QUIRK, in a general sense, denotes a subtilty or artful distinction.

QUIRK, in building, a piece of ground taken out of any regular ground-plot, or floor: thus, if the ground-plot were oblong or square, a piece taken out of a corner to make a court or yard, &c. is called a *quirk*.

QUITTER-BONE, in farriery. See there, § xl. 4.

QUIT-RENT, (*Quietus Redditus*, i. e. "quiet rent,") is a certain small rent payable by the tenants of manors, in token of subjection, and by which the tenant goes quiet and free. In ancient records it is called *white rent*, because paid in silver money, to distinguish it from rent corn, &c.

QUOIN, or COIN, on board a ship, a wedge fastened on the deck close to the breach of the carriage of a gun, to keep it firm up to the ship's side. Cantic quoins are short three-legged quoins put between casks to keep them steady.

QUOINS, in architecture, denote the corners of brick or stone walls. The word is particularly used for the stones in the corners of brick buildings. When these stand out beyond the brick-work, their edges being chamfred off, they are called *rustic quoins*.

QUOTIDIAN, any thing which happens every day. Hence, when the paroxysms of an ague recur every day, it is called a *quotidian ague*.

QUOAD HOC, is a term used in the pleadings and arguments of lawyers; being as much as to say, As to this thing the law is so and so.

QUORUM, a word frequently mentioned in our statutes, and in commissions both of justices of the peace and others. It is thus called from the words of the commission, *quorum* A. B. *unum esse volumus*. For an example, where a commission is directed to seven persons, or to any three of them, whereof A. B. and C D. are to be two; in this case, they are said to be of the quorum, because the rest cannot proceed without them: so a justice of the peace and quorum is one without whom the rest of the justices in some cases cannot proceed.

QUOTIENT, in arithmetic, the number resulting from the division of a greater number by a smaller; and which shows how often the smaller is contained in the greater, or how often the divisor is contained in the dividend. The word is formed from the Latin, *quoties*; *q. d.* How often is such a number contained in such another?

In division, as the divisor is to the dividend, so is unity to the quotient.—Thus the quotient of 12 divided by 3 is 4; which is thus disposed, 3) 12 (4 quotient.

R.

R || Rabelais.

R, or r, a liquid consonant, being the 17th letter of our alphabet. Its sound is formed by a guttural extrusion of the breath vibrated through the mouth, with a sort of quivering motion of the tongue drawn from the teeth, and cannulated with the tip a little elevated towards the palate. In Greek words it is frequently aspirated with an *h* after it, as in *rhapsody*, *rhetoric*, &c. otherwise it is always followed by a vowel at the beginning of words and syllables.

In the notes of the ancients, R. or RO. signifies *Roma;* R. C. *Romana civitas;* R. G. C. *rei gerendæ causa;* R. F. E. D. *recte factum & dictum;* R. G. F. *regis filius;* R. P. *res publica*, or *Romani principes;* and R. R. R. F. F. F. *res Romana ruet ferro, fame, flamma.*

Used as a numeral, R anciently stood for 80; and with a dash over it, thus $\overline{R}$, for 80,000; but the Greek r, or ρ, signified 100.

In the prescriptions of physicians, R or ℞ stands for *recipe, i. e.* "take."

RABBETTING, in carpentry, the planning, or cutting of channels or grooves in boards, &c.

In ship-carpentry, it signifies the letting in of the planks of the ship into the keel; which, in the rake and run of a ship is hollowed away, that the planks may join the closer.

RABBI, or Rabbins, a title which the Pharisees and doctors of the law among the Jews assumed, and literally signifies *masters* or *excellents*.

There were several gradations before they arrived at the dignity of a rabbin; which was not conferred till they had acquired the profoundest knowledge of the law and the traditions. It does not however appear that there was any fixed age or previous examination necessary; but when a man had distinguished himself by his skill in the written and oral law, and passed thro' the subordinate degrees, he was saluted a rabbin by the public voice.

Among the modern Jews, for near 700 years past, the learned men retain no other title than that of *rabbi*, or *rabbins:* they have great respect paid them, have the first places or seats in their synagogues, determine all matters of controversy, and frequently pronounce upon civil affairs; they have even a power to excommunicate the disobedient.

RABBINISTS, among the modern Jews, an appellation given to the doctrine of the rabbins concerning traditions, in opposition to the Caraites; who reject all traditions. See Caraite.

RABELAIS (Francis), a French writer famous for his facetiousness, was born at Chinon in Touraine, about the year 1483. He was first a Franciscan friar; but quitting his religious habit, studied physic at Montpelier, where he took his doctor's degree. It is said, that the chancellor du Pratt having abolished the privileges of the faculty of physic at Montpelier by a decree of the parliament, Rabelais had the address to make him revoke what he had done; and that those who were made doctors of that university wear Rabelais's robe, which is there held in great veneration. Some time after, he came to Rome, in quality of physician in ordinary to cardinal John du Bellay bishop of Paris. Rabelais is said to have used the freedom to jeer pope Paul III. to his face. He had quitted his religious connections for the sake of leading a life more agreeable to his taste; but renewed them on a second journey to Rome, when he obtained, in 1536, a brief to qualify him for holding ecclesiastical benefices; and, by the interest of his friend cardinal John du Bellay, he was received as a secular canon in the abbey of St Maur near Paris. His profound knowledge in physic rendered him doubly useful; he being as ready, and at least as well qualified, to prescribe for the body as for the soul: but as he was a man of wit and humour, many ridiculous things are laid to his charge, of which he was quite innocent. He published several things; but his chief performance is a strange incoherent romance, called the *History of Gargantua and Pantagruel;* being a satire upon priests, popes, fools, and knaves of all kinds. This work contains a wild irregular profusion of wit, learning, obscenity, low conceits, and arrant nonsense: hence the shrewdness of his satire, in some places where he is to be understood, gains him credit for as good meanings where no meaning is discoverable. Some allusions may undoubtedly have been so temporary and local as to be now quite lost, but it is too much to conclude thus in favour of every unintelligible rhapsody: for we are not without English writers of great talents, whose sportive geniuses have betrayed them into puerilities, no less incoherent at the times of writing, than those of Rabelais appear above two centuries after. He died about 1953. Rabelais, Rabbit.

RABBIT, in zoology. See Lepus.

The buck rabbits, like our boar cats, will kill the young ones if they can get at them; and the does in the warrens prevent this, by covering their stocks, or nests, with gravel or earth, which they close so artificially up with the hinder part of their bodies, that it is hard to find them out. They never suckle their young ones at any other time than early in the morning and late at night; and always, for eight or ten days, close up the hole at the mouth of the nest, in this careful manner, when they go out. After this they begin to leave a small opening, which they increase by degrees; till at length, when they are about three weeks old, the mouth of the hole is left wholly open that they may go out; for they are at that time grown big enough to take care of themselves, and to feed on grass.

People who keep rabbits tame for profit, breed them in hutches; but these must be kept very neat and clean, else they will be always subject to diseases. Care must be taken also to keep the bucks and does apart till the latter have just kindled; then they are to be turned to the bucks again, and to remain with them till they shun and run from them.

The general direction for the choosing of tame rabbits

Rabbit.

bits is, to pick the largeſt and faireſt; but the breeder ſhould remember that the ſkins of the ſilver-haired ones ſell better than any other. The food of the tame rabbits may be colewort and cabbage-leaves, carrots, parſneps, apple-rinds, green corn, and vetches, in the time of the year; alſo vine-leaves, graſs, fruits, oats, and oatmeal, milk-thiſtles, ſow-thiſtles, and the like: but with theſe moiſt foods they muſt always have a proportionable quantity of the dry foods, as hay, bread, oats, bran, and the like, otherwiſe they will grow pot-bellied, and die. Bran and grains mixed together have been alſo found to be very good food. In winter they will eat hay, oats, and chaff, and theſe may be given them three times a-day; but when they eat green things, it muſt be obſerved that they are not to drink at all, for it would throw them into a dropſy. At all other times a very little drink ſerves their turn, but that muſt always be freſh. When any green herbs, or graſs, are cut for their food, care muſt be taken that there be no hemlock among it; for though they will eat this greedily among other things when offered to them, yet it is ſudden poiſon to them.

Rabbits are ſubject to two principal infirmities. Firſt, the rot, which is cauſed by giving them too large a quantity of greens, or from giving them freſh gathered with the dew or rain hanging in drops upon them. It is over-moiſture that always cauſes this diſeaſe. The greens therefore are always to be given dry; and a ſufficient quantity of hay, or other dry food, intermixed with them, to take up the abundant moiſture of their juices. On this account the very beſt food that can be given them, is the ſhorteſt and ſweeteſt hay that can be got, of which one load will ſerve 200 couples a year; and out of this ſtock of 200, 200 may be eat in the family, 200 ſold to the markets, and a ſufficient number kep in caſe of accidents.

The other general diſeaſe of theſe creatures is a ſort of madneſs: this may be known by their wallowing and tumbling about with their heels upwards, and hopping in an odd manner into their boxes. This diſtemper is ſuppoſed to be owing to the rankneſs of their feeding; and the general cure is the keeping them low, and giving them the prickly herb called *tare-thiſtle* to eat.

The general computation of males and females is, that one buck-rabbit will ſerve for nine does: ſome allow 10 to one buck; but thoſe who go beyond this, always ſuffer for it in their breed.

The wild rabbits are either to be taken by ſmall curdogs, or by ſpaniels bred up to the ſport; and the places of hunting thoſe who ſtraggle from their burrows, is under cloſe hedges or buſhes, or among corn-fields and freſh paſtures. The owners uſe to courſe them with ſmall greyhounds; and though they are ſeldom killed this way, yet they are driven back to their burrows, and are prevented from being a prey to others. The common method is by nets called *purſe-nets*, and ferrets. The ferret is ſent into the hole to fetch them out; and the purſe-net being ſpread over the hole, takes them as they come out. The ferrets mouths muſt be muffled, and then the rabbit gets no harm. For the more certain taking of them, it may not be improper to pitch up a hay-net or two, at a ſmall diſtance from the burrows that are intended to be hunted: thus very few of the number that are attempted will eſcape.

Rabbit || Race.

Some who have not ferrets ſmoke the rabbits out of their holes with burning brimſtone and orpiment. This certainly brings them out into the nets: but then it is a very troubleſome and offenſive method; and is very detrimental to the place, as no rabbit will, of a long time, afterwards come near the burrows which have been fumed with thoſe ſtinking ingredients.

The teſticle of a rabbit is a very good object for examining the ſtructure of this part of generation in animals. The whole ſubſtance of the teſticle in this animal is made up of veſſels, which lie in round folds in the manner of the ſmaller inteſtines: but then both ends of each roll meet at their inſertion, which ſeems to be made into the *ductus nervoſus*; and every one of theſe little rolls is curiouſly embroidered with other veſſels, which, from their red colour, appear to be arteries and veins. The ſeveral little rolls lie in ranges, diſpoſed with an uniformity which is very agreeable to the eye. Every one of theſe rolls is not a ſingle and entire tube, but each conſiſts of ſeveral tubes, beſide the veins and arteries which embroider it. This is beſt diſtinguiſhed by the cutting one of the rolls tranſverſely, and then examining the cut end with a glaſs, which will appear to be made up of the cut and open ends of four, five, or more parallel tubes, which together form the roll, or ſingle tube, as it appears to the eye, being all wrapped up in one common and very thin membrane. Theſe are ſo tender that they cannot be explicated and viewed diſtinct, as De Graeff tells us thoſe of the teſticles of a rat and of ſome other animals may. Theſe however, as well as the others, are only made up of a congeries of veſſels, and the liquors, which are their contents, without any intermediate ſubſtance, or any thing of that parenchyma which many authors have talked of. The teſticles of a bull have the greateſt appearance of a fleſhy texture of thoſe of any known animal; yet even theſe afford no particle of parenchyma, or fleſh, when examined by glaſſes in any ſort of preparation, whether boiled, raw, ſoaked in ſpirits, or in whatever other ſtate. The teſticles of various animals are very variouſly compoſed, but all in this general manner of veſſels variouſly rolled and folded together: and even the human teſticles are of the ſame ſort; being compoſed ſolely of rolls of veſſels, without any intermediate ſubſtance, be it called by whatever name, but only conſiſting of veſſels and their liquors.

RACE, in general, ſignifies running with others in order to obtain a prize, either on foot, or by riding on horſeback, in chariots, &c.

The race was one of the exerciſes among the ancient Grecian games, which was performed in a courſe containing 125 paces; and thoſe who contended in theſe foot-races were frequently clothed in armour. Chariot and horſe races alſo made a part of theſe ancient games.

Races were known in England in very early times. Fitz-Stephen, who wrote in the days of Henry II. mentions the great delight that the citizens of London took in the diverſion. But by his words, it appears not to have been deſigned for the purpoſes of gaming, but merely to have ſprung from a generous emulation of ſhowing a ſuperior ſkill in horſemanſhip.

Races appear to have been in vogue in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and to have been carried to ſuch exceſs as to injure the fortunes of the nobility. The famous

famous George earl of Cumberland is recorded to have wasted more of his estate than any of his ancestors; and chiefly by his extreme love to horse-races, tiltings, and other expensive diversions. It is probable that the parsimonious queen did not approve of it; for races are not among the diversions exhibited at Kenelworth by her favourite Leicester. In the following reign, were places allotted for the sport: Croydon in the south, and Garterly in Yorkshire, were celebrated courses. Camden also says, that in 1607 there were races near York, and the prize was a little golden bell.

Race, in genealogy, a lineage or extraction continued from father to son. See Descent.

RACINE (John) of the French academy, treasurer of France in the generality of Moulins, and secretary to his majesty, was born at Ferre-Milon in 1639. He had a fine genius for the *Belles Lettres*, and became one of the first poets of the age. He produced his *Thebaide* when but very young; and afterwards other pieces, which met with great success, though they appeared when Corneille was in his highest reputation. In his career, however, he did not fail to meet with all that opposition which envy and cabal are ever ready to set up against a superior genius. It was partly owing to a chagrin from this circumstance that he took a resolution to quit the theatre for ever; although his genius was still in full vigour, being not more than 38 years of age. But he had also imbibed in his infancy a deep sense of religion; and this, though it had been smothered for a while by his connections with the theatre, and particularly with the famous actress Champmele, whom he greatly loved, and by whom he had a son, now at length broke out, and bore down all before it. In the first place, he resolved not only to write no more plays, but to do a rigorous penance for those he had written; and he actually formed a design of becoming a Carthusian friar. His religious director however, a good deal wiser than he, advised him to think more moderately, and to take measures more suitable to his character. He put him upon marrying, and settling in the world: with which proposal this humble and tractable penitent complied; and immediately took to wife the daughter of a treasurer of France for Amiens, by whom he had seven children.

He had been admitted a member of the French academy in 1673, in the room of La Mothe le Vayer deceased; but spoiled the speech he had made upon that occasion, by pronouncing it with too much timidity. In 1677, he was nominated with Boileau, with whom he was ever in strict friendship, to write the history of Lewis XIV.; and the public expected great things from two writers of their distinction, but were disappointed. Boileau and Racine, after having for some time laboured at this work, perceived that it was entirely opposite to their genius.

He spent the latter years of his life in composing a history of the house of Port-Royal, the place of his education; which however, though finely drawn up, as many have asserted, has not been published. Too great sensibility, say his friends, but more properly an impotence of spirit, shortened the days of this poet. Though he had conversed much with the court, he had not learned the wisdom, which is usually learned there, of disguising his real sentiments. Having drawn up a well-reasoned and well-written memorial upon the miseries of the people, and the means of relieving them, he one day lent it to Madam de Maintenon to read; when the king coming in, and demanding what and whose it was, commended the zeal of Racine, but disapproved of his meddling with things that did not concern him: and said with an angry tone, "Because he knows how to make good verses, does he think he knows every thing? And would he be a minister of state, because he is a great poet?" These words hurt Racine greatly: he conceived dreadful ideas of the king's displeasure; and his chagrin and fears brought on a fever, of which he died the 22d of April 1699.

The king, who was sensible of his great merit, and always loved him, sent often to him in his illness; and finding after his death that he had more glory than riches, settled a handsome pension upon his family. There is nothing in the French language written with more wit and elegance than his pieces in prose. Besides his plays several of his letters have been published; he also wrote spiritual songs, epigrams, &c. Racine's works were printed at Amsterdam in 1722, in 2 vols 12mo. and the next year a pompous edition was printed in 2 vols quarto.

Racing, the riding heats for a plate or other premium.

The first thing to be considered in this sort of gaming is the choosing a rider; for it is not only necessary that he should be very expert and able, but he must also be very honest.

He must have a very close seat, his knees being turned close to the saddle skirts, and held firmly there, and the toes turned inwards, so that the spurs may be turned outward from the horse's belly; his left-hand governing the horse's mouth, and his right the whip. During the whole time of the race, he must take care to sit firm in the saddle, without waving or standing up in the stirrups. Some jockeys fancy this is a becoming seat; but it is certain, that all motions of this kind do really incommode the horse. In spurring the horse, it is not to be done by sticking the calves of the legs close to the horse's sides, as if it were intended to press the wind out of his body; but, on the contrary, the toes are to be turned a little outwards; that the heels being brought in, the spurs may just be brought to touch the sides. A sharp touch of this kind will be of more service toward the quickening a horse's pace, and will sooner draw blood, than one of the common coarse kicks. The expert jockey will never spur is horse until there is great occasion; and then he will avoid striking him under the fore bowels between the shoulders and girth; this is the tendereſt part of a horse, and a touch there is to be referred for the greatest extremity.

As to whipping the horse, it ought always to be done over the shoulder on the near side, except in very hard running and on the point of victory; then the horse is to be struck on the flank with a strong jerk; for the skin is most tender of all there, and most sensible of the lash.

When a horse is whipped and spurred, and is at the top of his speed; if he claps his ears in his pole, or whisks his tail, it is a proof that the jockey heats him

Racing. him hard, and then he ought to give him as much comfort as he can, by ſawing the ſnaffle backwards and forwards in his mouth; and by that means forcing him to open his mouth, which will give him wind, and be of great ſervice. If there be any high wind ſtirring in the time of riding, the artful jockey will let his adverſary lead, holding hard behind him, till he ſees an opportunity of giving a looſe: yet, in this caſe, he muſt keep ſo cloſe behind, that the other horſe may keep the wind from him; and that he, ſitting low, may at once ſhelter himſelf under him, and aſſiſt the ſtrength of the horſe. If the wind happen to be in their back, quite a contrary method is to be taken with it; the expert jockey is to keep directly behind the adverſary, that he may have all the advantage of the wind to blow his horſe along, as it were, and at the ſame time intercept it in regard to his adverſary.

When running on a level carpet ground, the jockey is to bear his horſe as much as the adverſary will give him leave, becauſe the horſe is naturally more inclined to ſpend himſelf on this ground; on the contrary, on deep earths, he may have more liberty, as he will there ſpare himſelf.

In riding up-hill the horſe is always to be favoured, by bearing him hard, for fear of running him out of wind; but, in running down-hill, if the horſe's feet and ſhoulders will bear it, and the rider dares venture his neck, he may have a full looſe. If the horſe have the heels of the reſt, the jockey muſt always ſpare him a little, that he may have a reſerve of ſtrength, to make a puſh at the laſt poſt.

A great deal depends on the jockey's knowing the nature of the horſe that is to run againſt him; for by managing accordingly, great advantages are to be obtained: thus, if the oppoſite horſe is of a hot and fiery diſpoſition, the jockey is either to run juſt behind him, or cheek by joul with him, making a noiſe with the whip, and by that means forcing him on ſafter than his rider would have him, and conſequently ſpending him ſo much the ſooner: or elſe keep juſt before him, in ſuch a ſlow gallop, that he may either over-reach, or by treading on the heels of the fore horſe endanger tumbling over.

Whatever be the ground that the adverſary's horſe runs worſt on, the cunning jockey is to ride the moſt violently over; that by this means it will often happen, that in following he either ſtumbles or claps on the back ſinews.

The ſeveral corrections of the hand, the whip, and the ſpur, are alſo to be obſerved in the adverſary, and in what manner he makes uſe of them; and when it is perceived, by any of the ſymptoms, of holding down the ears, or whiſking the tail, or ſtretching out the noſe like a pig, that the horſe is almoſt blown; the buſineſs is to keep him on to this ſpeed, and he will be ſoon thrown out or diſtanced. If the horſe of the opponent looks dull, it is a ſign his ſtrength fails him; and if his flanks beat much, it is a ſign that his wind begins to fail him, and his ſtrength will ſoon do ſo too.

After every heat for a plate, there muſt be dry ſtraw, and dry cloths both linen and woollen, ready to rub him down all over, after taking off the ſweat with what is called a *ſweat knife*; that is, a piece of an old ſword blade, or ſome ſuch thing. Some adviſe the ſteeping the cloths in urine and ſaltpetre the day before, and letting them be dried in the ſun for this occaſion. After the horſe has been well rubbed with theſe, he ſhould be chafed all over, with cloths wetted in common water till the time of ſtarting again. When it is certainly known that the horſe is good at the bottom, and will ſtick at the mark, he ſhould be rid every heat to the beſt of his performance; and the jockey is, as much as poſſible, to avoid riding at any particular horſe, or ſtaying for any, but to ride out the whole heat with the beſt ſpeed he can. If, on the contrary, he has a fiery horſe to ride, and one that is hard to manage, hard-mouthed, and difficult to be held, he is to be ſtarted behind the reſt of the horſes with all imaginable coolneſs and gentleneſs; and when he begins to ride at ſome command, then the jockey is to put up to the other horſes; and if they ride at their eaſe, and are hard held, they are to be drawn on ſafter; and if it be perceived that their wind begins to rake hot, and they want a ſob, the buſineſs is to keep them up to that ſpeed: and when they all are come within three quarters of a mile of the poſt, then is the time to puſh for it, and uſe the utmoſt ſpeed in the creature's power.

When the race is over, the horſe is to be clothed up and rode home; and immediately on his coming into the ſtable, the following drink is to be given him. Beat up the yolks of three eggs, and put them into a pint and half of new milk made warm; let there be added to this three pennyworth of ſaffron, and three ſpoonfuls of ſalad oil, and let the whole be given with a horn. After this he is to be rubbed well down, and the ſadle place rubbed over with warm ſack, and the places where the ſpurs have touched, with a mixture of urine and ſalt, and afterwards with a mixture of powder of jet and Venice turpentine; after this he ſhould have a feed of rye-bread, then a good maſh, and at ſome time after theſe as much hay and oats as he will eat. His legs after this ſhould be bathed ſometimes with a mixture of urine and ſaltpetre.

RACHITIS, the RICKETS. See MEDICINE, n° 445.

RACK, an engine of torture, furniſhed with pullies, cords, &c. for extorting confeſſion from criminals.

RACK, a ſpirituous liquor made by the Tartars of Tonguſſa. This kind of rack is made of mare's milk, which is left to be ſour, and afterwards diſtilled twice or thrice between two earthen pots cloſely ſtopped; whence the liquor runs through a ſmall wooden pipe. This liquor is more intoxicating than brandy diſtilled from wine.

RACK, or *Arack*. See ARACK.

Various and contradictory accounts have been delivered as to the real ſubject that gives origin to this fine ſpirit. The vulgar ſuppoſe it to be rice; ſome, the juice of the Eaſt Indian ſugar-canes; and others, a mixture of the juice of this cane and of the cocoa tree; finally, ſome affirm, that it is prepared from the fleſh of animals, and other more coſtly ingredients.

The juice of the cocoa-trees and palm-trees is what affords us the fineſt arracks; but there are many other juices diſtilled into the ſame kind of liquors, though

Rack. though wanting the fine flavour of what is made from these.

The manner of making the arrack is this. The juice of the trees is not procured in the way of tapping the trees, as we do: but the operator provides himself with a parcel of earthen pots, with bellies and necks, like our ordinary bird bottles; he makes fast a parcel of these to his girdle, and any way else that he commodiously can about him. Thus equipped, he swarms up the trunk of a cocoa tree; and when he comes to the boughs, he takes out his knife, and cutting off one of the small knots or buttons, he applies the mouth of the bottle to the wound, fastening it to the bough with a bandage; in the same manner he cuts off the other buttons, and fastens on his pots, till the whole number is used: this is done in the evening; and descending from the tree, he leaves things to themselves till the next morning, when climbing up again he takes off the bottles which are mostly filled, and empties the juice into the proper receptacle. This is repeated every night, till there is a sufficient quantity produced; and the whole being then put together, is left to ferment, which it soon does.

When the fermentation is over, and the liquor, or wash, is grown a little tart, it is put into the still; and a fire being made, the still is suffered to work as long as what comes over has any considerable taste of spirit.

The liquor thus procured is the low wine of arrack; and this is so poor a liquor, that it will soon corrupt and spoil, if not distilled again, to separate some of its phlegm: they therefore immediately after pour back this low wine into the still, and rectify it to that very weak kind of proof-spirit, in which state we find it. The arrack we meet with, notwithstanding its being of a proof test, according to the way of judging by the crown of bubbles, holds but a sixth, and sometimes but an eighth part of alcohol, or pure spirit; whereas our other spirits, when they show that proof, are generally esteemed to hold one half pure spirit.

This shows how very uncertain a way of judging of the strength of spirits, this by the bead or bubble is. And we may from this learn, that it would be much better to have the arrack rectified to the pure alcohol in the East Indies, in which case it would be brought over in one sixth or one eighth part of the room, and might be lowered to its standard with common water here; all that it contains, besides this sixth or eighth part of spirit, being only a poor phlegm, or an acidulated water, valuable only for having been brought from Goa or Batavia. It may appear strange to some, that this spirit should be proof according to the way of judging by the bead or bubble, and yet be so far below the strength which we usually understand to be in proof-spirit. But the truth is, that this standing crown of bubbles may be owing only to the tenacity of the oil that is held in the spirit. Our malt-distillers know very well, that the more oil they work over with the spirit, the stronger proof it will hold, at a somewhat weaker standard of strength than it ought to have; and this case of the arrack shows the fallacy of the other. The finer and more subtle any oil is, the less it refuses to mix with any aqueous menstruum: thus we see that the essential oils of some vegetables, or at least some portion of them, is so fine and subtle, as to mix without turning milky, even with water itself, which is the case in many of our simple distilled waters. Hence, it is no wonder, that so subtle an oil as is contained in that thin and dilute vegetable juice of which arrack is made, should readily mix with such a mixture as that of one part alcohol and six or eight of water, which, though weak considered as a spirit, is much more likely to retain and embody an oil than simple water alone. The oil of the cocoa is thus suspended imperceptibly in the spirit; and that in such quantity as to give tenacity to the whole, and thereby dispose it to form a froth or lather at the top when shook, and the bubbles of that froth to hang well together. Sometimes indeed there come over into England, and more frequently into Holland, arracks that are of the strength of brandy and rum: these chiefly come from the Dutch settlements, and are a piece of frugality of the Dutch to save freight: it is a wonder the saving spirit had not gone a little farther, and the method of reducing rack to alcohol been found out on the same plan.

Besides the common sorts of Goa and Batavia arracks, there are two others less generally known; these are the bitter arrack, and the black arrack. The bitter arrack is supposed to have been impregnated with some kind of bezoar, as that of the porcupine or monkey; which being not generated in the stomachs, as those of other animals, but in the gall-bladder, are of a very strongly bitter taste, and very readily communicate it to other things. Some, on the contrary, are of opinion that there is nothing added to this, but that the taste is owing to the juice of the trees from which the arrack is made; and many think that it is obtained from the juice of that tree which bears the fruit whose inspissated juice is what we call *terra Japonica*.

The black arrack is a very coarse spirit; and is usually drawn higher than any of the finer kinds are, being not drank like them, but employed for coarser purposes. The Turkish arrack, or, as it is usually called, *rackee*, seems to be of this kind. The finer and better kinds of arrack, tho' ever so good when put on board, are apt to grow foul and black in the carriage; if the leager or cask in which they are brought over be decayed on the inside, or the liquor come to touch any nails or rusty iron of any kind: for the spirit presently dissolves part of the ferruginous matter; and thence, upon account of the tincture of the oak, which it had before obtained from the wood of the cask, it will appear inky. Arrack, that is thus accidentally tinged black, is not to be confounded with such arrack as is originally black, and of the coarse kind named before. This, which has obtained the colour by accident, is not the worse in taste for it; and the tinge may be taken off, and the liquor recovered, by putting into the cask a large quantity of new or skimmed milk; and working it well about, as the vintners do in order to whiten their brown wines. When the bottoms are large, they are to be committed to a conical filtre of flannel, through which the arrack runs fine. This art of purifying foul arracks with milk, would be very pardonable, if our dealers only

only impoſed that upon us: but they have a ſhameful way of lowering this ſpirit with water, and that to ſuch a degree as is ſcarce credible.

The weakneſs of ſome genuine arracks greatly contributes to the countenancing this cheat. This is the principal deceit uſed in regard to this commodity; for it is not eaſy to find any other ſpirit taſteleſs enough to mix with it, without diſcovering the cheat with us; and in Holland they are not only more deſtitute of clean ſpirits than here, but the price of arrack itſelf is ſo low there, that it is hardly worth while to do it if they had proper materials.

The extravagant price that arrack bears in England, has given great occaſion to the diſtillers to endeavour the counterfeiting it. All the attempts which, for cheapneſs ſake, have been made with malt ſpirit, have naturally proved unſucceſsful: but the thing is not impracticable, though theſe methods have failed. The firſt requiſite muſt be the making a perfectly taſteleſs ſpirit; and the next the treating the juices of vegetables, ſo as to obtain their flavour, to add to it; or elſe the obtaining a pulverable dry ſubſtance, which would at once mix with the ſpirit, and prevent the trouble of a ſecond proceſs of diſtillation. It is poſſible, alſo, that the Engliſh juices of trees which will bleed freely, ſuch as the birch, maple, ſycamore, and the like, may, on proper trials, be found to afford this ſort of ſpirit in ſome degree of perfection.

To RACK *Wines*, &c. To draw them off from their lees, after having ſtood long enough to ebb and ſettle. Hence, rack-vintage is frequently uſed for the ſecond voyage our wine-merchants uſe to make into France for racked wines.

RACKOON, in zoology, a ſpecies of URSUS.

RADCLIFF (Dr John), an Engliſh phyſician of great eminence in his time, born at Wakefield in Yorkſhire in 1650. He was educated at Oxford, and enrolled himſelf upon the phyſical line; but it was remarkable that he recommended himſelf more by his ready wit and vivacity, than by any extraordinary acquiſitions in learning. He began to practiſe at Oxford in 1675: but never paid any regard to eſtabliſhed rules, which he cenſured whenever he thought fit, with great freedom and acrimony; and as this drew all the old practitioners upon him, he lived in a continual ſtate of hoſtility with them. Nevertheleſs, his reputation increaſed with his experience; ſo that before he had been two years in buſineſs, his practice was very extenſive among perſons of high rank. In 1684, he removed to London, and ſettled in Bow-ſtreet Convent Garden, where in leſs than a year he got into prime buſineſs. In 1687, the princeſs Anne of Denmark made him her phyſician: yet when her huſband and ſhe joined the prince of Orange, Radcliffe, either not chooſing to declare himſelf, or unwilling to favour the meaſures then in agitation, excuſed himſelf from attending them, on the plea of the multitude of his patients. Nevertheleſs, he was often ſent for to king William and other great perſonages, though he did not incline to be a courtier. He incurred ſome cenſure for his treatment of Queen Mary, who died of the ſmall-pox; and ſoon after loſt his place about the princeſs Anne, by his attachment to his bottle. He alſo totally loſt the favour of king William by his uncourtly freedom; for, in 1699, when the king ſhewed him his ſwollen ankles, while the reſt of his body was emaciated, and aſked him what he thought of them? "Why truly I would not have your majeſty's two legs for your three kingdoms," replied Radcliffe. He continued increaſing in buſineſs and inſolence as long as he lived, continually at war with his brethren the phyſicians; who conſidered him in no other light than that of an active ingenious empiric, whom conſtant practice had at length brought to ſome degree of ſkill in his profeſſion. He died in 1714; and if he never attempted to write any thing himſelf, has perpetuated his memory by founding a fine library at Oxford to preſerve the writings of other men.

RADIALIS, the name of two muſcles in the arm. See ANATOMY, *Table of the Muſcles*.

RADIANT, in optics, is any point of a viſible object from whence rays proceed.

RADIATED FLOWERS, in botany, are ſuch as have ſeveral ſemiflofcules ſet round a diſk, in form of a radiant ſtar; thoſe which have no ſuch rays are called *diſcous flowers*.

RADIATION, the act of a body emitting or diffuſing rays of light all round as from a centre.

RADICAL, in general, ſomething that ſerves as a baſineſs or foundation. Hence phyſicians talk much of a radical moiſture. In grammar, we give the appellation *radical* to primitives, in contradiſtinction to compounds and derivatives. Algebraiſts alſo ſpeak of the radical ſign of quantities, which is the character expreſſing their roots.

RADICLE, that part of the ſeeds of all plants which upon vegetating becomes their root, and is diſcoverable by the microſcope. See PLANT.

RADISH, in botany. See RAPHANUS.

RADIUS, in geometry, the ſemidiameter of a circle, or a right line drawn from the centre to the circumference.

In trigonometry, the radius is termed the whole ſine, or ſine of 90°. See SINE.

RADIUS, in anatomy, the exterior bone of the arm, deſcending along with the ulna from the elbow to the wriſt.

RADNOR, the county-town of Radnorſhire, in South Wales, ſeated near the ſpring head of the river Somergil, in a pleaſant valley, at the foot of a hill which feeds abundance of ſheep and cattle; and on the top of it was ſeated a caſtle, long ſince in ruins. This town is governed by a capital council, conſiſting of 25 perſons and the recorder, out of whom are choſen yearly a bailiff and two aldermen. It ſends one member to parliament.

RADNORSHIRE, a county of South Wales; its air is very ſharp and piercing, and the ſoil barren without great cultivation, it being mountainous and rocky, eſpecially in the north and weſt parts, which are only fit for feeding cattle. Its extent from eaſt to weſt is 24 miles, and from north to ſouth about 22. It has ſeveral rivers, the chief of which is the Wye. It is bounded on the eaſt by Herefordſhire, on the ſouth and weſt by Brecknockſhire, and on the north by Montgomeryſhire. It has 52 pariſhes and four market-towns; the principal of which is Radnor, the county-town.

RADIX. See ROOT.

RAFT, a ſort of float, formed by an aſſemblage

of various planks, or pieces of timber, faſtened together ſide by ſide, ſo as to be conveyed more commodiouſly to any ſhort diſtance in a harbour or road, than if they were ſeparate. The timber and plank, with which merchant-ſhips are laden, in the different parts of the Baltic ſea, are attached together in this manner, in order to float them off to the ſhipping.

RAFTERS, in building, are pieces of timber, which ſtanding by pairs on the reaſon or railing piece, meet in an angle at the top, and form the roof of a building. See ARCHITECTURE.

RAGMAN's ROLL, Rectius Ragimund's roll, ſo called from one Ragimund a legate in Scotland, who calling before him all the beneficed clergymen in that kingdom, cauſed them on oath to given in *the true value* of their benefices; according to which they were afterwards taxed by the court of Rome: and this roll, among other records, being taken from the Scots by Edward I. was re-delivered to them in the beginning of the reign of Edward III.

RAGOUT, or RAGOO, a ſauce, or ſeaſoning, intended to rouſe the appetite when loſt or languiſhing.

This term is alſo uſed for any high-ſeaſoned diſh prepared of fleſh, fiſh, greens, or the like: by ſtewing them with bacon, ſalt, pepper, cloves, and the like ingredients. We have ragouts of celery, of endive, aſparagus, cock's-combs, giblets, cray-fiſh, &c.

The antients had a ragout called *garum*, made of the putrified guts of a certain fiſh kept till it diſſolved into a mere ſanies, which was thought ſuch a dainty, that, according to Pliny, its price equalled that of the richeſt perfumes.

RAGSTONE, a name given by our artificers to a kind of ſtone, which they uſe for ſetting an edge upon knives, chiſels, and other tools. It is a greyiſh coloured ſtone, containing a large quantity of talcky particles, and ſplits eaſily into thin flakes. It is a ſoft ſtone, and uſed only to finiſh the ſetting an inſtrument after the edge has been prepared by grinding or rubbing the tool upon ſome other ſtone of a coarſer texture. We have this from Newcaſtle, and many other parts in the north of England, where there are large rocks of it in the hills.

RAGULED, or RAGGED, in heraldry, jagged or knotted. This term is applied to a croſs formed of the trunks of two trees without their branches, of which they ſhow only the ſtumps. *Raguled* differs from *indented*, in that the latter is regular, the former not.

RAJA, the title of the Indian black princes, the remains of thoſe who ruled there before the Moguls. Some of the rajas are ſaid to preſerve their independency, eſpecially in the mountainous parts; but moſt of them pay an annual tribute to the Mogul. The Indians call them *rai*; the Perſians *raian*, in the plural; and our travellers *rajas*, or *ragias*.

RAJA, the *Ray-Fiſh*, in ichthyology; a genus belonging to the order of amphibia nantes. There are five ſpiracula below towards the peak; the body compreſſed; and the mouth is ſituated under the head. The moſt remarkable ſpecies are,

1. The batis, or ſkate: this ſpecies is the thinneſt in proportion to its bulk of any of the genus, and alſo the largeſt, ſome weighing near 200 pounds. The noſe, though not long, is ſharp pointed; above the eyes is a ſet of ſhort ſpines: the upper part is of a pale brown, ſometimes ſtreaked with black: the lower part is white, marked with great numbers of minute black black ſpots. The jaws are covered with ſmall granulated but ſharp-pointed teeth. The tail is of a moderate length: near the end are two fins: along the top of it is one row of ſpines, and on the edges are irregularly diſperſed a few others, which makes us imagine with Mr Ray, that in this reſpect theſe fiſh vary, ſome having one, others more orders of ſpines on the tail. It is remarked, that in the males of this ſpecies the fins are full of ſpines. Skates generate in March and April; at which time they ſwim near the ſurface of the water, ſeveral of the males purſuing one female. They adhere ſo faſt together in coition, that the fiſhermen frequently draw up both together, though only one has taken the bait. The females begin to caſt their *purſes*, as the fiſhermen call them (the bags in which the young are included) in May, and continue doing it till September. In October they are exceedingly poor and thin; but in November they begin to improve, and grow gradually better till May, when they are in the higheſt perfection. The males go ſooner out of ſeaſon than the females.

2. The oxyrinchus, or ſharp-noſed ray, in length near ſeven feet, and breadth five feet two inches; when juſt brought on ſhore, it makes a remarkable ſnorting noiſe. The noſe is very long, narrow, and ſharp-pointed, not unlike the end of a ſpontoon. The body is ſmooth, and very thin in proportion to the ſize; the upper part aſh-coloured, ſpotted with numerous white ſpots, and a few black ones. The tail is thick; towards the end are two ſmall fins; on each ſide is a row of ſmall ſpines, with another row in the middle, which run ſome way up the back. The lower part of the fiſh is quite white. The mouth very large, and furniſhed with numbers of ſmall ſharp teeth bending inwards. This fiſh has been ſuppoſed to be the *bos* of the ancients; which was certainly ſome enormous ſpecies of ray, though we cannot pretend to determine the particular kind. Oppian ſtyles it, *the broadeſt among fiſhes*: he adds an account of its ſondneſs of human fleſh, and the method it takes of deſtroying men, by over-laying and keeping them down by its vaſt weight till they are drowned. Phile (*De propriet. anim.* p. 85.) gives much the ſame relation. We are inclined to give them credit, ſince a modern writer, of undoubted authority †, gives the very ſame account of a fiſh found in the South Seas, the terror of thoſe employed in the pearl-fiſhery. It is a ſpecies of ray, called there *manta*, or the *quilt*, from its ſurrounding and wrapping up the unhappy divers, till they are ſuffocated; therefore the negroes never go down, without a ſharp knife to defend themſelves againſt the aſſaults of this terrible enemy.

† *Ulloa's Voyage*, 1. 132.

3. The aſpera, or rough ray, is found in Loch-Broom in Scotland. The length from the noſe to the tip of the tail is two feet nine. The tail is almoſt of the ſame length with the body. Noſe very ſhort. Before each eye is a large hooked ſpine; and behind each another, beſet with leſſer. The upper part of the body is of a cinereous brown mixed with white, and ſpotted with black; and entirely covered with ſmall ſpines. On the tail are three rows of great ſpines: all the

the reſt of the tail is irregularly beſet with leſſer. The fins and under ſide of the body are equally rough with the upper. The teeth are flat, and rhomboidal.

4. The fullonica, or fuller, derives its Latin name from the inſtrument fullers make uſe of in ſmoothing cloth, the back being rough and ſpiney. The noſe is ſhort and ſharp. At the corner of each eye are a few ſpines. The membrane of nictitation is fringed. Teeth ſmall, and ſharp. On the upper part of the pectoral fins are three rows of ſpines pointing towards the back, crooked like thoſe on a fuller's inſtrument. On the tail are three rows of ſtrong ſpines: the middle row reaches up part of the back. The tail is ſlender, and rather longer than the body. The colour of the upper part of the body is cinereous, marked uſually with numerous black ſpots: the lower part is white. This, as well as moſt other ſpecies of rays, vary a little in colour, according to age. This grows to a ſize equal to the ſkate. It is common at Scarborough, where it is called the *white hans*, or *gullet*.

5. The ſhagreen ray increaſes to the ſize of the ſkate; is fond of launces or ſand-eels, which it takes generally as a bait. The form is narrower than that of the common kinds; the noſe long and very ſharp; pupil of the eye ſapphirine; on the noſe are two ſhort rows of ſpines; on the corner of the eyes another of a ſemicircular form; on the tail are two rows, continued a little up the back, ſmall, ſlender, and very ſharp: along the ſides of the tail is a row of minute ſpines, intermixed with innumerable little ſpiculæ. The upper part of the body is of a cinereous brown, covered cloſely with ſhagreen-like tubercles, reſembling the ſkin of the dog-fiſh: the under ſide of the body is white; from the noſe to the beginning of the pectoral fins is a tuberculated ſpace. The teeth ſlender, and ſharp as needles.

6. The torpedo, cramp-fiſh, or electric ray, is frequently taken in Torbay; has been once caught off Pembroke, and ſometimes near Waterford in Ireland. It is generally taken, like other flat fiſh, with the trawl; but there is an inſtance of its taking the bait. It commonly lies in water of about 40 fathoms depth; and in company with the congenerous rays. The torpedo brings forth its young at the autumnal equinox, as affirmed by Ariſtotle. A gentleman of la Rochelle, on diſſecting certain females of this ſpecies, the 10th of September, found in the matrices ſeveral of the fœtuſes quite formed, and nine eggs in no ſtate of forwardneſs: ſuperfœtation ſeems therefore to be a property of this fiſh. The food of the torpedo is fiſh; a ſurmullet and a plaiſe have been found in the ſtomach of two of them. The ſurmullet is a fiſh of that ſwiftneſs, that it was impoſſible for the torpedo to take it by purſuit. It is probable, that by their electric ſtroke they ſtupefy their prey; yet the crab and ſea-leech will venture to annoy them. They will live 24 hours out of the ſea; and but very little longer if placed in freſh water. They inhabit ſandy places; and will bury themſelves ſuperficially in it, by flinging the ſand over, by a quick flapping of all the extremities. It is in this ſituation that the torpedo gives his moſt forcible ſhock, which throws down the aſtoniſhed paſſenger who inadvertently treads upon him. In our ſeas it grows to a great ſize, and above 80 pounds weight. The tail is thick and round; the caudal fin broad and abrupt. The head and body, which are indiſtinct, are nearly round; attenuating to extreme thinneſs on the edges; below the body, the ventral fins form on each ſide a quarter of a circle. The two dorſal fins are placed on a trunk of the tail. The eyes are ſmall, placed near each other: behind each is a round ſpiracle, with ſix ſmall-cutaneous rags on their inner circumference. Mouth ſmall; teeth minute, ſpicular. Five openings to the gills, as in others of this genus. The ſkin every where ſmooth; cinereous brown above, white beneath. See further the article TORPEDO.

7. The clavata, or thornback, is eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the others by the rows of ſtrong ſharp ſpines diſpoſed along the back and tail. In a large one ſeen by Mr Pennant, were three rows on the back, and five on the tail, all inclining towards its end. On the noſe, and on the inner ſide of the forehead, near the eyes, were a few ſpines, and others were ſcattered without any order on the upper part of the pectoral fins. The mouth was ſmall, and filled with granulated teeth. The upper part of the body was of a pale aſh colour, marked with ſhort ſtreaks of black, and the ſkin rough, with ſmall tubercles like ſhagreen. The belly white, croſſed with a ſtrong ſemilunar cartilage beneath the ſkin: in general, the lower part was ſmooth, having only a few ſpines on each ſide. The young fiſh have very few ſpines on them; and their backs are often ſpotted with white, and each ſpot is encircled with black. This ſpecies frequents our ſandy ſhores; are very voracious, and feed on all ſorts of flat fiſh; are particularly fond of herrings and ſand-eels; and ſometimes eat cruſtaceous animals, ſuch as crabs. Theſe ſometimes weigh 14 or 15 pounds, but with us ſeldom exceed that weight. They begin to generate in June, and bring forth their young in July and Auguſt, which (as well as thoſe of the ſkate) before they are old enough to breed, are called *maids*. The thornback begins to be in ſeaſon in November, and continues ſo later than the ſkate, but the young of both are good at all times of the year.

8. The paſtinaca, or ſting ray, does not grow to the bulk of the others: The body is quite ſmooth, of ſhape almoſt round, and is of a much greater thickneſs and more elevated form in the middle than any other rays, but grows thin towards the edges. The noſe is very ſharp pointed, but ſhort; the mouth ſmall, and filled with granulated teeth. The irides are of a gold colour: behind each eye the orifice is very large. The tail is very thick at the beginning: the ſpine is placed about a third the length of the former from the body; is about five inches long, flat on the top and bottom, very hard, ſharp pointed, and the two ſides thin, and cloſely and ſharply bearded the whole way. The tail extends four inches beyond the end of this ſpine, and grows very ſlender at the extremity. Theſe fiſh are obſerved to ſhed their ſpine, and renew them annually; ſometimes the new ſpine appears before the old one drops off; and the Corniſh call this ſpecies *cardinal triloſt*, or *three-tailed*, when ſo circumſtanced. The colour of the upper part of the body is a dirty yellow, the middle part of an obſcure blue: the lower ſide white, the tail and ſpine duſky. The weapon with which nature has armed this fiſh, hath ſupplied the ancients

Raja ‖ Rain.

cients with many tremendous fables relating to it. Pliny, Ælian, and Oppian, have given it a venom that affects even the inanimate creation: trees that are ſtruck by it inſtantly loſe their verdure and periſh, and rocks themſelves are incapable of reſiſting the potent poiſon. The enchantreſs Circe armed her ſon with a ſpear headed with the ſpine of the trygon, as the moſt irreſiſtible weapon ſhe could furniſh him with; and with which he afterwards committed parricide, unintentionally, on his father Ulyſſes. That ſpears and darts might, in very early times, have been headed with this bone inſtead of iron, we have no kind of doubt; that of another ſpecies of this fiſh being ſtill uſed to point the arrows of ſome of the South American Indians, and is, from its hardneſs, ſharpneſs, and beards, a moſt dreadful weapon. But in reſpect to its venomous qualities, there is not the leaſt credit to be given to the opinion, though it was believed (as far as it affected the animal world) by Rondeletius, Aldrovand, and others, and even to this day by the fiſhermen in ſeveral parts of the kingdom. It is in fact the weapon of offence belonging to the fiſh, capable of giving a very bad wound, and which is attended with dangerous ſymptoms when it falls on a tendinous part or on a perſon in a bad habit of body. As to any fiſh having a ſpine charged with actual poiſon, it ſeems very dubious, though the report is ſanctified by the name of Linnæus. He inſtances the *paſtinaca*, the *torpedo*, and the *tetrodon lineatus*. The firſt is incapable of conveying a greater injury than what reſults from the mere wound; the ſecond, from its electric effluvia; and the third, by imparting a pungent pain like the ſting of nettles, occaſioned by the minute ſpines on its abdomen.

RAIETEA, one of the South Sea iſlands, named alſo Ulietea.

RAIL, in ornithology. See Rallus.

RAIN, the deſcent of water from the atmoſphere in the form of drops of a conſiderable ſize. By this circumſtance it is diſtinguiſhed from dew and fog: in the former of which the drops are ſo ſmall that they are quite inviſible; and in the latter, though their ſize is larger, they ſeem to have very little more ſpecific gravity than the atmoſphere itſelf, and may therefore be reckoned hollow ſpherules rather than drops.

It is univerſally agreed, that rain is produced by the water previouſly abſorbed by the heat of the ſun, or otherwiſe, from the terraqueous globe, into the atmoſphere; but very great difficulties occur when we begin to explain why the water, once ſo cloſely united with the atmoſphere, begins to ſeparate from it. We cannot aſcribe this ſeparation to cold, ſince rain often takes place in very warm weather; and though we ſhould ſuppoſe the condenſation owing to the ſuperior cold of the higher regions, yet there is a remarkable fact which will not allow us to have recourſe to this ſuppoſition. It is certain, that the drops of rain increaſe in ſize conſiderably as they deſcend. On the top of a hill, for inſtance, they will be ſmall and inconſiderable, forming only a drizzling ſhower; but at the bottom of the ſame hill the drops will be exceſſively large, deſcending in an impetuous rain; which ſhows that the atmoſphere is diſpoſed to condenſe the vapours, and actually does ſo, as well where it is warm as where it is cold.

For ſome time the ſuppoſitions concerning the cauſe of rain were exceedingly inſufficient and unſatisfactory. It was imagined, that when various congeries of clouds were driven together by the agitation of the winds, they mixed, and run into one body, by which means they were condenſed into water. The coldneſs of the upper parts of the air alſo was thought to be a great means of collecting and condenſing the clouds into water; which, being heavier than the air, muſt neceſſarily fall down through it in the form of rain. The reaſon why it falls in drops, and not in large quantities, was ſaid to be the reſiſtance of the air; whereby being broken, and divided into ſmaller and ſmaller parts, it at laſt arrives to us in ſmall drops. But this hypotheſis is entirely contrary to almoſt all the phenomena: for the weather, when coldeſt, that is, in the time of ſevere froſt, is generally the moſt ſerene; the moſt violent rains alſo happen where there is little or no rain to condenſe the clouds; and the drops of rain, inſtead of being divided into ſmaller and ſmaller ones as they approach the earth, are plainly increaſed in ſize as they deſcend. Rain.

Mr Derham accounted for the precipitation of the drops of rain from the veſiculæ being full of air, and meeting with an air colder than they contained, the air they contained was of conſequence contracted into a ſmaller ſpace; and conſequently the watery ſhell rendered thicker, and thus ſpecifically heavier, than the common atmoſphere. But, under the article Evaporation it has been ſhown, that the veſiculæ, if ſuch they are, of vapour, are not filled with air, but with fire, or heat; and conſequently, till they part with this latent heat, the vapour cannot be condenſed. Now, cold is not always ſufficient to effect this, ſince in the moſt ſevere froſts the air is very often ſerene, and parts with little or none of its vapour for a very conſiderable time. Neither can we admit the winds to have any conſiderable agency in this matter, ſince we find that blowing upon vapour is ſo far from condenſing it, that it unites it more cloſely with the air, and wind is found to be a great promoter of evaporation.

According to Rohault, the great cauſe of rain is the heat of the air; which, after continuing for ſome time near the earth, is raiſed on high by a wind, and there thawing the ſnowy villi or flocks of half-frozen veſiculæ, reduces them to drops; which, coaleſcing, deſcend. Here, however, we ought to be informed by what means theſe veſiculæ are ſuſpended in their half-frozen ſtate; ſince the thawing of them can make but little difference in their ſpecific gravity, and it is certain that they aſcended through the air not in a frozen but in an aqueous ſtate.

Dr Clarke and others aſcribe this deſcent of the rain rather to an alteration of the atmoſphere than of the veſiculæ; and ſuppoſe it to ariſe from a diminution of the elaſtic force of the air. This elaſticity, which, they ſay, depends chiefly or wholly upon terrene exhalations, being weakened, the atmoſphere ſinks under its burden, and the clouds fall. Now, the little veſicles being once upon the deſcent will continue therein, notwithſtanding the increaſe of reſiſtance they every moment meet with. For, as they all tend to the centre of the earth, the farther they fall, the more coalitions they will make; and the more coalitions, the more matter will there be under the ſame ſurface; the ſurface increaſing only as the ſquares, but the

the ſolidity as the cubes; and the more matter under the ſame ſurface, the leſs reſiſtance will there be to the ſame matter. Thus if the cold, wind, &c. act early enough to precipitate the aſcending veſicles before they are arrived at any conſiderable height, the coalitions being but few, the drops will be proportionably ſmall; and thus is formed a dew. If the vapours be more copious, and riſe a little higher, we have a miſt or fog. A little higher ſtill, and they produce a ſmall rain; if they neither meet with cold nor wind, they form a heavy thick dark ſky. This hypotheſis is equally unſatisfactory with the others; for, granting that the deſcent and condenſation of the vapours are owing to a diminution of the atmoſphere's elaſticity, by what is this diminution occaſioned? To ſay that it is owing to terrene exhalations, is only ſolving one difficulty by another; ſince we are totally unacquainted both with the nature and operation of theſe exhalations. Beſides, let us ſuppoſe the cauſe to be what it will, if it acts equally and at once upon all the vapour in the air, then all that vapour muſt be precipitated at once; and thus, inſtead of gentle ſhowers continuing for a conſiderable length of time, we would have the moſt violent water-ſpouts, continuing only for a few minutes, or perhaps ſeconds, which, inſtead of refreſhing the earth, would drown and lay waſte every thing before them.

Since philoſophers have admitted the electric fluid to ſuch a large ſhare in the operations of nature, almoſt all the natural phenomena have been accounted for by the action of that fluid; and rain, among others, has been reckoned an effect of electricity. But this word, unleſs it is explained, makes us no wiſer than we were before; the phenomena of artificial electricity having been explained on principles which could ſcarce apply in any degree to the electricity of nature: and therefore all the ſolution we can obtain of the natural appearances of which we ſpeak comes to this, that rain is occaſioned by a moderate electrification, hail and ſnow by one more violent, and thunder by the moſt violent of all; but in what manner this electrification is occaſioned, hath not yet been explained.—Thoughout the various parts of this work where electricity hath been occaſionally mentioned, the principles of artificial electricity, laid down in the treatiſe appropriated to that ſubject, have been applied to the ſolution of the phenomena of nature; thoſe which are neceſſary to be attended to here, are the following.

1. The electric fluid and ſolar light are the ſame ſubſtance in two different modifications.

2. Electricity is the motion of the fluid when running, or attempting to run, in a continued ſtream from one place to another: heat is when the fluid has no tendency but to vibrate outwards and inwards to and from a centre; or at leaſt when its ſtreams converge to a point or focus.

3. The fluid acting as electricity, like water, or any other fluid, always tends to the place where there is leaſt reſiſtance.

On theſe three principles may the phenomena of atmoſpherical electricity, and the deſcent of rain by its means, be explained as follows.

1. The light or heat of the ſun, acting in that peculiar manner which we call *heat*, unites itſelf with the moiſture of the earth, and forms it into vapour, which thus becomes ſpecifically lighter than air, and of conſequence aſcends in the atmoſphere to a certain height.

2. Beſides the quantity of light which is thus united to the water, and forms it into vapour, a very conſiderable quantity enters the earth, where it aſſumes the nature of electric fluid.

3. As the earth is always full of that fluid, every quantity which enters muſt diſplace an equal quantity which is already there.

4. This quantity which is diſplaced muſt eſcape either at a diſtance from the place where the other enters, or very near it.

5. At whatever place a quantity of electric matter eſcapes, it muſt electrify the air above that place where it has eſcaped; and as a conſiderable quantity of light muſt always be reflected from the earth into the atmoſphere, where it does not combine with the aqueous vapour, we have thence another ſource of electricity to the air; as this quantity muſt undoubtedly aſſume the action of electric fluid, eſpecially after the action of the ſun has ceaſed. Hence the reaſon why in ſerene weather the atmoſpherical electricity is always ſtrongeſt, and rather more ſo in the night than in the day.

6. From theſe conſiderations, we ſee an evident reaſon why there muſt commonly be a difference between the electricity of the earth, and that of the atmoſphere, excepting when an earthquake is about to enſue. The conſequence of this muſt be, that as the action of the ſolar light continues to bring down the electric matter, and the earth continues to diſcharge an equal quantity of it into the atmoſphere, ſome part of the atmoſphere muſt at laſt become overloaded with it, and attempt to throw it back into the earth. This attempt will be vain, until a vent is found for the electricity at ſome other place; and as ſoon as this happens, the electrified atmoſphere begins to throw off its ſuperfluous electricity, and the earth to receive it. As the atmoſphere itſelf is a bad conductor, and the more ſo the drier it is, the electric matter attacks the ſmall aqueous particles which are detained in it by means of the latent heat. Theſe, being unable to bear the impetus of the fluid, throw out their latent heat, which eaſily eſcapes, and thus makes a kind of vacuum in the electrified part of the atmoſphere. The conſequences of this are, that the aqueous particles being driven together in large quantity, at laſt become viſible, and the ſky is covered with clouds; at the ſame time a wind blows againſt theſe clouds, and, if there is no reſiſtance in the atmoſphere, will drive them away.

7. But if the atmoſphere all round the cloud is exceedingly electrified, and the earth is in no condition to receive the ſuperfluous fluid excepting in that place which is directly under the cloud; then the whole electricity of the atmoſphere for a vaſt way round will tend to that part only, and the cloud will be electrified to an extreme degree. A wind will now blow againſt the cloud from all quarters, more and more of the vapour will be extricated from the air by the electric matter, and the cloud will become darker and thicker, at the ſame time that it is in a manner ſtationary, as being acted upon by oppoſite winds;

winds; though its size is enlarged with great rapidity by the continual supplies of vapour brought by the winds.

8. The vapours which were formerly suspended invisibly by means of the latent heat, are now suspended visibly by the electric fluid which will not let them fall to the earth, until it is in a condition to receive the electric matter descending with the rain. It is easy to see, however, that thus every thing is prepared for a violent storm of thunder and lightning as well as rain. The surface of the earth becomes electrified from the atmosphere: but when this has continued for some time, a zone of earth considerably below the surface acquires an electricity opposite to that of the clouds and atmosphere; of consequence the electricity in the the cloud being violently pressed on all sides will at last burst out towards that zone where the resistance is least, as explained under the article LIGHTNING.—The vapours now having lost that which supported them, will fall down in rain, if there is not a sufficient quantity of electric matter to keep them in the same state in which they were before: but if this happens to be the case, the cloud will instantly be charged again, while little or no rain will fall; and hence very violent thunder sometimes takes place without any rain at all, or such as is quite inconsiderable in quantity.

9. When the electricity is less violent, the rain will descend in vast quantity, especially after every flash of lightning; and great quantities of electric matter will thus be conveyed to the earth, insomuch that sometimes the drops have been observed to shine as if they were on fire, which has given occasion to the reports of fiery rain have fallen on certain occasions. If the quantity of electric matter is smaller, so that the rain can convey it all gradually to the ground, there will be rain without any thunder; and the greater the quantity of electricity, the more violent will be the rain.

From this account of the causes of rain, we may see the reason why in warm climates the rains are excessive, and for the most part accompanied with thunder; for there the electricity of the atmosphere is immensely greater than it is with us. We may also see why in certain places, according to the situation of mountains, seas, &c. the rains will be greater than in others, and likewise why some parts of the world are exempted from rain altogether; but as a particular discussion of these would necessarily include an explanation of the causes and phenomena of THUNDER, we shall for this reason refer the whole to be treated of under that article.

Preternatural RAINS. We have numerous accounts, in the historians of our own as well as other countries, of preternatural rains; such as the raining of stones, of dust, of blood, nay, and of living animals, as young frogs, and the like. We are not to doubt the truth of what those who are authors of veracity and credit relates to us of this kind, so far as to suppose that the falling of stones and dust never happened; the whole mistake is, the supposing them to have fallen from the clouds: but as to the blood and frogs, it is very certain that they never fell at all, but the opinion has been a mere deception of the eyes. Men are extremely fond of the marvellous in their relations; but the judicious reader is to examine strictly whatever is reported of this kind, and is not to suffer himself to be deceived.

There are two natural methods by which quantities of stones and dust may fall in certain places, without their having been generated in the clouds or fallen as rain. The one is by means of hurricanes; the wind which we frequently see tearing off the tiles of houses, and carrying them to considerable distances, being equally able to take up a quantity of stones, and drop them again at some other place. But the other, which is much the most powerful, and probably the most usual way, is for the eruptions of volcanoes and burning mountains to toss up, as they frequently do, a vast quantity of stones, ashes, and cinders, to an immense height in the air: and these, being hurried away by the hurricanes and impetuous winds which usually accompany those eruptions, and being in themselves much lighter than common stones as being half calcined, may easily be thus carried to vast distances; and there falling in places where the inhabitants know nothing of the occasion, they cannot but be supposed by the vulgar to fall on them from the clouds. It is well known, that, in the great eruptions of Ætna and Vesuvius, showers of ashes, dust, and small cinders, have been seen to obscure the air, and overspread the surface of the sea for a great way, and cover the decks of ships; and this at such a distance, as it should appear scarce conceivable that they should have been carried to: and probably, if the accounts, of all the showers of these substances mentioned by authors be collected, they will all be found to have fallen within such distances of vulcanoes; and, if compared as to the time of their falling, will be found to correspond in that also with the eruptions of those moutains. We have known instances of the ashes from Vesuvius having been carried thirty, nay, forty leagues, and peculiar acidents may have carried them yet farther. It is not to be supposed that these showers of stones and dust fall for a continuance in the manner of showers of rain, or that the fragments or pieces are as frequent as drops of water; it is sufficient that a number of stones, or a quantity of dust, fall at once on a place, where the inhabitants can have no knowledge of the part from whence they came, and the vulgar will not doubt their dropping from the clouds. Nay, in the canton of Berne in Switzerland, the inhabitants accounted it a miracle that it rained earth and sulphur upon them, at a time that a small volcano terrified them; and even while the wind was so boisterous, and hurricanes so frequent, that they saw almost every moment the dust, sand, and little stones torn up from the surface of the earth in whirlwinds, and carried to a considerable height in the air, they never considered, that both the sulphur thrown up by the vulcano, and the dust, &c. carried from their feet must fall soon after somewhere. It is very certain that in some of the terrible storms of large hail, where the hail-stones have been of many inches round, that on breaking them there have been found what people have called *stones in their middle;* but these observers needed only to have waited the dissolving of one of these hail stones, to have seen the stone in its centre disunite also, it being only formed of the particles of loose earthy matter, which the water, exhaled by the sun's heat, had taken up in extremely small molecule with

Rain. with it; and this only having served to give an opake hue to the inner part of the congelation, to which the freezing of the water alone gave the apparent hardness of stone.

The raining of *blood* has been ever accounted a more terrible sight and a more fatal omen than the other preternatural rains already mentioned. It is very certain that nature forms blood no where but in the vessels of animals, and therefore showers of it from the clouds are by no means to be credited. Those who suppose that what has been taken for blood has been actually seen falling through the air, have had recourse to flying insects for its origin, and suppose it the eggs or dungs of certain butterflies discharged from them as they were high up in the air. But it seems a very wild conjecture, as we know of no butterfly whose excrements, or eggs, are of such a colour, or whose abode is so high, or their flocks so numerous, as to be the occasion of this.

It is most probable that these bloody waters were never seen falling; but that people seeing the standing waters blood-coloured, were assured, from their not knowing how it should else happen, that it had rained blood into them. A very memorable instance of this there was at the Hague in the year 1670. Swammerdam, who relates it, tells us, that one morning the whole town was in an uproar on finding their lakes and ditches full of blood, as they thought; and having been certainly full of water the night before, they agreed it must have rained blood in the night: but a certain physician went down to one of the canals, and taking home a quantity of this blood-coloured water, he examined it by the microscope, and found that the water was water still, and had not at all changed its colour; but that it was full of prodigious swarms of small red animals, all alive, and very nimble in their motions, whose colour and prodigious number gave a red tinge to the whole body of the water they lived in, on a less accurate inspection. The certainty that this was the case, did not however persuade the Hollanders to part with the miracle: they prudently concluded, that the sudden appearance of such a number of animals was as great a prodigy as the raining of blood would have been; and are assured to this day, that this portent foretold the scene of war and destruction which Lewis XIV. afterwards brought into that country, which had before enjoyed 40 years uninterrupted peace.

The animals which thus colour the water of lakes and ponds, are the *pulices arborescentes* of Swammerdam, or the water-fleas with branched horns. These creatures are of a reddish-yellow or flame colour: they live about the sides of ditches, under weeds, and among the mud; and are therefore the less visible, except at a certain time, which is in the end or beginning of June: it is at this time that these little animals leave their recesses to float loose about the water, to meet for the propagation of their species, and by that means become visible in the colour they give the water. This is visible, more or less, in one part or other of almost all standing waters at this season; and it is always at this season that the bloody waters have alarmed the ignorant.

The raining of *frogs* is a thing not less wonderful in the accounts of authors who love the marvellous, than those of blood or stones; and this is supposed to happen so often, that there are multitudes who pretend to have been eye-witnesses of it. These rains of frogs always happens after very dry seasons, and are much more frequent in the hotter countries than in the cold ones. In Italy they are very frequent; and it is not uncommon to see the streets of Rome swarming both with young frogs and toads in an instant, in a shower of rain; they hopping every where between the people's legs as they walk, though there was not the least appearance of them before. Nay, they have been seen to fall through the air down upon the pavements. This seems a strong circumstance in favour of their being rained down from the clouds; but, when strictly examined, it comes to nothing: for these frogs that are seen to fall, are always found dead, lamed, or bruised by the fall, and never hop about as the rest; and they are never seen to fall, except close under the walls of houses, from the roofs and gutters of which they have accidentally slipped down. People, who love to add to strange things yet stranger, affirm that people have had the young frogs fall into their hats in the midst of an open field; but this is idle, and wholly false.

People, who cannot agree to their falling from the clouds, have tried to solve the difficulty of their sudden appearance, by supposing them hatched out of the egg, or spawn, by these rains. Nay, some have supposed them made immediately out of the dust; but there are unanswerable arguments against all these suppositions. Equivocal generation, or the spontaneous production of animals out of dust, is now wholly exploded. The fall from the clouds must destroy and kill these tender and soft-bodied animals: and they cannot be at this time hatched immediately out of eggs; because the young frog does not make its appearance from the egg in this form, but has its hinder legs enveloped in a skin, and is what we call a *tadpole*; and the young frogs are at least 100 times larger at the time of their appearance, than the egg from which they should be hatched.

It is a certainty, that the frogs, which make their appearance at this time, were hatched and in being long before: but that the dry seasons had injured them, and kept them sluggishly in holes, or coverts; and that all the rain does, is the enlivening them, giving new spirits, and calling them forth to seek new habitations, and enjoy the element they were destined in great part to live in. Theophrastus, the greatest of all the naturalists of antiquity, has affirmed the same thing. We find that the error of supposing these creatures to fall from the clouds was as early as that author's time; and also that the truth, in regard to their appearance, was as early known; though, in the ages since, authors have taken care to conceal the truth, and to hand down to us the error. We find this venerable sage, in a fragment of his on the generation of animals which appear on a sudden, bantering the opinion, and asserting that they were hatched and living long before. The world owes, however, to the accurate Signior Redi the great proof of this truth, which Theophrastus only has affirmed: for this gentleman, dissecting some of these new-appearing frogs, found in their stomachs herbs and other half-digested food, and, openly showing this to his credulous countrymen,

Rain. asked them whether they thought that nature, which engendered, according to their opinion, these animals in the clouds, had also been so provident as to engender grass there also for their food and nourishment.

To the raining of frogs we ought to add the raining of *grasshoppers* and *locusts*, which have sometimes appeared in prodigious numbers, and devoured the fruits of the earth. There has not been the least pretence for the supposing that these animals descended from the clouds, but that they appeared on a sudden in prodigious numbers. The naturalist, who knows the many accidents attending the eggs of these and other the like animals, cannot but know that some seasons will prove particularly favourable to the hatching them, and the prodigious number of eggs that many insects lay could not but every year bring us such abundance of the young, were they not liable to many accidents, and had not provident nature taken care, as in many plants, to continue the species by a very numerous stock of seeds, of which perhaps not one in 500 need take root in order to continue an equal number of plants. As it is thus also in regard to insects, it cannot but happen, that if a favourable season encourage the hatching of all those eggs, a very small number of which alone were necessary to continue the species, we must, in such seasons, have a proportionate abundance of them. There appeared about 40 years ago, in London, such a prodigious swarm of the little beetle we call the *lady-cow*, that the very posts in the streets were every where covered with them. But thanks to the progress of philosophy among us, we had no body to assert that it rained cow-ladies, but contented ourselves with saying that it had been a favourable season for their eggs. The prodigious number of a sort of grub which did vast mischief about the same period among the corn and grass by eating off their roots, might also have been supposed to proceed from its having rained grubs by people fond of making every thing a prodigy; but our knowledge in natural history assured us, that these were only the hexapode worms of the common hedge-beetle called the *cock-chafer*.

The raining of *fishes* has been a prodigy also much talked of in France, where the streets of a town at some distance from Paris, after a terrible huricane in the night, which tore up trees, blew down houses, &c. were found in a manner covered with fishes of various sizes. Nobody here made any doubt of these having fallen from the clouds; nor did the absurdity of fish, of five or six inches long, being generated in the air, at all startle the people, or shake their belief in the miracle, till they found, upon inquiry, that a very well-stocked fish-pond, which stood on an eminence in the neighbourhood, had been blown dry by the hurricane, and only the great fish left at the bottom of it, all the smaller fry having been tossed into their streets.

Upon the whole, all the supposed marvellous rains have been owing to substances naturally produced on the earth, and either never having been in the air at all, or only carried thither by accident.

In Silesia, after a great dearth of wheat in that country, there happened a violent storm of wind and rain, and the earth was afterwards covered, in many places, with small round seeds. The vulgar cried out that Providence had sent them food, and that it had rained *millet*: but these were, in reality, only the feeds of a species of veronica, or speed-well, very common in that country; and whose feeds being just ripe at that time, the wind had dislodged them from their capsules, and scattered them about. In our own country, we have histories of rains of this marvellous kind, but all fabulous. It was once said to rain *wheat* in Wiltshire, and the people were all alarmed at it as a miracle; till Mr Cole showed them, that what they took for wheat was only the seeds or kernels of the berries of ivy, which being then fully ripe, the wind had dislodged from the sides of houses, and trunks of trees, on which the ivy which produced them crept. Rainbow, Raisins.

And we even once had a raining of fishes near the coast of Kent in a terrible hurricane, with thunder and lightening. The people who saw small sprats strewed all about afterwards, would have it that they had fallen from the clouds; but those who considered how far the high winds have been known to carry the sea-water, did not wonder that they should be able to carry small fish with it so small a part of the way.

RAINBOW. See Optics, Part III. sect 1. § 1.

Lunar Rainbow. The moon sometimes also exhibits the phenomenon of an iris, by the refraction of her rays in drops of rain in the night-time.

Aristotle says, he was the first that ever observed it; and adds, that it is never visible but at the time of full moon.

The lunar iris has all the colours of the solar, only fainter.

Marine Rainbow, the *Sea-bow*, is a phenomenon sometimes observed in a much agitated sea, when the wind, sweeping part of the tops of the waves, carries them aloft; so that the rays of the sun are refracted, &c. as in a common shower.

RAISINS, grapes prepared by suffering them to remain on the vine till they are perfectly ripe, and then drying them in the sun, or by the heat of an oven. The difference between raisins dried in the sun, and those dried in ovens, is very obvious: the former are sweat and pleasant; but the latter have a latent acidity with the sweetness, that renders them much less agreeable.

The common way of drying grapes for raisins, is to tie two or three bunches of them together while yet on the vine, and dip them into a hot lixivium of wood-ashes, with a little of the oil of olives in it. This disposes them to shrink and wrinkle, and after this they are left on the vine three or four days separated on sticks in an horizontal situation, and then dried in the sun at leisure, after being cut from the tree. The finest and best raisins are those called in some places *Damascus* and *Jube raisins*; which are distinguished from the others by their size and figures: they are flat and wrinkled on the surface, soft and juicy within, and near an inch long; and, when fresh and growing on the bunch, are of the size and shape of a large olive.

The raisins of the sun, and jar-raisins, are all dried by the heat of the sun; and these are the sorts used in medicine. However, all the kinds have much the same virtues: they are all nutritive and balsamic; they are allowed to be attenuant, are said to be good in nephritic complaints, and are an ingredient in pectoral decoctions; in which cases, as also in all others where

Raisin || Raleigh.

where astringency is not required of them, they should have the stones carefully taken out.

RAISIN-*Wine*. See WINE.

RAKKATH, (anc. geog.) a town of Upper Galilee, thought to be Tiberias, (Talmud): but this is denied by Reland, who says that Rakkath was a town of the tribe of Naphthali.

RAKE *of a* SHIP, is all that part of her hull which hangs over both ends of her keel. That which is before is called the *fore-rake*, or *rake forward*; and that part which is at the setting on of the stern-post is called the *rake aft*, or *afterward*.

RALEIGH (Sir Walter), of Fardel in the parish of Cornwood in Devonshire, was born in 1552, at Hayes, in the parish of Budley, a farm belonging to his father. About the year 1568, he was sent to Oriel college in Oxford, where he continued but a short time; for in the following year he embarked for France, being one of the hundred volunteers, commanded by Henry Champernon, who, with other English troops, were sent by queen Elisabeth to assist the queen of Navarre in defending the Protestants. In this service he continued for five or six years; after which he returned to London, and probably resided in the Middle Temple. But his enterprising genius would not suffer him to remain long in a state of inactivity. In 1577 or 1578, he embarked for the Low Countries with the troops sent by the queen to assist the Dutch against the Spaniards, and probably shared the glory of the decisive victory over Don John of Austria in 1578. On his return to England, a new enterprise engaged his attention. His half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, having obtained a patent to plant and inhabit some parts of North America, Mr Raleigh embarked in this adventure; but, meeting with a Spanish fleet, after a smart engagement they returned, without success, in 1579.

The following year, the king of Spain, in conjunction with the pope, having projected a total conquest of the English dominions, sent troops to Ireland to assist the Desmonds in the Munster rebellion. Raleigh obtained a captain's commission under Lord Grey of Wilton, then deputy of Ireland, and embarked for that kingdom; where, by his conduct and resolution, he was principally instrumental in putting an end to the rebellious attempt. He returned to England; and attracted the notice of queen Elisabeth, on the following occasion, as we are told in Naunton's *Fragmenta Regalia*. It seems, as the queen was one day taking a walk, being stopped by a *splashy* place in the road, our gallant young soldier took off his new plush mantle, and spread it on the ground. Her majesty trod gently over the fair foot-cloth, surprised and pleased with the adventure.

The queen employed him first as an attendant on the French ambassador Simier on his return home, and afterward to escort the duke of Anjou to Antwerp. During this excursion he became personally known to the prince of Orange; from whom, at his return, he brought special acknowledgments to the queen, who now frequently conversed with him. But the inactive life of a courtier did not suit the enterprising spirit of Mr Raleigh. In the year 1583, he embarked with his brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, on a second expedition to Newfoundland, in a ship called the *Raleigh*, which he built at his own expence; but was obliged to return, on account of an infectious distemper on board. He was, however, so little affected by this disappointment, that he now laid before the queen and council a proposal for exploring the continent of North America, and in 1584 obtained a patent empowering him to possess such countries as he should discover in that part of the globe. Accordingly Mr Raleigh fitted out two ships at his own expence, which sailed in the month of April, and returned to England about the middle of September, reporting that they had discovered and taken possession of a fine country called *Windangocoa*, to which the queen gave the name of *Virginia*. About this time he was elected knight of the shire for the county of Devon, and soon after received the honour of knighthood; and to enable him to carry on his designs abroad, the queen granted him a patent for licensing the venders of wine throughout the kingdom. In 1685 he sent a fleet of seven ships to Virginia, commanded by his relation Sir Richard Greenville, who left a colony at Roanah of 107 persons, under the government of Mr Lane. In the same year Sir Walter Raleigh obtained a grant of 12,000 acres of the forfeited lands in the county of Corke in Ireland. About the same time he was made seneschal of the duchy of Cornwal, and warden of the stannaries; and grew into such favour with the queen, that even Leicester was jealous of his influence.

In 1587, he sent another colony of 150 men to Virginia, with a governor, Mr John White, and 12 assistants. About this time we find our knight distinguished by the titles of *Captain of the queen's guards*, and *Lieutenant-general of Cornwal*. From this period to the year 1594, he was continually engaged in projecting new expeditions, sending succours to colonies abroad, defending the kingdom from the insults of the Spaniards, and transacting parliamentary business, with equal ability and resolution. Whilst thus employed, he was publicly charged, in a libel written by the infamous Jesuit Parsons, with being an Atheist; a groundless and ridiculous imputation. In 1594, he obtained from the queen a grant of the manor of Sherborne in Dorsetshire, where he built a magnificent house: but Sir Walter fell under the queen's displeasure on account of an intrigue with the daughter of Sir Nicholas Throgmorton, one of the maids of honour; however, he married the lady, and lived with her in great conjugal harmony. During his disgrace at court, he projected the conquest of Guiana in South America, and in 1595 sailed for that country; of which having taken possession, after defeating the Spaniards who were settled there, he returned to England the same year, and soon after published an account of his expedition. In the following year he was one of the admirals in the successful expedition against Cadiz, under the command of Howard and the earl of Essex; and in 1597 he sailed with the same commanders against the Azores. Soon after these expeditions, we find him assiduously engaged in parliamentary business, and a distinguished personage in jousts and tournaments. In 1600 he was sent on a joint embassy with Lord Cobham to Flanders, and at his return made governor of Jersey.

Queen Elisabeth died in the beginning of the year 1603; and with her Raleigh's glory and felicity sunk, never to rise again. Her successor James was an enemy to every species of virtue and heroism. He was scarce

Raleigh, Rallus.

ſcarce ſeated on the throne, before this valuable ſubject was ſtripped of his preferments, tried, and condemned for high treaſon: but after a month's impriſonment, in daily expectation of his execution, he was reprieved, and ſent to the Tower; and his eſtates were given to Car, earl of Somerſet, the king's favourite. During this confinement he wrote many of his moſt valuable pieces, particularly his Hiſtory of the World. In March 1615, after 16 years impriſonment, he obtained his liberty, and immediately began to prepare for another voyage to Guiana. In Auguſt 1616, the king granted him a very ample commiſſion for that purpoſe; and in July, the year following, he ſailed from Plymouth: but, ſtrange as it may appear, it is moſt certain, that the whole ſcheme was revealed to the Spaniards by the king himſelf, and thus neceſſarily rendered abortive.

He returned to England in 1618; where he was ſoon after ſeized, impriſoned, and beheaded, not for any pretended miſdemeanor on the late expedition, but in conſequence of his former attainder. The truth of the matter is, he was ſacrificed by the puſillanimous monarch to appeaſe the Spaniards; who, whilſt Raleigh lived, thought every part of their dominions in danger. He was executed in Old Palace Yard, and buried in St Margaret's adjoining, in the 66th year of his age. He was a man of admirable parts, extenſive knowledge, undaunted reſolution, and ſtrict honour and honeſty. He was the author of a great many works, ſome of which have not been printed.

RALLUS, the Rail, in ornithology; a genus belonging to the order of grallæ. The beak is thickeſt at the baſe, compreſſed, equal, acute, and ſomewhat ſharp on the back near the point; the noſtrils are oval; the feet have four toes, without any web; and the body is compreſſed. There are 10 ſpecies, principally diſtinguiſhed by their colour. The moſt remarkable are,

1. The aquaticus, or water-rail, is a bird of a long ſlender body, with ſhort concave wings. It delights leſs in flying than running; which it does very ſwiftly along the edges of brooks covered with buſhes: as it runs, it every now and then ſirts up its tail, and in flying hangs down its legs; actions it has in common with the water-hen. Its weight is four ounces and a half. The length to the end of the tail is 12 inches: the breadth 16. The bill is ſlender, ſlightly incurvated, one inch three quarters long: the upper mandible black, edged with red; the lower, orange-coloured: the head, hind part of the neck, the back, and coverts of the wings and tail, are black, edged with an olive brown; the throat, breaſt, and upper part of the belly, are aſh-coloured: the ſides under the wings as far as the rump, finely varied with black and white bars. The tail is very ſhort, conſiſts of 12 black feathers; the ends of the two middle tipt with ruſt colour; the feathers immediately beneath the tail white. The legs are placed far behind, and are of a duſky fleſh-colour. The toes very long, and divided to their very origin; though the feet are not webbed, it takes the water; will ſwim on it with much eaſe, but is often obſerved to run along the ſurface.

2. The porzana, or gallinule, is not very frequent in Great Britain, and is ſaid to be migratory. Inhabits the ſides of ſmall ſtreams, concealing itſelf among the buſhes. Its length is nine inches; its breadth, 15: its weight, four ounces five drachms. The head is brown, ſpotted with black; the neck a deep olive, ſpotted with white: the feathers of the back are black next their ſhafts, then olive-coloured, and edged with white: the ſcapulars are olive, finely marked with two ſmall white ſpots on each web: the legs of a yelloweſt green.

3. The crex, crake, or corn-crek, has been ſuppoſed by ſome to be the ſame with the water-rail, and that it differs only by a change of colour at a certain ſeaſon of the year: this error is owing to inattention to their characters and nature, both which differ entirely. The bill of this ſpecies is ſhort, ſtrong, and thick; formed exactly like that of the water-hen, and makes a generical diſtinction. It never frequents watery places; but is always found among corn, graſs, broom, or furze. It quits the kingdom before winter; but the water-rail endures our ſharpeſt ſeaſons. They agree in their averſion to flight; and the legs, which are remarkably long for the ſize of the bird, hang down whilſt they are on the wing; they truſt their ſafety to their ſwiftneſs on foot, and ſeldom are ſprung a ſecond time but with great difficulty. The land rail lays from 12 to 20 eggs, of a dull white colour, marked with a few yellow ſpots; notwithſtanding this, they are very numerous in this kingdom. Their note is ſingular, reſembling the word *crex* often repeated. They are in greateſt plenty in Angleſea, where they appear about the 20th of April, ſuppoſed to paſs over from Ireland, where they abound: at their firſt arrival it is common to ſhoot ſeven or eight in a morning. They are found in moſt of the Hebrides, and the Orkneys. On their arrival they are very lean, weighing only ſix ounces; but before they leave this iſland, grow ſo fat as to weigh above eight. The feathers on the crown of the head and hind-part of the neck, are black, edged with bay colour: the coverts of the wings of the ſame colour, but not ſpotted; the tail is ſhort, and of a deep bay: the belly white; the legs aſh-coloured.

RALPH (James), a late ingenious hiſtorical and political writer, was born, we know not when nor where, being firſt known as a ſchool-maſter in Philadelphia in North America. He came to England about the beginning of the reign of George I. and wrote ſome things in the dramatic way, which were not received with great applauſe: but though he did not ſucceed as a poet, he was a very ingenious proſe-writer. He wrote A Hiſtory of England, commencing with the Stuarts, which is much eſteemed; as were his political eſſays and pamphlets, ſome of which were looked upon as maſter-pieces. His laſt publication, The Caſe of Authors by profeſſion, is an excellent and entertaining performance. He died in 1762.

RAM, in zoology. See Ovis.

Battering Ram, in antiquity, a military engine uſed to batter down the walls of beſieged places. See Battering *Ram*.

Ram's *Head*, in a ſhip, is a great block belonging to the fore and main halliards. It has three ſhives in it, in which the halliards are put; and in a hole at the end are reeved the ties.

Rallus || Ramadan.

RAMADAN, a ſolemn ſeaſon of faſting among the Mahometans. See Mahometanism.

RA-

Ramah || Rampant.

RAMAH (anc. geog.), a town of Benjamin, near Gibea, (Judges); called *Rama of Saul* (1 Sam. xxii.), six miles from Jerusalem to the north; memorable for the story of the Levite and his concubine: Taken and fortified by Baasa king of Israel, in order to annoy the kingdom of Judah. This Rama is mentioned Isa. x. Jer. xxxi. and Matth. ii. and is to be distinguished from *Rama of Samuel*, 1 Sam. xix. called also *Ramatha*, 1 Sam. i. 19. and *Ramathaim Zophim*, ibid. i. 1. which lay a great way to the west, towards Joppa, near Lydda, 1 Maccab. ii. the birth-place of Samuel; adjoining to the mountains of Ephraim, and the place of his residence, 1 Sam. xv. &c. (Josephus.) Called *Ramula* in the lower age, (Gul. Tyrius.)

RAMATH-MIZPE, (Joshua xiii.); *Ramoth-Masphe*, (Septuagint, Vulgate); *Ramoth in Gilead*, or *Remmath Galaad*, (Seventy); a town in that tract of Gilead called *Masphe*, or *Mizpe*, one of the cities of refuge.

RAMAZZINI (Bernardin), an Italian physician, born at Carpi near Modena in 1633. He was professor of physic in the university of Modena for 18 years; and in 1700 accepted an invitation from Padua, where he was made rector of the college; and died in 1714. His works were collected and published in London, 1716; of which, his treatise *De Morbis Artificum*, "Of the peculiar maladies of artificers," will always be esteemed useful and curious.

RAMESES, (anc. geog.); a town built by the Israelites during their bondage in Egypt, and from which the exodus took place, and which must have been towards and not far from the Arabian Gulph, seeing in the third station the Israelites arrived on its shore.

RAMESES, king of the Lower Egypt when Jacob went thither with his family, in the 1706th year before the Christian æra. Ancient authors mention several other kings of Egypt of the same name; and it is thought that one of those princes erected in the temple of the sun at Thebes, the magnificent obelisk which the emperor Constantine caused to be removed to Alexandria in the year 334, and that prince dying, his son Constantius had the obelisk transported from Alexandria to Rome in 352, where it was erected in the grand Circus. Its height was 132 feet. When the Goths sacked the city of Rome in 409, they overthrew this obelisk, which continued buried in the sand till the time of Sixtus V. in 1587, when it was found broken in three pieces, which being joined together, set up in the square of St John de Lateran. On the four sides of this wonderful obelisk are a number of figures and hieroglyphical characters, which, according to the explication of Ammianus Marcellinus, contain the praises of Rameses.

RAMIFICATION, the production of boughs or branches, or of figures resembling branches.

RAMMER, an instrument used for driving down stones or piles into the ground; or for beating the earth, in order to render it more solid for a foundation.

RAMMER *of a Gun*, the *Gun-stick*; a rod used in charging of a gun, to drive home the powder, as also the shot, and the wad, which keeps the shot from rolling out.

RAMPANT, in heraldry, a term applied to a lion, leopard, or other beast that stands on its hind legs, and rears up his fore-feet in the posture of climbing, showing only half his face, as one eye, &c. It is different from faliant, in which the beast seems springing forward as if making a sally.

Rampart, Ramphastos.

RAMPART, in fortification, is an elevation of earth round a place capable of resisting the cannon of an enemy; and formed into bastions, curtins, &c.

RAMPHASTOS, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of picæ. The bill is very large, convex, and serrated outwardly; the nostrils are situated behind the base of the beak; the feet in most species are toed. There are eight species; of which the most remarkable is the toucan, whose bill is almost as large as the rest of its body. There are four or five varieties, but we shall only describe that which has a red beak. This is about the size of a jack-daw, and shaped like that bird, with a large head to support its monstrous bill: this bill, from the angles of the mouth to its point, is six inches and an half; and its breadth, in the thickest part, is a little more than two. Its thickness near the head, is one inch and a quarter; and it is a little rounded along the top of the upper chap, the under side being round also; the whole of the bill extremely slight, and a little thicker than parchment. The upper chap is of a bright yellow, except on each side, which is of a fine scarlet colour; as is also the lower chap, except at the base, which is purple. Between the head and the bill there is a black line of separation all round the base of the bill; in the upper part of which the nostrils are placed, and are almost covered with feathers; which has occasioned some writers to say, that the toucan has no nostrils. Round the eyes, on each side of the head, is a space of bluish skin, void of feathers; above which the head is black, except a white spot on each side joining to the base of the upper chap. The hinder part of the neck, the back, wings, tail, belly, and thighs, are black. The under side of the head, throat, and the beginning of the breast, are white. Between the white on the breast, and the black on the belly, is a space of red feathers, in the form of a new moon, with its horns upwards. The legs, feet, and claws, are of an ash-colour; and the toes stand like those of parrots, two before, and two behind.

Pl. CCLIV. fig. 8.

It is reported by travellers, that this bird, though furnished with so formidable a beak, is harmless and gentle, being so easily made tame, as to sit and hatch its young in houses. It feeds chiefly upon pepper, which it devours very greedily, gorging itself in such a manner, that it voids it crude and unconcocted. This, however, is no objection to the natives from using it again: they even prefer it before that pepper which is fresh gathered from the tree; and seem persuaded that the strength and heat of the pepper is qualified by the bird, and that all its noxious qualities are thus exhausted.

Whatever be the truth of this report, nothing is more certain than that the toucan lives only upon a vegetable diet; and, in a domestic state, to which it is frequently brought in the warm countries where it is bred, it is seen to prefer such food to all other. Pozzo, who bred one tame, asserts, that it leaped up and down, wagged the tail, and cried with a voice resembling that of a magpie. It fed upon the same things

Ramphastos, Ramsden's.

things that parrots do; but was most greedy of grapes, which, being plucked off one by one, and thrown in the air, it would most dexterously catch before they fell to the ground. Its bill, he adds, was hollow, and upon that account very light, so that it had but little strength in so apparently formidable a weapon; nor could it peck or strike smartly therewith. But its tongue seemed to assist the efforts of this unwieldy machine: it was long, thin, and flat, not unlike one of the feathers on the neck of a dunghill cock; this it moved up and down, and often extended five or six inches from the bill. It was of a flesh colour, and remarkably fringed on each side with very small filaments, exactly resembling a feather.

It is probable that this long tongue has greater strength than the thin hollow beak that contains it. It is likely that the beak is only a kind of sheath for this peculiar instrument, used by the toucan, not only in making itself a nest, but also in obtaining its provision. Nothing is more certain, than that this bird builds its nest in holes of trees, which have been previously scooped out for this purpose; and it is not very likely that so feeble a bill could be very serviceable in working upon such hard materials.

Be this as it will, there is no bird secures its young better from external injury than the toucan. It has not only birds, men, and serpents, to guard against; but a numerous tribe of monkeys, still more prying, mischievous, and hungry, than all the rest. The toucan, however, scoops out its nest into the hollow of some tree, leaving only a hole large enough to go in and out at. There it sits, with its great beak, guarding the entrance; and, if the monkey ventures to offer a visit of curiosity, the toucan gives him such a welcome, that he presently thinks proper to pack off, and is glad to escape with safety.

This bird is only found in the warm climates of South America, where it is in great request, both for the delicacy of its flesh, which is tender and nourishing, and for the beauty of its plumage, particularly the feathers of the breast. The skin of this part the Indians pluck off, and, when dry, glue to their cheeks; and this they consider as an irresistible addition to their beauty.

RAMSDEN's ENGINE *for Dividing* MATHEMATICAL INSTRUMENTS, is a late invention by which these divisions can be performed with exceeding great accuracy, such as would formerly have been deemed incredible. On a discovery of the method of constructing this machine, its inventor, Mr Ramsden of Piccadilly, received 615 l. from the commissioners of longitude; engaging himself to instruct a certain number of persons, not exceeding ten, in the method of making and using this machine from the 28th October 1775, to 28th October 1777: also binding himself to divide all octants and sextants by the same engine, at the rate of three shillings for each octant, and six shillings for each brass sextant, with Nonius's divisions to half minutes, for as long time as the commissioners should think proper to let the engine remain in his possession. Of this sum of 615 l. paid to Mr Ramsden, 300 l. was given him as a reward for the improvement made by him in discovering the engine, and the remaining 315 l. for his giving up the property of it to the commissioners. The following description of the engine, is that given upon oath by Mr Ramsden himself.

Ramsden's Engine.

"This engine consists of a large wheel of bell-metal, supported on a mahogany stand, having three legs, which are strongly connected together by braces, so as to make it perfectly steady. On each leg of the stand is placed a conical friction-pully, whereon the dividing-wheel rests: to prevent the wheel from sliding off the friction-pullies, the bell-metal centre under it turns in a socket on the top of the stand.

"The circumference of the wheel is ratched or cut (by a method which will be described hereafter) into 2160 teeth, in which an endless screw acts. Six revolutions of the screw will move the wheel a space equal to one degree.

"Now a circle of brass being fixed on the screw arbor, having its circumference divided into 60 parts, each division will consequently answer to a motion of the wheel of 10 seconds, six of them will be equal to a minute, &c.

"Several different arbors of tempered steel are truly ground into the socket in the centre of the wheel. The upper parts of the arbors that stand above the plane are turned of various sizes, to suit the centres of different pieces of work to be divided.

"When any instrument is to be divided, the centre of it is very exactly fitted on one of these arbors; and the instrument is fixed down to the plane of the dividing wheel by means of screws, which fit into holes made in the radii of the wheel for that purpose.

"The instrument being thus fitted on the plane of the wheel, the frame which carries the dividing-point is connected at one end by finger-screws with the frame which carries the endless screw; while the other end embraces that part of the steel arbor, which stands above the instrument to be divided, by an angular notch in a piece of hardened steel: by this means both ends of the frame are kept perfectly steady and free from any shake.

"The frame carrying the dividing-point or tracer, is made to slide on the frame which carries the endless screw to any distance from the centre of the wheel as the radius of the instrument to be divided may require, and may be there fastened by tightening two clamps; and the dividing-point or tracer being connected with the clamps by the double jointed frame, admits a free and easy motion towards or from the centre for cutting the divisions, without any lateral shake.

"From what has been said, it appears, that an instrument thus fitted on the dividing-wheel may be moved to any angle by the screw and divided circle on its arbor, and that this angle may be marked on the limb of the instrument with the greatest exactness by the dividing-point or tracer, which can only move in a direct line tending to the centre, and is altogether freed from those inconveniences that attend cutting by means of a straight edge. This method of drawing lines will also prevent any error that might arise from an expansion or contraction of the metal during the time of dividing.

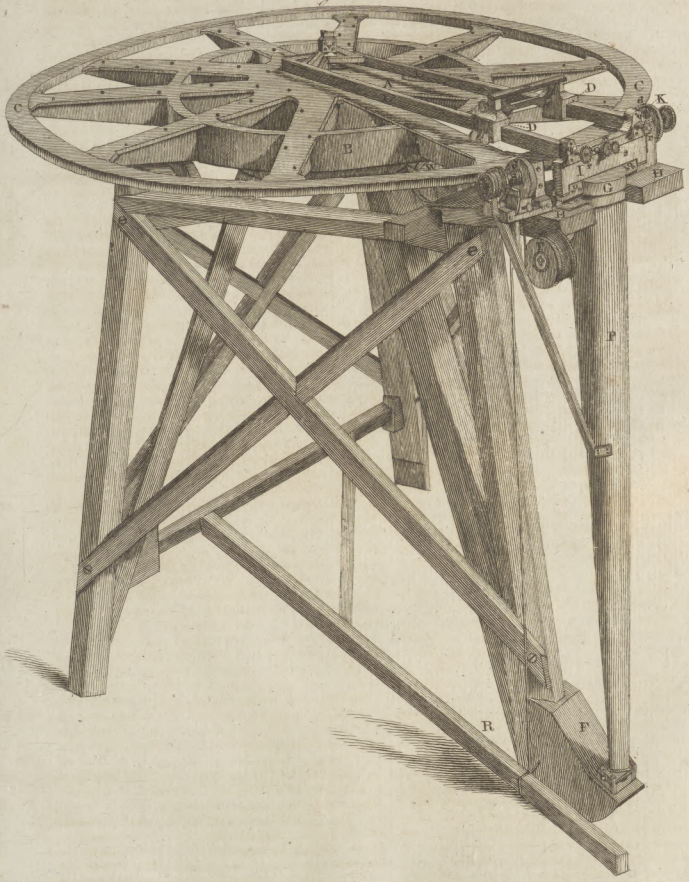
"The screw frame is fixed on the top of a conical pillar, which turns freely round its axis, and also moves freely towards or from the centre of the wheel, so that the screw-frame may be entirely guided by the frame which connects it with the centre: by this means any excentricity of the wheel and the arbor would not pro-

RAMSDENS Machine

for dividing Mathimatical Instruments

Fig. 1.

Plate CCLV



A Bell Sculpt.

RAMSDEN'S *Engine*

Fig. 2.

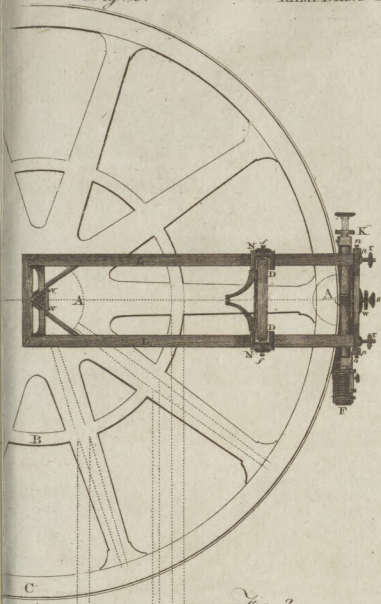


Fig. 4

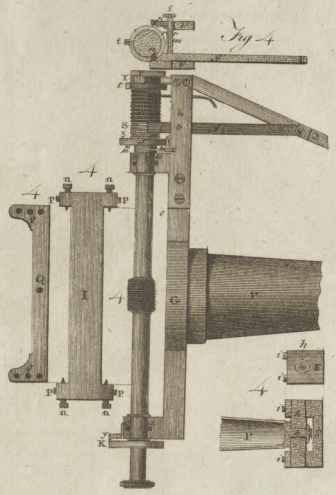


Fig. 3.

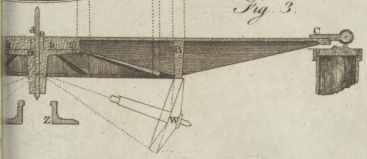
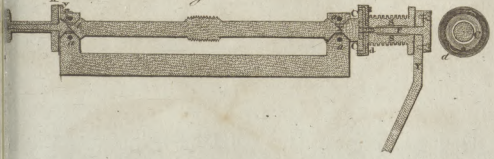


Fig. 7.

Fig. 5.



A Bell Sculp.t

RAMSDENS Machine Fig. 6.

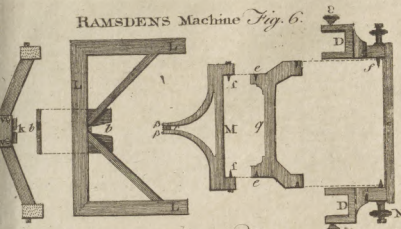


Fig. 12.
SCOLOPENDRA MORSITANS

Fig. 9.

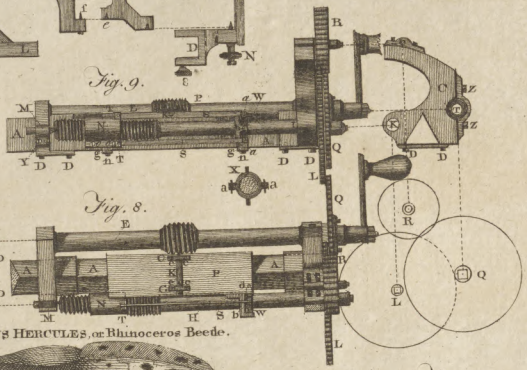


Fig. 8.

Fig. 10. SCARABÆUS HERCULES, or Rhinoceros Beede.

Fig. 13.
SCARABÆUS CARNIFEX.

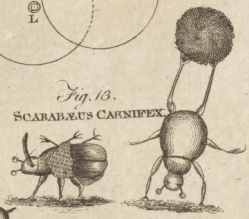


Fig. 11.
SAPINDUS SAPONARIA.

A. Bell Sculp.t

Ramsden's Engine. produce any error in the dividing; and, by a particular contrivance, (which will be described hereafter,) the screw when pressed against the teeth of the wheel always moves parallel to itself; so that a line joining the centre of the arbor and the tracer continued, will always make equal angles with the screw.

Plate CCLV. Figure 1. represents a perspective view of the engine.

Plate CCLVI. & CCLVII. "Fig. 2. is a plan, of which fig. 3. represents a section on the line ITA.

"The large wheel A is 45 inches in diameter, and has ten radii, each being supported by edge-bars, as represented in fig. 3. These bars and radii are connected by the circular ring B, 24 inches in diameter, and 3 deep; and, for greater strength, the whole is cast in one piece in bell-metal.

"As the whole weight of the wheel A rests on its ring B, the edge-bars are deepest where they join it; and from thence their depth diminishes, both towards the centre and the circumference, as represented in fig. 3.

"The surface of the wheel A was worked very even and flat, and its circumference turned true. The ring C, of fine brass, was fitted very exactly on the circumference of the wheel; and was fastened thereon with screws, which, after being screwed as tight as possible, were well riveted. The face of a large chuck being turned very true and flat in the lath, the flattened surface A of the wheel was fastened against it with hold-fasts: and the two surfaces and circumference of the ring C, a hole through the centre and the plane part round (b) it, and the lower edge of the ring B, were turned at the same time.

Fig. 3. "D is a piece of hard bell-metal, having the hole, which receives the steel-arbor (d), made very straight and true. This bell-metal was turned very true on an arbor; and the face, which rests on the wheel at (b), was turned very flat, so that the steel arbor (d) might stand perpendicular to the plane of the wheel: this bell-metal was fastened to the wheel by six steel screws (l).

"A brass socket Z is fastened on the centre of the mahogany stand, and receives the lower part of the bell-metal piece D, being made to touch the bell-metal in a narrow part near the mouth, to prevent any obliquity of the wheel from bending the arbor: good fitting is by no means necessary here; since any shake in this socket will produce no bad effect, as will appear hereafter when we describe the cutting frame.

"The wheel was then put on its stand, the lower edge of the ring B resting on the circumference of three conical friction pullies W, to facilitate its motion round its centre. The axis of one of these pullies is in a line joining the centre of the wheel and the middle of the endless screw, and the other two placed so as to be at equal distances from each other.

Fig. 1, 2, and 3.

Fig. 1. "F is a block of wood strongly fastened to one of the legs of the stand; the piece (g) is screwed to the upper side of the block, and has half holes, in which the transverse axis (h) turns: the half holes are kept together by the screws (i).

Fig. 4.

Fig. 1. & 4. "The lower extremity of the conical pillar P terminates in a cylindric steel pin (k), which passes through and turns in the transverse axis (h), and is confined by a check and screw.

Fig. 4. "To the upper end of the conical pillar is fastened the frame G, in which the endless screw turns: the pivots of the screw are formed in the manner of two frustrums of cones joined by a cylinder, as represented at X. These pivots are confined between half poles, which press only on the conical parts, and do not touch the cylindric parts: the half holes are kept together by screws (a), which may be tightened at any time, to prevent the screw from shaking in the frame. Ramsden's Engine.

Fig. 5. "On the screw arbor is a small wheel of brass K, having its outside edge divided into 60 parts, and numbered at every 6th division with 1, 2, &c. to 10. The motion of this wheel is shewn by the index (y) on the screw frame G.

Fig. 1, 2. Fig. 4 and 5.

"H represents a part of the stand, having a parallel slit in the direction towards the centre of the wheel, large enough to receive the upper part of the conical brass pillar P, which carries the screw and its frame: and as the resistance, when the wheel is moved by the endless screw, is against that side of the slit H which is towards the left-hand, that side of the slit is faced with brass, and the pillar is pressed against it by a steel spring on the opposite side: by this means the pillar is strongly supported laterally, and yet the screw may be easily pressed from or against the circumference of the wheel, and the pillar will turn freely on its axis to take any direction given it by the frame L.

Fig. 1.

"At each corner of the piece I are screws (n) of tempered steel, having polished conical points: two of them turn in conical holes in the screw-frame near (o), and the points of the other two screws turn in holes in the piece Q: the screws (p) are of steel, which being tightened prevent the conical pointed screws from unturning when the frame is moved.

Fig. 4.

"L is a brass frame, which serves to connect the endless screw, its frame, &c. with the centre of the wheel: each arm of this frame is terminated by a steel screw, that may be passed through any of the holes (q) in the piece Q, as the thickness of work to be divided on the wheel may require, and are fastened by the finger-nuts (r).

Fig. 1, 2, 6.

Fig. 4.

Fig. 1 and 2.

"At the other end of this frame is a flat piece of tempered steel (b), wherein is an angular notch: when the endless screw is pressed against the teeth on the circumference of the wheel, which may be done by turning the finger-screw S, to press against the spring (t), this notch embraces and presses against the steel arbor (d). This end of the frame may be raised or depressed by moving the prismatic slide (u), which may be fixed at any height by the four steel-screws (v).

Fig. 6.

Fig. 1. & 2.

Fig. 2.

Fig. 1, 2, 6.

"The bottom of this slide has a notch (k), whose plane is parallel to the endless-screw; and by the point of the arbor (d) resting in this notch, this end of the frame is prevented from tilting. The screw S is prevented from unturning by tightening the finger-nut (w).

Fig. 1. & 6.

Fig. 3.

Fig. 1, 2.

"The teeth on the circumference of the wheel were cut by the following method.

"Having considered what number of teeth on the circumference would be most convenient, which in this engine is 2160, or 360 multiplied by 6, I made two screws of the same dimensions, of tempered steel, in the manner hereafter described, the interval between the threads being such as I knew by calculation would come within the limits of what might be turned off the circumference of the wheel: one of these screws, which

Ramsden's Engine.

Plate CCLVI. & CCLVII.

which was intended for ratching or cutting the teeth, was notched acrofs the threads, fo that the fcrew, when preffed againft the edge of the wheel and turned round, cut in the manner of a faw. Then having a fegment of a circle a little greater than 60 degrees, of about the fame radius with the wheel, and the circumference made true, from a very fine centre, I defcribed an arch near the edge, and fet off the chord of 60 degrees on this arch. This fegment was put in the place of the wheel, the edge of it was ratched, and the number of revolutions and parts of the fcrew contained between the interval of the 60 degrees were counted. The radius was corrected in the proportion of 360 revolutions, which ought to have been in 60 degrees, to the number actually found; and the radius, fo corrected, was taken in a pair of beam-compaffes: while the wheel was on the lath, one foot of the compaffes was put in the centre, and with the other a circle was defcribed on the ring; then half the depth of the threads of the fcrew being taken in dividers was fet from this circle outwards, and another circle was defcribed cutting this point; a hollow was then turned on the edge of the wheel of the fame curvature as that of the fcrew at the bottom of the threads: the bottom of this hollow was turned to the fame radius or diftance from the centre of the wheel, as the outward of the two circles before-mentioned.

"The wheel was now taken off the lath; and the bell-metal piece D was fcrewed on as before directed, which after this ought not to be removed.

Fig. 3.

"From a very exact centre a circle was defcribed on the ring C, about $\frac{4}{25}$ of an inch within where the bottom of the teeth would come. This circle was divided with the greateft exactnefs I was capable of, firft into 5 parts, and each of thefe into 3. Thefe parts were then bifected 4 times: (that is to fay) fuppofing the whole circumference of the wheel to contain 2160 teeth, this being divided into 5 parts, each would contain 432 teeth; which being divided into 3 parts, each of them would contain 144; and this fpace bifected 4 times would give 72, 36, 18, and 9: therefore each of the laft divifions would contain 9 teeth. But, as I was apprehenfive fome error might arife from quinquefection and trifection, in order to examine the accuracy of the divifions, I defcribed another circle on the ring C, $\frac{1}{10}$ inch within the former, and divided it by continual bifections, as 2160, 1080, 540, 270, 135, $67\frac{1}{2}$, and $33\frac{3}{4}$; and, as the fixed wire (to be defcribed prefently) croffed both the circles, I could examine their agreement at every 135 revolutions; (after ratching, could examine it at every $33\frac{3}{4}$): but, not finding any fenfible difference between the two fetts of divifions, I, for ratching, made choice of the former; and, as the coincidence of the fixed wire with an interfection could be more exactly determined than with a dot or divifion, I therefore made ufe of interfections in both circles before defcribed.

Fig. 1, 2, 3.

Fig. 7.

"The arms of the frame L were connected by a thin piece of brafs of $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch broad, having a hole in the middle of $\frac{4}{10}$ of an inch in diameter; acrofs this hole a filver wire was fixed exactly in a line to the center of the wheel; the coincidence of this wire with the interfections was examined by a lens $\frac{7}{10}$ inch focus, fixed in a tube which was attached to one of the arms L (A). Now a handle or winch being fixed on the end of the fcrew, the divifion marked 10 on the circle K was fet to its index, and, by means of a clamp and adjufting fcrew for that purpofe, the interfection marked 1 on the circle C was fet exactly to coincide with the fixed wire; the fcrew was then carefully preffed againft the circumference of the wheel, by turning the finger-fcrew S; then, removing the clamp, I turned the fcrew by its handle 9 revolutions, till the interfection marked 240 came nearly to the wire; then, unturning the finger-fcrew S, I releafed the fcrew from the wheel, and turned the wheel back till the interfection marked 2 exactly coincided with the wire, and, by means of the clamp before-mentioned, the divifion 10 on the circle being fet to its index, the fcrew was preffed againft the edge of the wheel by the finger-fcrew S; the clamps were removed, and the fcrew turned 9 revolutions till the interfection marked 1 nearly coincided with the fixed wire; the fcrew was releafed from the wheel by unturning the finger-fcrew S as before, the wheel was turned back till the interfection 3 coincided with the fixed wire; the divifion 10 on the circle being fet to its index, the fcrew was preffed againft the wheel as before, and the fcrew was turned 9 revolutions, till the interfection 2 nearly coincided with the fixed wire, and the fcrew was releafed; and I proceeded in this manner till the teeth were marked round the whole circumference of the wheel. This was repeated three times round, to make the impreffion of the fcrew deeper. I then ratched the wheel round continually in the fame direction without ever difengaging the fcrew; and, in ratching the wheel about 300 times round, the teeth were finifhed.

Ramsden's Engine.

"Now it is evident, if the circumference of the wheel was even one tooth or ten minutes greater than the fcrew would require, this error would in the firft inftance be reduced to $\frac{1}{2160}$ part of a revolution or two feconds and a half; and thefe errors or inequalities of the teeth were equally diftributed round the wheel at the diftance of 9 teeth from each other. Now, as the fcrew in ratching had continually hold of feveral teeth at the fame time, and, thefe conftantly changing, the abovementioned inequalities foon corrected themfelves, and the teeth were reduced to a perfect equality. The piece of brafs which carries the wire was now taken away, and the cutting fcrew was alfo removed, and a plain one (hereafter defcribed) put in its place: on one end of the fcrew is a fmall brafs circle, having its edge divided into 60 equal parts, and numbered at every fixth divifion, as beforementioned. On the other end of the fcrew is a ratchet-wheel C, having 60 teeth, covered by the hollowed circle (d), which carries two clicks that catch upon the oppofite fides of the ratchet when the fcrew is to be moved forwards. The cylinder S turns on a ftrong fteel arbor F, which paffes through and is firmly fcrewed to the piece Y: this piece, for greater firmnefs, is attached to the fcrew-frame G by the braces (v): a fpiral groove or thread is cut on the outfide of the cylinder S, which ferves both for holding the ftring, and alfo giving motion to the lever J on its centre by means of a fteel tooth (n), that works

Fig. 5.

Fig. 4.

(A) The interfections are marked for the fake of illuftration, though properly invifible, they lying under the brafs plate.

Ramsden's Engine.

works between the threads of the spiral. To the lever is attached a strong steel pin (m), on which a brass socket (r) turns: this socket passes thro' a slit in the piece (p), and may be tightened in any part of the slit by the finger-nut (f): this piece serves to regulate the number of revolutions of the screw for each tread of the treadle R.

Pl. CCLV Plate CCLVI. & CCLVII.

Fig. 1.

Fig. 1.

"T, is a brass box containing a spiral spring; a strong gut is fastened and turned 3 or 4 times round the circumference of this box; the gut then passes several times round the cylinder S, and from thence down to the treadle R. Now, when the treadle is pressed down, the string pulls the cylinder S round its axis, and the clicks catching hold of the teeth on the ratchet carry the screw round with it, till, by the tooth (n) working in the spiral groove, the lever J is brought near the wheel (d), and the cylinder stopped by the screw-head (x) striking on the top of the lever J; at the same time the spring is wound up by the other end of the gut passing round the box T. Now, when the foot is taken off the treadle, the spring unbending itself pulls back the cylinder, the clicks leaving the ratchet and screw at rest till the piece (t) strikes on the end of the piece (p): the number of revolutions of the screw at each tread is limited by the number of revolutions the cylinder is allowed to turn back before the stop strikes on the piece (p).

Fig. 4.

Fig. 1.

Fig. 1.

"When the endless screw was moved round it axis with a considerable velocity, it would continue that motion a little after the cylinder S was stopped: to prevent this the angular lever $_n$ was made; that when the lever J comes near to stop the screw (x), it, by a small chamfer, presses down the piece $_x$ of the angular lever; this brings the other end $_n$ of the same lever forwards, and stops the endless screw by the steel pin $_\mu$ striking upon the top of it: the foot of the lever is raised again by a small spring pressing on the brace (v).

Fig. 1, 2, 4.

Fig. 1, 2, 6.

"D, two clamps, connected by the piece $_\alpha$, slide one on each arm of the frame L, and may be fixed at pleasure by the four finger-screws $_\epsilon$, which press against steel springs to avoid spoiling the arms: the piece (q) is made to turn without shake between the two conical pointed screws (f), which are preventing from unturning by tightening the finger-nuts N.

"The piece M is made to turn on the piece (q), by the conical pointed screws (f) resting in the hollow centers (e).

Fig. 6.

"As there is frequent occasion to cut divisions on inclined planes, for that purpose the piece $_\gamma$, in which the tracer is fixed, has a conical axis at each end, which turn in half holes: when the tracer is set to any inclination, it may be fixed there by tightening the steel screws $_\beta$.

Description of the Engine by which the endless screw of the Dividing Engine was cut.

"Fig. 9. represents this engine of its full dimensions seen from one side.

"Fig. 8. the upper side of the same as seen from above.

"A, represents a triangular bar of steel, to which the triangular holes in the pieces B and C are accurately fitted, and may be fixed on any part of the bar by the screws D.

"E is a piece of steel whereon the screw is intended to be cut; which, after being hardened and tempered, has its pivots turned in the form of two frustums of cones, as represented in the drawings of the dividing engine (fig. 5.). These pivots were exactly fitted to the half holes F and T, which were kept together by the screws Z.

Ramsden's Engine, Ramsay.

"H, represents a screw of untempered steel, having a pivot I, which turns in the hole K. At the other end of the screw is a hollow centre, which receives the hardened conical point of the steel pin M. When this point is sufficiently pressed against the screw, to prevent its shaking, the steel pin may be fixed by tightening the screws Y.

"N is a cylindric nut, moveable on the screw H; which, to prevent any shake, may be tightened by the screws O. This nut is connected with the saddle-piece P by means of the intermediate universal joint W, thro' which the arbor of the screw H passes. A front view of this piece, with a section across the screw-arbor, is represented at X. This joint is connected with the nut by means of two steel slips S, which turn on pins between the cheeks T on the nut N. The other ends of these slips S turn in like manner on pins (a). One axis of this joint turns in a hole in the cock (b), which is fixed to the saddle-piece; and the other turns in a hole (d), made for that purpose in the same piece on which the cock (b) is fixed. By this means, when the screw is turned round, the saddle-piece will slide uniformly along the triangular bar A.

"K is a small triangular bar of well-tempered steel, which slides in a groove of the same form on the saddle-piece P. The point of this bar or cutter is formed to the shape of the thread intended to be cut on the endless screw. When the cutter is set to take proper hold of the intended screw, it may be fixed by tightening the screw (e), which press the two pieces of brass G upon it.

"Having measured the circumference of the dividing-wheel, I found it would require a screw about one thread in a hundred coarser than the guide-screw H. The wheels on the guide-screw arbor H, and that on the steel E, on which the screw was to be cut, were proportioned to each other to produce that effect, by giving the wheel L 198 teeth, and the wheel Q 200. These wheels communicated with each other by means of the intermediate wheel R, which also served to give the threads on the two screws the same direction.

"The saddle-piece P is confined on the bar A by means of the pieces (g), and may be made to slide with a proper degree of tightness by the screws (n).

RAMSDEN's *Portable Barometer*. See BAROMETER in the APPENDIX.

RAMSAY (Allan), the Scots pastoral poet, was a barber in Edinburgh in the early part of the present century. His taste in poetry, however, has justly raised him to a degree of fame that may in some measure be considered as a recompence for the frowns of fortune. His songs are in universal esteem; as is also the only dramatic performance attributed to him, viz. *Patie and Roger*, or *The Gentle Shepherd*, a Scots pastoral. He died in 1743; and was father to the ingenious Mr Ramsay, a celebrated painter of the present age, and who has likewise distinguished himself by some well-written tracts on various branches

Ramsay || Rana.

of polite literature, particularly the *Investigator*.

RAMSAY (Andrew Michael), generally known by the name of the *Chevalier Ramsay*, was a polite Scots writer, born of a good family at Ayre, in 1686. His good parts and learning recommended him to be tutor to the son of the earl of Weems; after which, conceiving a disgust at the religion in which he had been educated, he in the same ill-humour reviewed other Christian churches; and, finding none to his liking, rested for a while in Deism. While he was in this uncertain state of mind, he went to Leyden; where, falling into the company of one Poiret a mystic divine, he received the infection of mysticism: which prompted him to consult M. Fenelon, the famed archbishop of Cambray, who had imbibed principles of the same nature; and who gained him over to the Catholic religion in 1709. The subsequent course of his life received its direction from his friendship and connections with this prelate; and, being appointed governor to the duke de Chateau Thierry, and the prince de Turenne, he was made a knight of the order of St Lazarus. He was sent for to Rome by the chevalier de St George, to undertake the education of his children; but he found so many intrigues and dissensions on his arrival there in 1724, that he obtained the Chevalier's leave to return to Paris. He died in 1743, in the office of intendant to the duke of Bouillon, prince de Turenne. The most capital work of his writing is the *Travels of Cyrus*, which has been several times printed in English.

RAMUS, in general, denotes a branch of any thing, as of a tree, an artery, &c.

RAMUS (Peter), was one of the most famous professors of the 16th century. He was born in Picardy in 1515. A thirst for learning prompted him to go to Paris when very young, and he was admitted a servant in the college of Navarre. Spending the day in waiting on his masters, and the greatest part of the night in study, he made such surprising progress, that, when he took his master of arts degree, he offered to maintain a quite opposite doctrine to that of Aristotle. This raised him many enemies; and the two first books he published, *Institutiones Dialecticæ*, and *Aristotelicæ Animadversiones*, occasioned great disturbances in the university of Paris: and the opposition against him was not a little heightened by his deserting the Romish religion, and professing that of the Reformed. Being thus forced to retire from Paris, he visited the universities of Germany, and received great honours wherever he came. He returned to France in 1571, and lost his life miserably in the massacre of St Bartholomew's day. He was a great orator, a man of universal learning, and endowed with very fine moral qualities. He published many books, which Teissier enumerates.

RANA, the FROG, in zoology, a genus belonging to the order of amphibia reptilia. The body is naked, furnished with four feet, and without any tail. There are 17 species. The most remarkable are,

1. The temporaria, or common frog. This is an animal so well known, that it needs no description; but some of its properties are very singular.

Its spring, or power of taking large leaps, is remarkably great, and it is the best swimmer of all four-footed animals. Nature hath finely adapted its parts for those ends, the fore members of the body being very lightly made, the hind legs and thighs very long, and furnished with very strong muscles.

Rana.

While in a tadpole state, it is entirely a water animal; the work of generation is performed in that element, as may be seen in every pond during spring, when the female remains oppressed by the male for a number of days.

The work of propagation is extremely singular, it being certain that the frog has not a *penis intrans*. There appears a strong analogy in this case between a certain class of the vegetable kingdom and those animals; for it is well known, that when the female frog deposits its spawn, the male instantaneously impregnates it with what we may call a *farina fœcundans*, in the same manner as the palm tree-conveys fructification to the flowers of the female, which would otherwise be barren.

As soon as the frogs are released from their tadpole state, they immediately take to land; and if the weather has been hot, and there fall any refreshing showers, you may see the ground for a considerable space perfectly blackened by myriads of these animalcules, seeking for some secure lurking places. Some philosophers, not giving themselves time to examine into this phenomenon, imagined them to have been generated in the clouds, and showered on the earth; but had they, like our Derham, but traced them to the next pool, they would have found a better solution of the difficulty.

As frogs adhere closely to the backs of their own species, so we know they will do the same by fish. Walton mentions a strange story of their destroying pike; but that they will injure, if not entirely kill carp, is a fact indisputable, from the following relation. A very few years ago, on filling a pond belonging to Mr Pit, of Encomb, Dorsetshire, great numbers of the carp were found each with a frog mounted on it, the hind legs clinging to the back, and the fore legs fixed in the corner of each eye of the fish, which were thin and greatly wasted, teized by carrying so disagreable a load. These frogs Mr Pennant supposes to have been males disappointed of a mate.

British Zoology, iii. 11.

The croaking of frogs is well known; and from that in sunny countries they are distinguished by ludicrous titles: thus they are styled *Dutch nightingales*, and *Boston waites*.

Yet there is a time of the year when they become mute, neither croaking nor opening their mouths for a whole month: this happens in the hot season, and that is in many places known to the country people by the name of the *paddock moon*. It is said, that during that period their mouths are so closed, that no force (without killing the animal) will be capable of opening them.

These, as well as other reptiles, feed but a small space of the year. The food of this genus is flies, insects, and snails. Toads are said to feed also on bees, and to do great injury to those useful insects.

During winter, frogs and toads remain in a torpid state: the last of which will dig into the earth, and cover themselves with almost the same agility as the mole.

2. The esculenta, or edible frog, differs from the former, in having a high protuberance in the middle of

Rana. of the back, forming a very sharp angle. Its colours are also more vivid, and its marks more distinct; the ground colour being a pale or yellowish green, marked with rows of black spots from the head to the rump. This, and (Mr Pennant thinks) the former, are eaten. He has seen in the markets at Paris whole hampers full, which the venders were preparing for the table, by skinning and cutting off the fore-parts, the loins and legs only being kept; but his strong dislike to these reptiles, prevented a close examination into the species.

3. In the country of Pensylvania, and some other parts of North America, there is a very large species of frogs called the *bull-frog*. These make a monstrous roaring noise like a bull, only somewhat more hoarse. Their size is superior to that of any other of the genus, and they can spring forward three yards at a leap. By this means they will equal in speed a very good horse in its swiftest course. Their places of abode are ponds, or bogs with stagnant water; but they never frequent streams. When many of them are together, they make such a horrid noise, that two people cannot understand each other's speech. They croak all together, and then stop for a little and begin again. It seems as if they had a captain among them: for when he begins to croak, all the others follow; and when he stops, they also become silent. When this captain gives the signal for stopping, you hear a note like *poop* coming from him. In the day-time they seldom make any great noise unless the sky is covered; but in the night-time they may be heard at the distance of a mile and an half. When they croak, they are commonly near the surface of the water, under the bushes, and have their heads out of the water. By going slowly, therefore, one may get up almost quite close to them before they go away. As soon as they are quite under water, they think themselves safe, though it be ever so shallow. These creatures kill and eat young ducklings and goslings, and sometimes carry off chickens that come too near the water; when beaten, they cry out almost like little children. As soon as the air begins to grow a little cool in autumn, they hide themselves under the mud in the bottom of stagnant waters, and lie there torpid during the winter. As soon as the weather grows mild towards summer, they begin to get out of their holes and croak.

4. The bufo, or toad, is the most deformed and hideous of all animals. The body is broad; the back flat, and covered with a pimply dusky hide; the belly large, swagging, and swelling out; the legs short, and its pace laboured and crawling; its retreat gloomy and filthy: in short, its general appearance is such as to strike one with disgust and horror. Yet it is said by those who have resolution to view it with attention, that its eyes are fine: to this it seems that Shakespeare alludes, when he makes his Juliet remark,

Some say the lark and loathed toad change eyes:

As if they would have been better bestowed on so charming a songster than on this raucous reptile.

But the hideous appearance of the toad is such as to make this one advantageous feature overlooked, and to have rendered it in all ages an object of horror, and the origin of most tremenduous inventions. Ælian makes its venom so potent, that basilisk-like, it conveyed death by its very look and breath; but Juvenal is content with making the Roman ladies who were weary of their husbands, form a potion from its entrails, in order to get rid of the good man. This opinion begat others of a more dreadful nature; for in after-times superstition gave it preternatural powers, and made it a principal ingredient in the incantations of nocturnal hags.

This animal was believed by some old writers to have a stone in its head, fraught with great virtues medical and magical: it was distinguished by the name of the reptile, and called the *toad-stone*, *bufonites*, *crapaudine*, *krottenstein*; but all its fancied powers vanished on the discovery of its being nothing but the fossil tooth of the sea-wolf*, or of some other flat-toothed fish, not unfrequent in our island as well as several other countries.

* See *America*.

But these fables have been long exploded. And as to the notion of its being a poisonous animal, it is probable, that its excessive deformity, joined to the faculty it has of emitting a juice from its pimples, and a dusky liquid from its hind parts, is the foundation of the report.

That it has any noxious qualities there seem to have been no proofs in the smallest degree satisfactory, tho' we have heard many strange relations on that point. On the contrary, there have been many who have taken them in their naked hands, and held them long without receiving the least injury: it is also well known that quacks have eaten them, and have besides squeezed their juices into a glass and drank them with impunity. We may say also, that these reptiles are a common food to many animals; to buzzards, owls, Norfolk plovers, ducks, and snakes, who would not touch them were they in any degree noxious.

So far from having venomous qualities, they have of late been considered as if they had beneficent ones; particularly in the cure of the most terrible of diseases, the *cancer*, by suction: (See *British Zoology*, vol. iii. Append. p. 389. *et seq.*) But, from all circumstances, they seem only, as Mr Pennant observes, to have rendered a horrible complaint more loathsome.

The most full information concerning the nature and qualities of this animal is contained in the following letters from Mr Arscott and Mr Pittfield to Dr Milles. "It would give me great pleasure (says Mr Arscott) to be able to inform you of any particulars worthy Mr Pennant's notice, concerning the toad who lived so many years with us, and was so great a favourite. The greatest curiosity in it was its becoming so remarkably tame. It had frequented some steps before the hall-door some years before my acquaintance commenced with it, and had been admired by my father for its size (which was of the largest I ever met with), who constantly paid it a visit every evening. I knew it myself above 30 years; and by constantly feeding it, brought it to be so tame, that it always came to the candle, and looked up as if expecting to be taken up and brought upon the table, where I always fed it with insects of all sorts: it was fondest of flesh maggots, which I kept in bran; it would follow them, and, when within a proper distance, would fix its eye, and remain motionless for near a quarter of a minute, as if preparing for the stroke, which was an instantaneous throwing its tongue at a great distance upon the insect, which stuck to the tip by a gluti-

glutinous matter: the motion is quicker than the eye can follow (A).

"I always imagined that the root of its tongue was placed in the forepart of its under jaw, and the tip towards its throat, by which the motion must be a half circle; by which, when its tongue recovered its situation, the infect at the tip would be brought to the place of deglutition. I was confirmed in this by never observing any internal motion in its mouth, excepting one swallow the instant its tongue returned. Possibly I might be mistaken; for I never dissected one, but contented myself with opening its mouth, and slightly inspecting it.

"You may imagine, that a toad, generally detested, (although one of the most inoffensive of all animals) so much taken notice of and befriended, excited the curiosity of all comers to the house, who all desired to see it fed; so that even ladies so far conquered the horrors instilled into them by nurses, as to desire to see it. This produced innumerable and improbable reports, making it as large as the crown of a hat, &c. &c."

The following are answers from the same gentleman to some queries proposed by Mr Pennant.

"*First*, I cannot say how long my father had been acquainted with the toad before I knew it; but when I first was acquainted with it, he used to mention it as the old toad I've known so many years; I can answer for 36 years.

"*Secondly*, No toads that I ever saw appeared in the winter season. The old toad made its appearance as soon as the warm weather came, and I always concluded it retired to some dry bank to repose till the spring. When we new-lay'd the steps, I had two holes made in the third step on each, with a hollow of more than a yard long for it, in which I imagine it slept, as it came from thence at its first appearance.

Thirdly, It was seldom provoked: neither that toad (nor the multitudes I have seen tormented with great cruelty) ever showed the least desire of revenge by spitting or emitting any juice from their pimples. Sometimes, upon taking it up, it would let out a great quantity of clear water, which, as I have often seen it do the same upon the steps when quite quiet, was certainly its urine, and no more than a natural evacuation.

Fourthly, A toad has no particular enmity for the spider; he used to eat or fix with his millepedes (which I take to be its chief food) that I generally provided for it before I found out that flesh maggots, by their continual motion, was the most tempting bait; but, when offered, it eat blowing flies and humble bees that come from the rat-tailed maggot in gutters, or in short any insect that moved. I imagine, if a bee was to be put before a toad, it would certainly eat it to its cost; but as bees are seldom stirring at the same time that toads are, they can seldom come in their way, as they seldom appear after sun-rising or before sun-set. In the heat of the day they will come to the mouth of their hole, I believe, for air. I once from my parlour window observed a large toad I had in the bank of a bowling-green, about 12 at noon, a very hot day, very busy and active upon the grass; so uncommon an appearance made me go out to see what it was, when I found an innumerable swarm of winged ants had dropped round his hole, which temptation was as irresistible as a turtle would be to a luxurious alderman.

"*Fifthly*, Whether our toad ever propagated its species, I know not; rather think not, as it always appeared well, and not lessened in bulk, which it must have done, I should think, if it had discharged so large a quantity of spawn as toads generally do. The females that are to propagate in the spring, I imagine, instead of retiring to dry holes, go into the bottom of ponds, and lie torpid among the weeds: for to my great surprize, in the middle of the winter, having for amusement put a long pole into my pond, and twisted it till it had gathered a large volume of weed, on taking it off I found many toads; and having cut some asunder with my knife, by accident, to get off the weed, found them full of spawn not thoroughly formed. I am not positive, but think there were a few males in March: I know there are 30 males (B) to one female, 12 or 14 of whom I have seen clinging round a female: I have often disengaged her, and put her to a solitary male, to see with what eagerness he would seize her. They impregnate the spawn as it is drawn (C) out in long strings, like a necklace, many yards

(A) This rapid capture of its prey might give occasion to the report of its fascinating powers, Linnæus says, *Insecta in fauces fascino revocat.*

(B) Mr John Hunter has assured me, that during his residence at Bellesle, he dissected some hundreds of toads, yet never met with a single female among them.

(C) I was incredulous as to the *obstetrical* offices of the male toad; but since the end is so well accounted for, and the fact established by such good authority, belief must take place.

Mr Demours, in the Memoirs of the French Academy, as translated by Dr Templeman, vol. i. p. 371, has been very particular in respect to the male toad as acting the part of an *accoucheur*; his account is curious, and claims a place here.

"In the evening of one of the long days in summer, Mr Demours, being in the king's garden, perceived two toads *coupled together* at the edge of an hole, which was formed in part by a great stone at the top.

"Curiosity drew him to see what was the occasion of the motions he observed, when two facts equally new surprized him. The *first* was the extreme difficulty the female had in laying her eggs, insomuch that she did not seem capable of being delivered of them without some assistance. The *second* was, that the male was mounted on the back of the female, and exerted all his strength with his hinder feet in pulling out the eggs, whilst his fore-feet embraced her breast.

"In order to apprehend the manner of his working in the delivery of the female, the reader must observe, that the paws of these animals, as well those of the fore-feet as of the hinder, are divided into several toes, which can perform the office of fingers.

"It must be remarked likewise, that the eggs of this species of toads are included each in a membranous coat that is very firm, in which is contained the embryo; and that these eggs, which are oblong and about two lines in length, being fastened one to another by a short but very strong cord, form a kind of chaplet, the beads of which are distant from each other about the half of their length. It is by drawing this cord with his paw that the male performs the function of a midwife, and acquits himself in it with a dexterity that one would not expect from so lumpish an animal.

"The

yards long, not in a large quantity of jelly, like frogs ſpawn.

"*Sixthly*, Inſects being their food, I never ſaw any toad ſhow any liking or diſlike to any plant (D).

"*Seventhly*, I hardly remember any perſons taking it up except my father and myſelf: I do not know whether it had any particular attachment to us.

"*Eighthly*, In reſpect to its end, I anſwer this laſt query. Had it not been for a tame raven, I make no doubt but it would have been now living; who one day ſeeing it at the mouth of its hole, pulled it out, and although I reſcued it, pulled out one eye, and hurt it ſo, that notwithſtanding its living a twelve-month it never enjoyed itſelf, and had a difficulty of taking its food, miſſing the mark for want of its eye: before that accident, it had all the appearance of perfect health."

5. The rubeta, or natter-jack, frequents dry and ſandy places: it is found on Putney common, and alſo near Reveſby abbey, Lincolnſhire. It never leaps, neither does it crawl with the ſlow pace of a toad, but its motion is liker to running. Several are found commonly together, and, like others of the genus, they appear in the evenings. The upper part of the body is of a dirty yellow, clouded with brown, and covered with porous pimples of unequal ſizes: on the back is a yellow line. The upper ſide of the body is of a paler hue, marked with black ſpots, which are rather rough. On the fore-feet are four divided toes; on the hind five, a little webbed. The length of the body is two inches and a quarter; the breadth, one and a quarter: the length of the fore-legs, one inch one-ſixth; of the hind-legs, two inches. We are indebted to Joſeph Banks, Eſq; for this account.

7. The pipal, or Surinam toad, is more ugly than even the common one. The body is flat and broad; the head ſmall; the jaws, like thoſe of a mole, are extended, and evidently formed for rooting in the ground: the ſkin of the neck forms a ſort of wrinkled collar: the colour of the head is of a dark chenut, and the eyes are ſmall: the back, which is very broad, is of a lightiſh grey, and ſeems covered over with a number of ſmall eyes, which are round, and placed at nearly equal diſtances. Theſe eyes are very different from what they ſeem; they are the animal's eggs, covered with their ſhells, and placed there for hatching. Theſe eggs are buried deep in the ſkin, and in the beginning of incubation but juſt appear; and are very viſible when the young animal is about to burſt from its confinement. They are of a reddiſh, ſhining yellow colour; and the ſpaces between them are full of ſmall warts, reſembling pearls.

This is their ſituation previous to their coming forth; but nothing ſo much demands our admiration as the manner of their production. The eggs, when formed in the ovary, are ſent, by ſome internal canals, which anatomiſts have not hitherto deſcribed, to lie and come to maturity under the bony ſubſtance of the back: in this ſtate they are impregnated by the male, whoſe ſeed finds its way by pores very ſingularly contrived, and pierces not only the ſkin but the perioſteum: the ſkin, however, is ſtill apparently entire, and forms a very thick covering over the whole brood; but as they advance to maturity, at different intervals, one after another, the egg ſeems to ſtart forward, and burgeons from the back, becomes more yellow, and at laſt breaks; when the young one puts forth its head: it ſtill, however, keeps its ſituation until it has acquired a proper degree of ſtrength, and then it leaves the ſhell, but ſtill continues to keep upon the back of the parent. In this manner the pipal is ſeen travelling with her wonderous family on her back, in all the different ſtages of maturity. Some of the ſtrange progeny, not yet come to ſufficient perfection, appear quite torpid, and as yet without life in the egg: others ſeem juſt beginning to riſe through the ſkin; here peeping forth from the ſhell; and there, having entirely forſaken their priſon: ſome are ſporting at large upon the parent's back, and others deſcending to the ground to try their own fortune below. The male pipal is every way larger than the female, and has the ſkin leſs tightly drawn round the body. The whole body is covered with puſtules, reſembling pearls; and the belly, which is of a bright yellow, ſeems as if it were ſewed up from the throat to the vent, a ſeam being ſeen to run in that direction. This animal, like the reſt of the frog kind, is moſt probably harmleſs.

RANCID, denotes a fatty ſubſtance that is become rank or muſty, or that has contracted an ill ſmell by being kept cloſe.

RANDOLPH (Thomas), an eminent Engliſh poet in the 17th century, born in Northamptonſhire 1605. He was educated at Weſtminſter and Cambridge, and very early diſtinguiſhed for his excellent genius; for at about nine or ten years of age he wrote the Hiſtory of the Incarnation of our Saviour, in verſe. His ſubſequent writings eſtabliſhed his character, and gained him the eſteem and friendſhip of ſome of the greateſt men of that age; particularly of Ben Johnſon, who adopted him one of his ſons in the muſes. He died in 1634, and was honourably interred. He wrote, 1. The Muſes Looking-glaſs, a comedy. 2. Amyntas, or the Impoſſible Dowry, a paſtoral, acted before the king and queen. 3. Ariſtippus, or the Jovial Philoſopher. 4. The Conceited Pedlar. 5. The Jealous Lovers, a comedy. 6. Hey for Honeſty, down with Knavery, a comedy; and ſeveral poems.

RANDOM SHOT, in gunnery, is a ſhot made when the muzzle of a gun is raiſed above the horizontal line, and is not deſigned to ſhoot directly or point-blank.

The

"The preſence of the obſerver did not a little diſcompoſe the male: for ſome time he ſtopped ſhort, and threw on the *curious impertinent* a fixed look that marked his diſquietneſs and fear; but he ſoon returned to his work with more precipitation than before, and a moment after he appeared undetermined whether he ſhould continue it or not. The female likewiſe diſcovered her uneaſineſs at the ſight of the ſtranger, by motions that interrupted ſometimes the male in his operation. At length, whether the ſilence and ſteady poſture of the ſpectator had diſſipated their fear, or that the *caſe* was urgent, the male reſumed his work with the ſame vigour, and ſucceſsfully performed his function."

(D) This queſtion aroſe from an aſſertion of Linnæus, that the toad delighted in filthy herbs. *Delectatur cotula, actæa, ſtachyde fœtidi.* The unhappy deformity of the animal ſeems to be the only ground of this as well as another miſrepreſentation, of its conveying a poiſon with its pimples, its touch, and even its breath. *Verrucæ lactſcentes venenata infuſæ tactu, anhelitu.*

Range Ranunculus.

The utmoſt random of any piece is about ten times as far as the bullet will go point-blank. The bullet will go fartheſt when the piece is mounted to about 45° above the level range. See GUNNERY.

RANGE, in gunnery, the path of a bullet, or the line it deſcribes from the mouth of the piece to the point where it lodges. If the piece lie in a line parallel to the horizon, it is called the *right* or *level range:* if it be mounted to 45°, it is ſaid to have the utmoſt range, all others between 00 and 45° are called the *intermediate ranges*.

RANGER, a ſworn officer of a foreſt, appointed by the king's letters-patent; whoſe buſineſs is to walk through his charge, to drive back the deer out of the purlieus, &c. and to preſent all treſpaſſes within his juriſdiction at the next foreſt-court.

RANK, the order or place aſſigned a perſon ſuitable to his quality or merit.

RANK, is a ſtraight line made by the ſoldiers of a battalion, or ſquadron, drawn up ſide by ſide: this order was eſtabliſhed for the marches, and for regulating the different bodies of troops and officers which compoſe an army.

Rank, Ranunculus.

RANK *and Precedence*, in the army and navy, as follow:

Engineers RANK. Chief, as colonel; director, as lieutenant-colonel; ſub-director, as major; engineer in ordinary, as captain; engineer extraordinary, as captain-lieutenant; ſub-engineer, as lieutenant; practitioner-engineer, as enſign.

Navy RANK. Admiral, or commander in chief of his majeſty's fleet, has the rank of a field-marſhal; admirals, with their flags on the main-top-maſt-head, rank with generals of horſe and foot; vice-admirals, with lieutenant-generals; rear-admirals, as major-generals; commodores, with broad pendants, as brigadier-generals; captains of poſt-ſhips, after three years from the date of their firſt commiſſion, as colonels; other captains, as commanding poſt-ſhips, as lieutenant-colonels; captains, not taking poſt, as majors; lieutenants, as captains.

RANK between the Army, Navy, and Governors.

ARMY.	NAVY.	GOVERNORS.
General in chief	Admiral in chief	Commander in chief of the forces in America
Generals of horſe	Admiral with a flag at the main-top-maſt.	Captain-general of provinces
Lieutenant-generals	Vice-admirals	Lieutenant-generals of provinces
Major-generals	Rear-admirals	Lieutenant-governors and preſidents
Colonels	Poſt-captains of 3 years	Lieutenant-governors not commanding
Lieutenant-colonels	Poſt-captains	Governors of charter colonies
Majors	Captains	Deputy governors
Captains	Lieutenants	Eſtabliſhed by the king, 1760

Doubling of the RANKS, is the placing two ranks in one, frequently uſed in the manœuvres of a regiment.

RANKS *and Files*, are the horizontal and vertical lines of ſoldiers when drawn up for ſervice.

RANSOM, a ſum of money paid for the redemption of a ſlave, or the liberty of a priſoner of war. In our law-books, ranſom is alſo uſed for a ſum paid for the pardon of ſome great offence, and to obtain the offender's liberty.

RANULA, a tumour under a child's tongue, which, like a ligature, hinders it from ſpeaking or ſucking.

RANUNCULUS, CROWFOOT; a genus of the polygamia order, belonging to the polyandria claſs of plants.

Species. There are near 40 different ſpecies of this genus, ſix or eight of which claim general eſteem as flowery plants for ornamenting the gardens, and a great number are common weeds in the fields, waters, and paſture ground, not having merit for garden culture. Of the garden kinds, the principal ſort is the Aſiatic or Turkey and Perſian ranunculus, which comprises many hundred varieties of large, double, moſt beautiful flowers of various colours: but ſeveral other ſpecies having varieties with fine double flowers, make a good appearance in a collection, though as thoſe of each ſpecies conſiſt only of one colour, ſome white, others yellow, they are inferior to the Aſiatic ranunculus, which is large, and diverſified a thouſand ways in rich colours, in different varieties. However, all the garden kinds in general, effect a very agreeable diverſity in aſſemblage in the flower compartments, &c. and they being all very hardy, ſucceed in any open beds and borders, &c.

Culture. The Aſiatic ſpecies in all its varieties will ſucceed in any light, rich, garden earth; but the floriſts often prepare a particular compoſt for the fine varieties, conſiſting of good garden-mould or paſture-earth, ſward and all, a fourth-part of rotted cow-dung, and the like portion of ſea-ſand; and with this they prepare beds four feet wide and two deep: however, in default of ſuch compoſt, uſe beds of any good light earth of your garden; or, if neceſſary, it may be made light and rich with a portion of drift-ſand and

and rotten dung, cow-dung is moſt commonly recommended; but they will alſo thrive in beds of well-wrought kitchen-garden earth, and they often proſper well in the common flower-borders.

The ſeaſon for planting the roots is both in autumn and ſpring; the autumn plantings generally flower ſtrongeſt and ſooneſt by a month at leaſt, and are ſucceeded by the ſpring planting in May and June. Perform the autumnal planting in October, and early part of November, but ſome plant towards the latter end of September in order to have a very early bloom; but thoſe planted in that month and beginning of October often come up with rank leaves ſoon after, in winter, ſo as to require protection in hard froſts; thoſe however planted about the middle or latter end of October, and beginning of November, rarely ſhoot up ſtrong till towards ſpring, and will not require ſo much care of covering during winter; and the ſpring planting may be performed the end of January or beginning of February, or as ſoon as the weather is ſettled; they will not require any trouble of covering, and will ſucceed the autumnal plants regularly in bloom, and will flower in good perfection. Thus by two or three different plantings you may obtain a ſucceſſion of theſe beautiful flowers in conſtant bloom from April till the middle of June; but the autumnal plants, for the general part, not only flower ſtrongeſt, but the roots increaſe more in ſize, and furniſh the beſt off-ſets for propagation: it is, however, proper to plant both in ſpring and autumn.

Prepare for the choicer ſorts, four-feet beds of light earth, and rake the ſurface ſmooth: then plant the roots in rows lengthwiſe the beds, either by drilling them in two inches deep, and ſix inches diſtance in the row, and the rows ſix or eight aſunder; or may plant them by bedding-in, or by dibble-planting, the ſame depth and diſtance.

Thoſe deſigned for the borders ſhould be planted generally towards the ſpring, in little clumps or patches, three, four, or five roots in each, putting them in either with a dibble or trowel, two or three inches deep, and three or four aſunder in each patch, and the patches from about three to five or ten feet diſtance, placing them rather forward in the border.

Propagation. All the varieties of the Aſiatic ranunculus propagate abundantly by off-ſets from the root, and new varieties are gained by ſeed.—1. By off-ſets. The time for ſeparating the off-ſets is in ſummer when the flower is paſt, and the leaves and ſtalks are withered: then taking up all the roots in dry weather, ſeparate the off-ſets from each main root, and after drying the whole gradually in ſome ſhady airy room, put them up in bags till the autumn and ſpring ſeaſons of planting; then plant them as before, placing all the off-ſets in ſeparate beds: many of them will blow the firſt year, but in the ſecond they will all flower in good perfection.—2. By ſeed. Save a quantity of ſeed from the fineſt ſemi-double flowers, and ſow it either in Auguſt, or in March or April, though, to ſave trouble of winter-covering, ſome prefer the ſpring: it ſhould be ſowed in light rich mould, either in pots or in an eaſt border, drawing very ſhallow flat drills five or ſix inches aſunder, in which ſow the ſeeds thinly, and cover them lightly with earth, giving frequent refreſhments of water in dry weather, and in a month or ſix weeks the plants will riſe with ſmall leaves; obſerving to continue the light waterings in dry weather, to preſerve the ſoil moiſt during their ſummer's growth to increaſe the ſize of the roots; and in June when the leaves decay, take up the roots and preſerve them till the ſeaſon for planting, then plant them in common beds, as before directed, and they will flower the ſpring following, when all the doubles of good properties ſhould be marked, and the ſingles thrown away.

The juice of many ſpecies of ranunculus is ſo acrid as to raiſe bliſters on the ſkin, and yet the roots may be eaten with ſafety when boiled.

RAPACIOUS ANIMALS, are ſuch as live upon prey.

RAPE, in law, the carnal knowledge of a woman forcibly and againſt her will. This, by the Jewiſh law, was puniſhed with death, in caſe the damſel was betrothed to another man: and, in caſe ſhe was not betrothed, then a heavy fine of fifty ſhekels was to be paid to the damſel's father, and ſhe was to be the wife of the raviſher all the days of his life; without that power of divorce, which was in general permitted by the Moſaic law.

The civil law puniſhes the crime of raviſhment with death and confiſcation of goods: under which it includes both the offence of forcible abduction, or taking away a woman from her friends; and alſo the preſent offence of forcibly diſhonouring her; either of which, without the other, is in that law ſufficient to conſtitute a capital crime. Alſo the ſtealing away a woman from her parents or guardians, and debauching her, is equally penal by the emperor's edict, whether ſhe conſent or is forced. And this, in order to take away from women every opportunity of offending in this way; whom the Roman laws ſuppoſe never to go aſtray, without the ſeduction and arts of the other ſex; and therefore, by reſtraining and making ſo highly penal the ſolicitations of the men, they meant to ſecure effectually the honour of the women. But our Engliſh law does not entertain quite ſuch ſublime ideas of the honour of either ſex, as to lay the blame of a mutual fault upon one of the tranſgreſſors only; and therefore makes it a neceſſary ingredient in the crime of rape, that it muſt be againſt the woman's will.

Rape was puniſhed by the Saxon laws, particularly thoſe of king Atheſtan, with death: which was alſo agreeable to the old Gothic or Scandinavian conſtitution. But this was afterwards thought too hard: and in its ſtead another ſevere, but not capital, puniſhment was inflicted by William the Conqueror, viz. caſtration and loſs of eyes; which continued till after Bracton wrote, in the reign of Henry the Third. But in order to prevent malicious accuſations, it was then the law, (and, it ſeems, ſtill continues to be ſo in appeals of rape), that the woman ſhould, immediately after, go to the next town, and there make diſcovery to ſome credible perſons of the injury ſhe has ſuffered; and afterwards ſhould acquaint the high conſtable of the hundred, the coroners, and the ſheriff, with the outrage. This ſeems to correſpond in ſome degree with the laws of Scotland and Arragon, which require that complaint muſt be made within 24 hours: though afterwards by ſtatute Weſtm. 1. c. 13. the time of limitation in

England

Rape. England was extended to 40 days. At prefent there is no time of limitation fixed: for, as it is ufually now punifhed by indictment at the fuit of the king, the maxim of law takes place, that "nullum tempus occurrit regi:" but the jury will rarely give credit to a ftale complaint. During the former period alfo it was held for law, that the woman (by confent of the judge and her parents) might redeem the offender from the execution of his fentence, by accepting him for her hufband; if he alfo was willing to agree to the exchange, but not otherwife.

In the 3 Edw. I. by the ftatute Weftm. 1. c. 13. the punifhment of rape was much mitigated: the offence itfelf, of ravifhing a damfel within age, (that is, twelve years old) either with her confent or without, or of any other woman againft her will, being reduced to a trefpafs, if not profecuted by appeal within 40 days, and fubjecting the offender only to two years imprifonment, and a fine at the king's will. But, this lenity being productive of the moft terrible confequences, it was, in ten years afterwards, 13 Edw. I. found neceffary to make the offence of forcible rape felony by ftatute Weftm. 2. c. 34. And by ftatute 18 Eliz. c. 7. it is made felony without benefit of clergy: as is alfo the abominable wickednefs of carnally knowing or abufing any woman child under the age of ten years; in which cafe the confent or non-confent is immaterial, as by reafon of her tender years fhe is incapable of judgment and difcretion. Sir Matthew Hale is indeed of opinion, that fuch profligate actions committed on an infant under the age of twelve years, the age of female difcretion by the common law, either with or without confent, amount to rape and felony; as well fince as before the ftatute of queen Elizabeth: but that law has in general been held only to extend to infants under ten; tho' it fhould feem that damfels between ten and twelve are ftill under the protection of the ftatute Weftm. 1. the law with refpect to their feduction not having been altered by either of the fubfequent ftatutes.

A male infant, under the age of fourteen years, is prefumed by law incapable to commit a rape, and therefore it feems cannot be found guilty of it. For though in other felonies "malitia fupplet ætatem;" yet, as to this particular fpecies of felony, the law fuppofes an imbecillity of body as well as mind.

The civil law feems to fuppofe a proftitute or common harlot incapable of any injuries of this kind: not allowing any punifhment for violating the chaftity of her, who hath indeed no chaftity at all, or at leaft hath no regard to it. But the law of England does not judge fo hardly of offenders, as to cut off all opportunity of retreat even from common ftrumpets, and to treat them as never capable of amendment. It therefore holds it to be felony to force even a concubine or harlot; becaufe the woman may have forfaken that unlawful courfe of life: for, as Bracton well obferves, "licet meretrix fuerit antea, certe tunc temporis non fuit, cum reclamando nequitiæ ejus confentire noluit."

As to the material facts requifite to be given in evidence and proved upon an indictment of rape, they are of fuch a nature, that, though neceffary to be known and fettled, for the conviction of the guilty and prefervation of the innocent, and therefore are to be found in fuch criminal treatifes as difcourfe of thefe matters in detail, yet they are highly improper to be publicly difcuffed, except only in a court of juftice. We fhall therefore merely add upon this head a few remarks from Sir Matthew Hale, with regard to the competency and credibility of witneffes; which may, *falvo pudore*, be confidered.

And, firft, the party ravifhed may give evidence upon oath, and is in law a competent witnefs; but the credibility of her teftimony, and how far forth fhe is to be believed, muft be left to the jury upon the circumftances of fact that concur in that teftimony. For inftance: if the witnefs be of good fame; if fhe prefently difcovered the offence, and made fearch for the offender; if the party accufed fled for it; thefe and the like are concurring circumftances, which give greater probability to her evidence. But, on the other fide, if fhe be of evil fame, and ftand unfupported by others; if fhe concealed the injury for any confiderable time after fhe had oportunity to complain; if the place, where the fact was alleged to be committed, was where it was poffible fhe might have been heard, and fhe made no outcry: thefe and the like circumftances carry a ftrong, but not conclufive, prefumption that her teftimony is falfe or feigned.

Moreover, if the rape be charged to be committed on an infant under 12 years of age, fhe may ftill be a competent witnefs, if fhe hath fenfe and underftanding to know the nature and obligations of an oath: and, even if fhe hath not, it is thought by Sir Matthew Hale that fhe ought to be heard without oath, to give the court information; though that alone will not be fufficient to convict the offender. And he is of this opinion, firft, Becaufe the nature of the offence being fecret, there may be no other poffible proof of the actual fact; though afterwards there may be concurrent circumftances to corroborate it, proved by other witneffes: and, fecondly, Becaufe the law allows what the child told her mother, or other relations, to be given in evidence, fince the nature of the cafe admits frequently of no better proof; and there is much more reafon for the court to hear the narration of the child herfelf, than to receive it at fecondhand from thofe who fwear they heard her fay fo. And indeed, it feems now to be fettled, that in thefe cafes infants of any age are to be heard; and, if they have any idea of an oath, to be alfo fworn: it being found by experience, that infants of very tender years often give the cleareft and trueft teftimony. But in any of thefe cafes, whether the child be fworn or not, it is to be wifhed, in order to render her evidence credible, that there fhould be fome concurrent teftimony, of time, place, and circumftances, in order to make out the fact; and that the conviction fhould not be grounded fingly on the unfupported accufation of an infant under years of difcretion. There may be therefore, in many cafes of this nature, witneffes who are competent, that is, who may be admitted to be heard; and yet, after being heard, may prove not to be credible, or fuch as the jury is bound to believe. For one excellence of the trial by jury is, that the jury are triors of the credit of the witneffes, as well as of the truth of the fact.

"It is true, (fays this learned judge), that rape is "a

"a moſt deteſtable crime, and therefore ought ſeverely and impartially to be puniſhed with death; but it muſt be remembered, that it is an accuſation eaſy to be made, hard to be proved, but harder to be defended by the party accuſed, though innocent." He then relates two very extraordinary caſes of malicious proſecution for this crime, that had happened within his own obſervation; and concludes thus: "I mention theſe inſtances, that we may be the more cautious upon trials of offences of this nature, where-in the court and jury may with ſo much eaſe be impoſed upon, without great care and vigilance; the heinouſneſs of the offence many times tranſporting the judge and jury with ſo much indignation, that they are overhaſtily carried to the conviction of the perſon accuſed thereof, by the confident teſtimony of ſometimes falſe and malicious witneſſes."

RAPHAEL d'Urbino, the greateſt, moſt ſublime, and moſt excellent painter that has appeared ſince the revival of the fine arts, was the ſon of an indifferent painter named *Sanzio*, and was born at Urbino on Good Friday 1482. The popes Julius II. and Leo X. who employed him, loaded him with wealth and honour; and it is ſaid that cardinal de St Bibiana had ſuch a value for him, that he offered him his niece in marriage. He had Peter Perugino for his firſt maſter; but he immediately ſurpaſſed him, and endeavoured to improve by copying the works of Leonardo da Vinci and Michael Angelo. His genius is admired in all his pictures; his contours are free, his ordonnances magnificent, his deſigns correct, his figures elegant, his expreſſions lively, his attitudes natural, his heads graceful; in fine, every thing is beautiful, grand, ſublime, juſt, and adorned with graces. Theſe various perfections he derived not only from his excellent abilities, but from his ſtudy of antiquity and anatomy; and from the friendſhip he contracted with Arioſto, who contributed not a little to the improvement of his taſte. His pictures are principally to be found in Italy and Paris. That of the Tranſfiguration, preſerved at Rome in the church of St Peter Monterio, paſſes for his maſter-piece. He had a handſome perſon, was well proportioned, and had great ſweetneſs of temper; was polite, affable, and modeſt. He, however, lived in the utmoſt ſplendor; moſt of the eminent maſters of his time were ambitious of working under him; and he never went out without a crowd of artiſts and others, who followed him purely through reſpect. He was not only the beſt painter in the world, but perhaps the beſt architect too; on which account Leo X. charged him with building St Peter's church at Rome: but he was too much addicted to pleaſure, which occaſioned his death at 37 years of age. He left a great number of diſciples; among whom were Julio Romano, and John Francis Penni, who were his heirs. Many able engravers, as Raimondi, George Mantuan, and Bloemart, engraved after Raphael.

RAPHAIM, or Rephaim, (Moſes), a name ſignifying *Giants*, as they really were, and an actual people too, ſituated in Baſan or Batanea, beyond Jordan, ſeparated from the Zanzummim by the river Jabbok. Alſo a valley near Jeruſalem, Joſhua x.

RAPHANUS, radish; a genus of the ſiliquoſa order, belonging to the tetradynamia claſs of plants. There is only one ſpecies, viz. the ſativus, or common garden radiſh; of which there are ſeveral varieties. They are annual plants, which being ſowed in the ſpring, attain perfection in two or three months, and ſhoot up ſoon after into ſtalk for flower and ſeed, which, ripening in autumn, the whole plant, root and top, periſhes; ſo that a freſh ſupply muſt be raiſed annually from ſeed in the ſpring, performing the ſowings at ſeveral different times, from about Chriſtmas until May, in order to continue a regular ſucceſſion of young tender radiſhes throughout the ſeaſon: allowing only a fortnight or three weeks interval between the ſowings; for one crop will not continue good longer than that ſpace of time, before they will either run to ſeed, or become tough, ſticky, and too hot to eat.

RAPIER, formerly ſignified a long old-faſhioned ſword, ſuch as thoſe worn by the common ſoldiers: but it now denotes a ſmall ſword, as contradiſtinguiſhed from a back-ſword.

RAPIN (Rene), a Jeſuit and eminent French writer, was born at Tours in 1621. He taught polite literature in the ſociety of the Jeſuits with great applauſe, and was juſtly eſteemed one of the beſt Latin poets and greateſt wits of his time. He died at Paris in 1687. He wrote, 1. A great number of Latin poems, which have rendered him famous throughout all Europe; among which are his *Hortorum libri quatuor*, which is reckoned his maſter-piece. 2. Reflections on Eloquence, Poetry, Hiſtory, and Philoſophy. 3. Compariſons between Virgil and Homer, Demoſthenes and Cicero, Plato and Ariſtotle, Thucydides and Titus Livius. 4. The Hiſtory of Janſeniſm. 5. Several works on religious ſubjects. The beſt edition of his Latin poems, is that of Paris in 1723, in 3 vols 12mo.

Rapin *de Thoyras* (Paul de), a celebrated hiſtorian, was the ſon of James de Rapin lord of Thoyras, and was born at Caſtres in 1661. He was educated at firſt under a tutor in his father's houſe; and afterwards ſent to Puylaurens, and thence to Saumur. In 1697 he returned to his father, with a deſign to apply himſelf to the ſtudy of the law, and was admitted an advocate: but ſome time after, reflecting that his being a Proteſtant would prevent his advancement at the bar, he reſolved to quit the profeſſion of the law, and apply himſelf to that of the ſword; but his father would not conſent to it. The revocation of the edict of Nantes in 1685, and the death of his father, which happened two months after, made him reſolve to come to England; but as he had no hopes of any ſettlement here, his ſtay was but ſhort. He therefore ſoon after went to Holland, and liſted himſelf in the company of French volunteers at Utrecht, commanded by M. Rapin his couſin-german. He attended the Prince of Orange into England in 1688; and the following year the lord Kingſton made him an enſign in his regiment, with which he went into Ireland, where he gained the eſteem of his officers at the ſiege of Carrickfergus, and had ſoon a lieutenant's commiſſion. He was preſent at the battle of the Boyne, and was ſhot through the ſhoulder at the ſiege of Limerick. He was ſoon after captain of the company in which he had been enſign; but, in 1693, reſigned his company to one of his brothers, in order to be tutor to the earl of Portland's ſon.

ſon. In 1699, he married Marianne Teſtard; but this marriage neither abated his care of his pupil, nor prevented his accompliſhing him in his travels. Having finiſhed this employment, he returned to his family, which he had ſettled at the Hague; and here he continued ſome years. But as he found his family increaſe, he reſolved to retire to ſome cheap country; and accordingly removed, in 1707, to Wezel, where he wrote his Hiſtory of England, and ſome other pieces. Though he was of a ſtrong conſtitution, yet ſeventeen years application (for ſo long was he in compoſing the hiſtory juſt mentioned) entirely ruined his health. He died in 1725. He wrote in French, 1. A Diſſertation on the Whigs and Tories. 2. His Hiſtory of England, printed at the Hague in 1727 and 1726, in 9 vols 4to, and reprinted at Trevoux in 1728, in 10 vols 4to. This laſt edition is more complete than that of the Hague. It has been tranſlated into Engliſh, and improved with Notes, by the Rev. Mr Tindal, in 2 vols folio. This performance, though the work of a foreigner, is deſervedly eſteemed as the fulleſt and moſt impartial collection of Engliſh political tranſactions extant. The readers of wit and vivacity may be apt to complain of him for being ſometimes rather tedious and dull.

RAPINE, in law, the taking away another's goods, &c. by violence.

RAPPERSWIL, a town of Swiſſerland, on the confines of the canton of Zurich, and of the territory of Gaſter, with an old caſtle. It is ſtrong by ſituation, being ſeated on a neck of land which advances into the lake of Zurich, and over which there is a bridge 850 paces long. It is ſubject to the cantons of Zurich and Bern. E. long. 8. 57. N. lat. 47. 20.

RAPPOLSTEIN, a town of France in Upper Alſace, with the title of a barony. All the muſicians of Alſace depend upon this baron, and are obliged to pay him a certain tribute, without which they cannot play upon their inſtruments. E. long. 7. 28. N. lat. 48. 15.

RAPTURE, an eceſtaſy or tranſport of mind. See Ecstasy.

RARE, in phyſic, ſtands oppoſed to denſe; and denotes a body that is very porous, whoſe parts are at a great diſtance from one another, and which is ſuppoſed to contain but little matter under a large bulk. See the following article.

RAREFACTION, in phyſics, the act whereby a body is rendered rare; that is, brought to poſſeſs more room, or appear under a larger bulk, without acceſſion of any new matter.—This is very frequently the effect of fire, as has long been univerſally allowed. In many caſes, however, philoſophers have attributed it to the action of a repulſive principle. However, from the many diſcoveries concerning the nature and properties of the electric fluid and fire, there is the greateſt reaſon to believe that this repulſive principle is no other than elementary fire. See Repulsion.

RASOR-BILL. See Alca.

Rasor-*Fiſh*. See Solen.

RASTALL (John), a printer and miſcellaneous writer, was born in London, probably about the end of the 15th century, and educated at Oxford. Returning from the univerſity, he ſettled in the metropolis, and commenced printer, "then eſteemed (ſays Wood) a profeſſion fit for any ſcholar or ingenious man." He married the ſiſter of Sir Thomas More, with whom, we are told, he was very intimate, and whoſe writings he ſtrenuouſly defended. From the title-page of one of his books, he appears to have lived in Cheapſide, at the ſign of the mermaid. He died in the year 1536; and left two ſons, William and John: the firſt of whom became a judge in queen Mary's reign, and the latter a juſtice of peace. This John Raſtall, the ſubject of the preſent article, was a zealous Papiſt; but Bale ſays, that he changed his religion before his death. He wrote, 1. *Natura naturata*. Pits calls it a copious (*prolixa*) and ingenious comedy, deſcribing Europe, Aſia, and Africa; with cuts. What ſort of a comedy this was, is not eaſy to conceive. Probably it is a coſmographical deſcription, written in dialogue, and therefore ſtyled a *comedy*. 2. The paſtyme of the people; the cronycles of diverſe realmys, and moſt eſpecially of the realm of England, brevely compiled and emprinted in Cheapeſyde, at the ſign of the mermaid, next Pollyſgate, *cum previlegio*, fol. 3. *Eccleſia Johannis Raſtall*, 1542. Was one of the prohibited books in the reign of Henry VIII. 4. *Legum Anglicanarum vocabula explicata*. French and Latin. Lond. 1567, 8vo. And ſome other works.

RASTAT, a town of Germany, in the circle of Suabia and marquiſate of Baden, with a handſome caſtle. It is remarkable for a treaty concluded here between the French and Imperialiſts in 1714; and is ſeated on the river Merg, near the Rhine. E. long. 9. 14. N. lat. 48. 52.

RAT, in zoology. See Mus.

The following receipt is ſaid to have been found effectual for the deſtruction of rats. Take of the ſeeds of ſtaveſacre or louſewort, powdered, more or leſs as the occaſion requires, one part; of oat-meal, three parts; mix them well, and make them up into a paſte with honey. Lay pieces of it in the holes, and on the places where mice and rats frequent; and it will effectually kill or rid the place of thoſe kind of vermin by their eating thereof.

Some time ago, the ſociety for encouraging arts propoſed a premium of 50l. for a preparation capable of alluring or faſcinating rats ſo that they might be taken alive. In conſequence of this, a great number of new traps, &c. were invented; and the following methods of alluring the rats to a certain place were publiſhed.

One of thoſe moſt eaſily and efficaciouſly practiſed is the trailing ſome pieces of their moſt favourite food, which ſhould be of the kind that has the ſtrongeſt ſcent, ſuch as toaſted cheeſe or broiled red herrings, from the holes or entrances of the cloſet to their receſſes in every part of the houſe or contiguous building. At the extremities, and in different parts of the courſe of this trailed track, ſmall quantities of meal, or any other kind of their food, ſhould be laid, to bring the greater number into the tracks, and to encourage them to purſue it to the place where they are intended to be taken: at that place, when time admits of it, a more plentiful repaſt is laid for them, and the trailing repeated for two or three nights.

Beſides this trailing and way-baiting, ſome of the moſt expert of the rat-catchers have a ſhorter, and perhaps

Rat. perhaps more effectual, method of bringing them together; which is, the calling them, by making such a kind of whistling noise as resembles their own call; and by this means, with the assistance of the way-baits, they call them out of their holes, and lead them to the repast prepared for them at the place designed for taking them. But this is much more difficult to be practised than the art of trailing; for the learning the exact notes or cries of any kind of beasts or birds, so as to deceive them, is a peculiar talent which is seldom attained: though some persons have been known who could call together a great number of cats; and there was a man in London who could bring nightingales, when they were within hearing, about him, and even allure them to perch on his hand, so as to be taken.

In practising either of those methods, of trailing or calling, great caution must be used by the operator to suppress and prevent the scent of his feet and body from being perceived; which is done by overpowering that scent by others of a stronger nature. In order to this, the feet are to be covered with cloths rubbed over with asafœtida, or other strong-smelling substances; and even oil of rhodium is sometimes used for this purpose, but sparingly, on account of its dearness, though it has a very alluring as well as disguising effect. If this caution of avoiding the scent of the operator's feet, near the track, and in the place where the rats are proposed to be collected, be not properly observed, it will very much obstruct the success of the attempt to take them; for they are very shy of coming where the scent of human feet lies very fresh, as it intimates to their sagacious instinct the presence of human creatures, whom they naturally dread. To the abovementioned means of alluring by trailing, way-baiting, and calling, is added another of a very material efficacy, which is, the use of oil of rhodium, which, like the marum Syriacum in the case of cats, has a very extraordinary fascinating power on these animals. This oil is extremely dear, and therefore sparingly used. It is exalted in a small quantity in the place, and at the entrance of it, where the rats are intended to be taken; particularly at the time when they are to be last brought together, in order to their destruction; and it is used also by smearing it on the surface of some of the implements used in taking by the method below described; and the effect it has in taking off their caution and dread, by the delight they appear to have in it, is very extraordinary.

It is usual, likewise, for the operator to disguise his figure as well as scent, which is done by putting on a sort of gown or cloak, of one colour, that hides the natural form, and makes him appear like a post or some such inanimate thing; which habit must likewise be scented as above, to overpower the smell of his person; and besides this, he is to avoid all motion till he has secured his point of having all the rats in his power.

When the rats are thus enticed and collected, where time is afforded, and the whole in any house and outbuildings are intended to be cleared away, they are suffered to regale on what they most like, which is ready prepared for them, and then to go away quietly for two or three nights; by which means those that are not allured the first night are brought afterwards, either by their fellows, or the effects of the trailing, &c. and will not fail to come duly again, if they are not disturbed or molested. But many of the rat-catchers make shorter work, and content themselves with what can be brought together in one night or two; but this is never effectual, unless where the building is small and entire, and the rats but few in number.

Rat ‖ Ratchets.

The means of taking them, when they are brought together, are various. Some entice them into a very large bag, the mouth of which is sufficiently capacious to cover nearly the whole floor of the place where they are collected; which is done by smearing some vessel, placed in the middle of the bag, with oil of rhodium, and laying in the bag baits of food. This bag, which before lay flat on the ground with the mouth spread open, is to be suddenly closed when the rats are all in. Others drive or fright them, by slight noises or motions, into a bag of a long form, the mouth of which, after all the rats are come in, is drawn up to the opening of the place by which they entered, all other ways of retreat being secured. Others, again, intoxicate or poison them, by mixing with the repast prepared for them the coculus Indicus or the nux vomica. They direct four ounces of the coculus Indicus, with twelve ounces of oat-meal, and two ounces of treacle or honey, made into a moist paste with strong-beer; but if the nux vomica be used, a much less proportion will serve than is here given of the coculus. Any similar composition of these drugs, with that kind of food the rats are most fond of, and which has a strong flavour, to hide that of the drugs, will equally well answer the end. If indeed the coculus Indicus be well powdered, and infused in the strong-beer for some time, at least half the quantity here directed will serve as well as the quantity before-mentioned. When the rats appear to be thoroughly intoxicated with the coculus, or sick with the nux vomica, they may be taken with the hand, and put into a bag or cage, the door of the place being first drawn to, lest those who have strength and sense remaining escape.

Rat-*Tails*, or *Arrests*. See Farriery, § xxxvi.

RATAFIA, a fine spirituous liquor, prepared from the kernels, &c. of several kinds of fruits, particularly of cherries and apricots.

Ratafia of cherries is prepared by bruising the cherries, and putting them into a vessel wherein brandy has been long kept; then adding to them the kernels of cherries, with strawberries, sugar, cinnamon, white pepper, nutmeg, cloves; and to 20 pound of cherries, 10 quarts of brandy. The vessel is left open ten or twelve days, and then stopped close for two months before it be tapped. Ratafia of apricots is prepared two ways, viz. either by boiling the apricots in white-wine, adding to the liquor an equal quantity of brandy, with sugar, cinnamon, mace, and the kernels of apricots; infusing the whole for eight or ten days; then straining the liquor, and putting it up for use: or else by infusing the apricots, cut in pieces, in brandy, for a day or two, passing it through a straining bag, and then putting in the usual ingredients.

RATCH, or Rash, in clock-work, a sort of wheel having twelve fangs, which serve to lift up the detents every hour, and make the clock strike. See Clock.

RATCHETS, in a watch, are the small teeth at the bottom of the fusy, or barrel, which stops it in winding up.

Rate.

RATE, a ſtandard or proportion, by which either the quantity or value of a thing is adjuſted.

RATES, in the navy, the orders or claſſes into which the ſhips of war are divided, according to their force and magnitude.

The regulation, which limits the rates of men of war to the ſmalleſt number poſſible, ſeems to have been dictated by conſiderations of political œconomy, or of that of the ſimplicity of the ſervice in the royal dockyards. The Britiſh fleet is accordingly diſtributed into ſix rates, excluſive of the inferior veſſels that uſually attend on naval armaments; as ſloops of war, armed ſhips, bomb-ketches, fire-ſhips and cutters, or ſchooners commanded by lieutenants.

Ships of the firſt rate mount 100 cannon, having 42-pounders on the lower deck, 24-pounders on the middle deck, 12-pounders on the upper deck, and 6-pounders on the quarter-deck and fore-caſtle. They are manned with 850 men, including their officers, ſeamen, marines, and ſervants.

In general, the ſhips of every rate, beſides the captain, have the maſter, the boatſwain, the gunner, the chaplain, the purſer, the ſurgeon, and the carpenter; all of whom, except the chaplain, have their mates or aſſiſtants, in which are comprehended the ſail-maker, the maſter at arms, the armourer, the captain's clerk, the gunſmith, &c.

The number of other officers are always in proportion to the rate of the ſhip. Thus a firſt rate has ſix lieutenants, ſix maſter's mates, twenty-four midſhipmen, and five ſurgeon's mates, who are conſidered as gentlemen: beſides the following petty officers; quarter-maſters and their mates, fourteen; boatſwain's mates and yeomen, eight; gunner's mates and aſſiſtants, ſix; quarter-gunners, twenty-five; carpenter's mates, two, beſides fourteen aſſiſtants; with one ſteward, and ſteward's mate to the purſer.

If the dimenſions of all ſhips of the ſame rate were equal, it would be the ſimpleſt and moſt perſpicuous method to collect them into one point of view in a table: but as there is no invariable rule for the general dimenſions, it muſt ſuffice to remark thoſe of ſome particular ſhips in each rate; for which purpoſe we have ſelected ſome of the lateſt conſtruction.

The Victory, which is among the laſt built of our firſt rates, is 222 feet 6 inches in length, from the head to the ſtern; the length of her keel, 151 feet 3 inches; that of her gun-deck, or lower deck, 186 feet; her extreme breadth is 51 feet 10 inches; her depth in the hold, 21 feet 6 inches; her burden, 2162 tons; and her poop reaches 6 feet before the mizen-maſt.

Ships of the ſecond rate carry 90 guns upon three decks, of which thoſe on the lower battery are 32-pounders; thoſe on the middle, 18-pounders; on the upper deck, 12-pounders; and thoſe on the quarter-deck, 6-pounders, which uſually amount to four or ſix. Their complement of men is 750, in which there are ſix lieutenants, four maſter's mates, 24 midſhipmen, and four ſurgeon's mates, 14 quarter-maſters and their mates, eight boatſwain's mates and yeomen, ſix gunner's mates and yeomen, with 22 quarter-gunners, two carpenter's mates, with 10 aſſiſtants, and one ſteward and ſteward's mate.

Ships of the third rate carry from 64 to 80 cannon, which are 31, 18, and 9 pounders. The 80-gun ſhips however begin to grow out of repute, and to give way to thoſe of 74, 70, &c. which have only two whole batteries; whereas the former have three, with 28 guns planted on each, the cannon of their upper deck being the ſame as thoſe on the quarter-deck and fore-caſtle of the latter, which are 9-pounders. The compliment in a 74 is 650, and in a 64, 500 men; having, in peace, four lieutenants, but in war, five; and when an admiral is aboard, ſix. They have three maſter's mates, 16 midſhipmen, three ſurgeon's mates, 10 quarter-maſters and their mates, ſix boatſwain's mates and yeomen, four gunner's mates and yeomen, with 18 quarter-gunners, one carpenter's mate, with eight aſſiſtants, and one ſteward and ſteward's mate under the purſer.

Ships of the fourth rate mount from 60 to 50 guns, upon two decks, and the quarter-deck. The lower tier is compoſed of 24-pounders, the upper tier of 12-pounders, and the cannon on the quarter-deck and fore-caſtle are ſix-pounders. The complement of a 50 gun ſhip is 350 men, in which there are three lieutenants, two maſter's mates, 10 midſhipmen, two ſurgeon's mates, eight quarter-maſters and their mates, four boatſwain's mates and yeomen, one gunner's mate and one yeoman, with 12 quarter-gunners, one carpenter's mate and ſix aſſiſtants, and a ſteward and ſteward's mate.

All veſſels of war, under the fourth rate, are uſually comprehended under the general name of *frigates*, and never appear in the line of battle. They are divided into the 5th and 6th rates; the former mounting from 40 to 32 guns, and the latter from 28 to 20. The largeſt of the fifth rate have two decks of cannon, the lower battery being of 18-pounders, and that of the upper deck of 9-pounders; but thoſe of 36 and 32 guns have one complete deck of guns, mounting 12-pounders, beſides the quarter-deck and fore-caſtle, which carry 6-pounders. The complement of a ſhip of 44 guns, is 280 men; and that of a frigate of 36 guns, 240 men. The firſt has three, and the ſecond two, lieutenants; and both have two maſter's mates, ſix midſhipmen, two ſurgeon's mates, ſix quarter-maſters and their mates, two boatſwain's mates and one yeoman, one gunner's mate and one yeoman, with 10 or 11 quarter-gunners, and one purſer's ſteward.

Frigates of the 6th rate carry nine-pounders, thoſe of 28 guns having three-pounders on their quarter-deck, with 200 men for their complement; and thoſe of 24, 160 men: the former has two lieutenants, the latter, one; and both have two maſter's mates four midſhipmen, one ſurgeon's mate, four quarter-maſters and their mates, one boatſwain's mate and one yeoman, one gunner's mate and one yeoman, with ſix or ſeven quarter-gunners, and one purſer's ſteward.

The ſloops of war carry from 18 to 8 cannon, the largeſt of which have ſix-pounders; and the ſmalleſt, viz. thoſe of 8 or 10 guns, four-pounders. Their officers are generally the ſame as in the 6th rates, with little variation; and their complements of men are from 120 to 60, in proportion to their force or magnitude. N. B. Bomb-veſſels are on the ſame eſtabliſhment as ſloops; but fire-ſhips and hoſpital-ſhips are on that of fifth rates.

Nothing more evidently manifeſts the great improvement of the marine art, and the degree of perfection

to which it has arrived in Britain, than the facility of managing our first rates; which were formerly esteemed incapable of government, unless in the most favourable weather of the summer.

Ships of the second rate, and those of the third, which have three decks, carry their sails remarkably well, and labour very little at sea. They are excellent in a general action, or in cannonading a fortress. Those of the third rate, which have two tiers, are fit for the line of battle, to lead the convoys and squadrons of ships of war in action, and in general to suit the different exigencies of the naval service.

The fourth-rates may be employed on the same occasions as the third-rates, and may be also destined amongst the foreign colonies, or on expeditions of great distance; since these vessels are usually excellent for keeping and sustaining the sea.

Vessels of the fifth rate are too weak to suffer the shock of a line of battle; but they may be destined to lead the convoys of merchant ships, to protect the commerce in the colonies, to cruize in different stations, to accompany squadrons, or be sent express with necessary intelligence and orders. The same may be observed of the sixth rates.

The frigates, which mount from 28 to 38 guns upon one deck, with the quarter-deck, are extremely proper for cruizing against privateers, or for short expeditions, being light, long, and usually excellent sailors.

RATEEN, or RATTEN, in commerce, a thick woollen stuff, quilled, woven on a loom with four treddles, like serges and other stuffs that have the whale or quilling. There are some rateens dressed and prepared like cloths; others left simply in the hair, and others where the hair or knap is frized. Rateens are chiefly manufactured in France, Holland, and Italy, and are mostly used in linings. The frize is a sort of coarse rateen, and the drugget is a rateen half linen half woollen.

RATIFICATION, an act approving of and confirming something done by another in our name.

RATIO, in arithmetic and geometry, is that relation of homogeneous things which determines the quantity of one from the quantity of another, without the intervention of a third.

Two numbers, lines, or quantities, A and B, being proposed, their relation one to another may be considered under one of these two heads: 1. How much A exceeds B, or B exceeds A; and this is found by taking A from B, or B from A, and is called *arithmetic reason*, or *ratio*. 2. Or how many times, and parts of a time, A contains B, or B contains A; and this is called *geometric reason* or *ratio*; (or, as Euclid defines it, it is the *mutual habitude*, or *respect*, of two magnitudes of the same kind, according to quantity; that is, as to how often the one contains, or is contained in, the other); and is found by dividing A by B, or B by A: and here note, that that quantity which is referred to another quantity, is called the *antecedent of the ratio*; and that to which the other is referred, is called the *consequent of the ratio*; as, in the ratio of A to B, A is the antecedent, and B the consequent. Therefore any quantity, as antecedent, divided by any quantity as a consequent, gives the ratio of that antecedent to the consequent.

Thus the ratio of A to B is $\frac{A}{B}$, but the ratio of B to A is $\frac{B}{A}$; and, in numbers, the ratio of 12 to 4 is $\frac{12}{4}=3$, or triple; but the ratio of 4 to 12 is $\frac{4}{12}=\frac{1}{3}$, or subtriple.

And here note, that the quantities thus compared must be of the same kind; that is, such as by multiplication may be made to exceed one the other, or as these quantities are said to have a ratio between them, which, being multiplied, may be made to exceed one another. Thus a line, how short soever, may be multiplied, that is, produced so long as to exceed any given right line; and consequently these may be compared together, and the ratio expressed: but as a line can never, by any multiplication whatever, be made to have breadth, that is, to be made equal to a superficies, how small soever; these can therefore never be compared together, and consequently have no ratio or respect one to another, according to quantity; that is, as to how often the one contains, or is contained in, the other.

RATIOCINATION, the act of reasoning. See REASONING.

RATION, or RATIAN, in the army, a portion of ammunition, bread, drink, and forage, distributed to each soldier in the army, for his daily subsistence, &c. The horse have ratios of hay and oats when they cannot go out to forage. The rations of bread are regulated by weight. The ordinary ration of a foot soldier is a pound and a half of bread per day. The officers have several rations according to their quality and the number of attendants they are obliged to keep. When the ration is augmented on occasions of rejoicings, it is called a *double ration*. The ship's crews have also their rations or allowances of biscket, pulse, and water, proportioned according to their stock.

RATIONALE, a solution, or account of the principles of some opinion, action, hypothesis, phenomenon, or the like.

RATIBOR, a town of Germany, in Silesia, and capital of a duchy of the same name, with a castle. It has been twice taken by the Swedes, and is seated on the river Oder, in a country fertile in corn and fruits, 15 miles north-east of Troppaw, and 142 east of Prague. E. Long. 22. 24. N. Lat. 50. 14.

RATISBON, an ancient, large, rich, handsome, and strong city of Germany, in Bavaria, free and imperial, with a bishop's fee, whose bishop is a prince of the empire. It is full of gentry; and there are very handsome structures, particularly three monasteries and three abbeys. The town-house is very magnificent, and in its hall the general diets of the empire meet; only in 1740, there being a war in Germany, the meeting of the diet was transferred to Frankfort on the Main, till after the death of the emperor Charles VII. It is seated on the Danube, and is pretty well fortified, over which river there is a stone bridge of 15 arches, so that in the time of war it is a passage of very great consequence. The inhabitants are Protestants, and all their magistrates must be of that persuasion; however, the Roman Catholics have the liberty of saying mass there once a-week. The abbot, and

and the two abbeſſes have the rank of prelates of the empire. Proviſions are very plentiful here, and they have a good trade in time of peace, the river on which it ſtands being navigable, and by which it communicates with a great part of Germany. E. Long. 11. 11. N. Lat. 48. 56.

RATLINES, or, as the ſailors call them *ratlins*, thoſe lines which make the ladder ſteps to go up the ſhrouds and puttocks, hence called the *ratlins of the ſhrouds*.

RATTLESNAKE. See CROTALUS.

RATTLESNAKE *Root*. See POLYGALA.

RATOLFZEL, a ſtrong town of Germany, in Suabia, near the weſt end of the lake Conſtance. It is ſeated on that part of it called *Bodenſee;* and belongs to the houſe of Auſtria, who took it from the duke of Wirtemburg, after the battle of Nordlingen. It is 12 miles weſt of the city of Conſtance.

RATZEBURG, or RATZEMBURG, an ancient town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and in the duchy of Lawenburgh, with a biſhop's ſee and a caſtle. The town depends on the duchy of Lawenburg, and the cathedral church on that of Ratzburg. It is ſeated on an eminence, and almoſt ſurrounded with a lake 25 miles in length and three in breadth. This place is noted for its excellent beer. E. Long. 10. 58. N. Lat. 53. 47.

RAVA, a town of Great Poland, and capital of a palatinate of the ſame name, with a fortified caſtle, where they keep ſtate priſoners. The houſes are built of wood, and there is a Jeſuits college. It is ſeated in a moraſs covered with water, which proceeds from the river Rava, with which it is ſurrounded. It is 45 miles ſouth of Bloſko, and 50 ſouth-weſt of Warſaw. The palatinate is bounded on the north by that of Bloſko, on the eaſt by that of Mazovia, on the ſouth by that of Sandomer, and on the weſt by that of Lencieza.

RAVELIN, in fortification, was anciently a flat baſtion placed in the middle of a curtin; but now a detached work compoſed only of two faces, which make a ſaliant angle without any flanks, and raiſed before the counterſcarp of the place. See FORTIFICATION.

RAVEN, in ornithology. See CORVUS.

RAVENGLAS, a town of Cumberland in England, ſituated between the rivers Irt and Eſk, which, with the ſea, encompaſs three parts of it; it is a well built place, and has a good road for ſhipping, which brings it ſome trade. E. Long. 0. 5. N. Lat. 54. 20.

RAVENSBURG, a county of Germany, in Weſtphalia, bounded on the north by the biſhoprics of Oſnaburg and Minden, on the eaſt by Lemgow, on the ſouth by the biſhopric of Paderborn, and on the weſt by that of Munſter. It belongs to the king of Pruſſia, and has its name from the caſtle of Ravenſburg.

RAVENSBURG, a free and imperial town of Germany in Algow in the circle of Swabia. It is well built, and the public ſtructures are handſome. The inhabitants are partly Proteſtants and partly Papiſts. It is ſeated on the river Chenſs, in E. Long. 9. 46. N. Lat. 47. 44.

RAVENNA, (anc. geog.), a noble city of Gallia Ciſpadana; a colony of Theſſalians, on the Adriatic, in waſhes or a boggy ſituation, which proved a natural ſecurity to it. The houſes all of wood, the communication by bridges and boats, and the town kept ſweet and clean by the tides carrying away the mud and ſoil, (Strabo). Anciently it had a port at the mouth of the Bedeſis; Auguſtus added a new port, capacious to hold a fleet, for the ſecurity of the Adriatic, between which and the city lay the Via Cæſaris. In the lower age it was the ſeat of the Oſtrogoths for 72 years; but being recovered by Narſes, Juſtinian's general, it became the reſidence of the exarchs, magiſtrates ſent by the emperor from Conſtantinople, for 175 years, when it was taken by the Longobards. It is ſtill called *Ravenna*, capital of Romania, in the pope's territory. It had a very flouriſhing trade till the ſea withdrew two miles from it, which has been a great detriment. The fortifications are of little importance, and the citadel is gone to ruin. It is now moſt remarkable for the excellent wine produced in its neighbourhood. The mauſoleum of Theodoric is ſtill to be ſeen, remarkable for being covered by a ſingle ſtone 28 feet in diameter and 15 thick. E. Long. 12. 15. N. Lat. 44. 22.

RAURICUM, (anc. geog.) a town of the Raurici, ſituate over againſt Abnoba, a mountain from which the Danube takes its riſe. A Roman colony led by L. Manutius Plancus the ſcholar and friend of Cicero: called *Colonia Rauriaca* (Pliny), *Rauricæ* (Inſcription), *Auguſta Rauricorum*. The town was deſtroyed in Julian's time. It is now commonly called *Augſt*, a village greatly decayed from what it formly was. It is ſituated on the Rhine, diſtant about two hours to the eaſt of Baſil. The country is now the canton of Baſil.

RAY (John), a celebrated botaniſt, was the ſon of Mr Roger Ray, a blackſmith, and was born at Black Notly in Eſſex in 1628. He received the firſt rudiments of learning at the grammar ſchool at Braintree; and in 1644 was admitted into Catharine hall in Cambridge, from whence he afterwards removed to Trinity college in that univerſity. He was at length made one of the ſenior fellows of that college, and took the degree of maſter of arts; but his intenſe application to his ſtudies having injured his health, he was obliged at his leiſure hours to exerciſe himſelf by riding or walking in the fields, which led him to the ſtudy of plants. He noted from Johnſon, Parkinſon, and the *Phytologia Britannica*, the places where curious plants grew; and in 1658 rode from Cambridge to the city of Cheſter, from whence he went into North Wales, viſiting many places, and among others the famous hill of Snowdon; returning by Shrewſbury and Glouceſter. In 1660 he publiſhed his *Catalogus Plantarum circa Cantabrigiam naſcentiam*, and the ſame year was ordained deacon and prieſt. In 1661 he accompanied Francis Willoughby, Eſq; and others in ſearch of plants and other natural curioſities, in the north of England and Scotland; and the next year made a weſtern tour from Cheſter, and through Wales, to Cornwall, Devonſhire, Dorſetſhire, Hampſhire, Wiltſhire, and other countries. He afterwards travelled with Mr Willoughby and other gentlemen through Holland, Germany, Italy, France, &c. took ſeveral tours in England, and was admitted

Ray. fellow of the Royal Society. In 1672, his intimate and beloved friend Mr Willoughby died in the 37th year of his age, at Middleton Hall, his seat in Yorkshire; "to the infinite and unspeakable loss and grief (says Mr Ray,) of myself, his friends, and all good men." There having been the closest and sincerest friendship between Mr Willoughby and Mr Ray, who were men of similar natures and tastes, from the time of their being fellow collegians, Mr Willoughby not only confided in Mr Ray, in his life-time, but also at his death: for he made him one of the executors of his will, and charged him with the education of his sons Francis and Thomas, leaving him also for life 60l. per annum. The eldest of these young gentlemen not being four years of age, Mr Ray, as a faithful trustee, betook himself to the instruction of them; and for their use composed his *Nomenclator Classicus*, which was published this very year 1672. Francis the eldest dying before he was of age, the younger become lord Middleton. Not many months after the death of Mr Willoughby, Mr Ray lost another of his best friends, bishop Wilkins; whom he visited in London the 18th of November 1672, and found near expiring by a total supression of urine for eight days. As it is natural for the mind, when it is hurt in one part, to seek relief from another; so Mr Ray, having lost some of his best friends, and being in a manner left destitute, conceived thoughts of marriage; and accordingly, in June 1673, did actually marry a gentlewoman of about 20 years of age, the daughter of Mr Oakely of Launton in Oxfordshire. Towards the end of this year, came forth his "Observations Topographical, Moral, &c." made in foreign countries; to which was added his *Catalogus Stirpium in exteris regionibus observatarum*: and about the same time, his *Collection of unusual or local English words*, which he had gathered up in his travels through the counties of England. After having published many books on subjects foreign to his profession, he at length resolved to publish in the character of a divine, as well as in that of a natural philosopher: in which view he published his excellent demonstration of the being and attributes of God, entitled *The wisdom of God manifested in the works of the Creation*, 8vo. 1697. The rudiments of this work were laid in some college lectures; and another collection of the same kind he enlarged and published under the title of *Three Physico theological Discourses, concerning the Chaos, Deluge, and Dissolution of the World*, 8vo. 1692. He died in 1705. He was modest, affable, and communicative; and was distinguished by his probity, charity, sobriety, and piety. He wrote a great number of works, the principal of which, besides those already mentioned, are, 1. *Catalogus Plantarum Angliæ*. 2. *Dictionariolum Trilingue secundum locos communes*. 3. *Historia Plantarum, Species, hactenus editas, aliasque insuper multas noviter inventas et descriptas complectens*, 3 vols. 4 *Methodus Plantarum nova, cum Tabulis*, 8vo. and several other works on plants. 6. *Synopsis Methodica Animalium quadrupedum et serpentini generis*, 8vo. 6. *Synopsis Methodica Avium et Piscium*. 7. *Historia Insectorum, opus posthumum*. 7. *Methodus Insectarum*. 9. Philosophical letters. &c.

RAY, in optics, a beam of light emitted from a radiant or luminous body. See LIGHT.

Rays, Reading.

Inflected RAYS, those rays of light which, on their near approach to the edges of bodies, in passing by them, are bent out of their course, being turned either from the body or towards it. This property of the rays of light is generally termed *diffraction* by foreigners, and Dr Hooke sometimes called it *deflection*.

Reflected RAYS, those rays of light, which, after falling upon the body, do not go beyond the surface of it, but are thrown back again.

Refracted RAYS, those rays of light which, after falling upon any medium, enter its surface, being bent either towards or from a perpendicular to the point on which they fell.

Pencil of RAYS, a number of rays issuing from a point of an object, and diverging in the form of a cone.

RAZOR, a well-known instrument, used by surgeons, barbers, &c. for shaving off the hair from various parts of the body.

RE, in grammar, an inseparable particle added to the beginning of words to double or otherwise modify their meaning; as in re-action, re-move, re-export, &c.

RE ACTION, in physiology, the resistance made by all bodies to the action or impulse of others that endeavour to change its state whether of motion or rest.

READING, the art of delivering written language with propriety, force, and elegance.

Delivery in reading ought to be less animated than in interested speaking.

Reason and experience demonstrate, that *delivery in reading ought to be less animated than in interested speaking*. In every exercise of the faculty of speech, and those expressions of countenance and gesture with which it is generally attended, we may be considered to be always in one of the two following situations: First, delivering our *bosom sentiments* on circumstances which relate to ourselves or others, or, secondly, *repeating* something that was spoken on a certain occasion for the amusement or information of an auditor. Now, if we observe the deliveries natural to these two situations, we shall find, that the first may be accompanied with every degree of expression which can manifest itself in us, from the lowest of sympathy to the most violent and energetic of the superior passions; while the latter, from the speaker's chief business being to repeat what he heard *with accuracy*, discovers only a faint imitation of those signs of the emotions which we suppose agitated him from whom the words were first borrowed.—The use and necessity of this difference of manner is evident; and if we are attentive to these natural signs of expression, we shall find them conforming with the greatest nicety to the slightest and most minute movements of the breast.

This repetition of another's words might be supposed to pass through the mouth of a second or third person; and in these cases, since they were not ear and eye witnesses of him who first spoke them, their manner of delivery would want the advantage necessarily arising from an immediate idea of the original one; hence, on this account, be a still less lively representation than that of the first *repeater*. But as, from a daily observation of every variety of speech and its associated signs of emotion, mankind soon become pretty well

Reading. well acquainted with them, and this in different degrees, according to their discernment, sensibility, &c. experience shows us that these latter *repeaters* (as we call them) might conceive and use a manner of delivery, which, though less *characteristic* perhaps, would on the whole be no way inferior to the first, as to the *common* natural expression proper for their situation. It appears therefore, that repeaters *of every degree* may be esteemed upon a level as to animation, and that our twofold distinction above contains accurately enough the whole variety of ordinary delivery;—we say *ordinary*, because

There is another very peculiar kind of delivery sometimes used in the person of a *repeater*, of which it will in this place be necessary to take some notice. What we mean here is *mimicry;* an accomplishment, which, when perfectly and properly displayed, never fails of yielding a high degree of pleasure. But since this pleasure chiefly results from the principle of *imitation* respecting *manner*, and not from the purport of the *matter* communicated; since, comparatively speaking, it is only attainable by few persons, and practised only on particular occasions;—on these accounts it must be refused a place among the modes of useful delivery taught us by *general* nature, and esteemed a qualification purely anomalous.

These distinctions with regard to a speaker's situation of mind premised, let us see to which of them an *author* and his *reader* may most properly be referred, and how they are circumstanced with regard to one another.

The matter of all books is, either what the author says in his *own* person, or an acknowledged recital of the words of *others:* hence an author may be esteemed both an *original* speaker and a *repeater*, according as what he writes is of the first or second kind. Now a reader must be supposed either actually to personate the author, or one whose office is barely to communicate what he has said to an auditor. But in the first of these suppositions he would, in the delivery of what is the author's own, evidently commence *mimic;* which being, as above observed, a character not acknowledged by general nature in this department, ought to be rejected as generally improper. The other supposition therefore must be accounted right; and then, as to the *whole* matter of the book, the reader is found to be exactly in the situation of a *repeater*, save that he takes what he delivers from the page before him instead of his memory. It follows then, in proof of our initial proposition, that, if we are directed by nature and propriety, the manner of our delivery in reading ought to be inferior in warmth and energy to what we should use, were the language before us the spontaneous effusions of our own hearts in the circumstances of those out of whose mouths it is supposed to proceed.

Evident as the purport of this reasoning is, it has not so much as been glanced at by the writers on the subject we now entered upon, or any of its kindred ones; which has occasioned a manifest want of accuracy in several of their rules and observations. Among the rest, this precept has been long reverberated from author to author as a perfect standard for propriety in reading. "Deliver yourselves in the same manner you would do, were the matter your own original sentiments uttered directly from the heart." As all kinds of delivery must have many things in common, the rule will in many articles be undoubtedly right; but, from what has been said above, it must be as certainly faulty in respect to several others; as it is certain nature never confounds by like signs two things so very different, as a *copy* and an *original*, an emanation darted immediately from the sun, and its weaker appearance in the lunar reflection. Reading.

The precepts we have to offer for improving the abovementioned rule, shall be delivered under the heads of *accent*, *emphasis*, *modulation*, *expression*, *pauses*, &c. 2

I. *Accent*. In attending to the affections of the voice when we speak, it is easy to observe, that, independent of any other consideration, one part of it differs from another, in *stress*, *energy*, or *force* of utterance. In words we find one syllable differing from another with respect to this mode; and in sentences one or more words as frequently vary from the rest in a similar manner. This stress with regard to *syllables* is called *accent*, and contributes greatly to the variety and harmony of language. Respecting *words*, it is termed *emphasis;* and its chief office is to assist the sense, force, or perspicuity of the sentence—of which more under the next head. Accent.

"Accent," as described in the Lectures on Elocution, "is made by us two ways; either by dwelling longer upon one syllable than the rest, or by giving it a smarter percussion of the voice in utterance. Of the first of these we have instances in the words *glōry*, *fāther*, *hōly;* of the last in *hat'tle*, *hab'it*, *bor'row*. So that accent with us is not referred to tune, but to time; to quantity, not quality; to the more equable or precipitate motion of the voice, not to the variation of the notes or inflexions."

In *theatric declamation*, in order to give it more pomp and solemnity, it is usual to dwell longer than common upon the unaccented syllables; and the author now quoted, has endeavoured to prove (p. 51. 54.) the practice faulty, and to show (p. 55.) that "though it (i. e. true solemnity) may demand a slower utterance than usual, yet (it) requires that the same proportion in point of quantity be observed in the syllables, as there is in musical notes when the same tune is played in quicker or slower time." But that this deviation from ordinary speech is not a fault, as our author asserts; nay, that on the contrary it is a real beauty when kept under proper regulation, the following observations it is hoped will sufficiently prove.

(I.) It is a truth of the most obvious nature, that those things which on their application to their proper senses have a power of raising in us certain ideas and emotions, are ever *differently* modified in their constituent parts when different effects are produced in the mind; and also (II.) that, within proper bounds, were we to suppose these constituent parts to be proportionally encreased or diminished as to *quantity*, this effect would still be the same as to *quality*.—For instance: The different ideas of strength, swiftness, &c. which are raised in us by the same species of animals, is owing to the different form of their corresponding parts; the different effects of music on the passions, to the different airs and movements of the melody; and the different expressions of human speech, to a difference

Reading. ference in tone, speed, &c. of the voice. And these peculiar effects would still remain the same, were we to suppose the animals above alluded to, to be *greater* or *lesser*, within their proper bounds; the movement of the music *quicker* or *slower*, provided it did not palpably interfere with that of some other species; and the pitch of the voice *higher* or *lower*, if not carried out of the limits in which it is observed on similar occasions naturally to rove. Farther (III.) since, respecting the emotions more especially, there are no rules to determine *à priori* what effect any particular attribute or modification of an object will have upon a percipient, our knowledge of this kind must evidently be gained from experience. Lastly, (IV.) In every art imitating nature we are pleased to see the characteristic members of the pattern *heightened* a little farther than perhaps it ever was carried in any real example, provided it be not bordering upon some ludicrous and disagreeable provinces of excess.

Now for the application of these premisses.—To keep pace and be consistent with the *dignity* of the tragic muse, the delivery of her language should necessarily be dignified; and this it is plain from observation (I.) cannot be accomplished otherwise than by something different in the manner of it from that of ordinary speech; since *dignity* is essentially different from *familiarity*. But how must we discover this different manner? By attending to nature: and in this case she tells us, that besides using a *slower* delivery, and greater *distinctness* of the words (which every thing merely *grave* requires, and gravity is a *concomitant* of dignity, though not its *essence*), we must dwell a little *longer* upon the *unaccented* syllables than we do in common. As to what our author observes in the above quotation, of *dignity*'s only requiring a *slower* utterance than ordinary, while the proportion of the syllables as to quantity continues the same; it is apprehended the remark (II.) respecting *quickness* and *slowness* of movement, will show it to be not altogether true. For since the delivery is not altered in *form*, its expression must be still of the same kind, and perhaps what may be rightly suggested by the term *gravely familiar*.

But something farther may yet be said in defence of this *artificial* delivery, as our author calls it. Is not the movement of any thing, of whatever species, when dignified or solemn, in general of an *equable* and *deliberate* nature (as in the minuet, the military step, &c.)? And in theatrical declamation, is not the propensity to introduce this *equableness* so strong, that it is almost *impossible* to avoid it wholly, were we ever so determined to do it? If these two queries be answered in the affirmative (as I am persuaded they will), while the first supports our argument for the *propriety* of the manner of delivery in question, the second discovers a kind of *necessity* for it. And that this manner may be carried a little *farther* in quantity on the *stage* than is usual in *real life*, the principle (IV.) of heightening nature will justify, provided fashion (which has ever something to do in these articles) give it a sanction; for the *precise* quantity of several heightenings may be varied by this great legislator, almost at will. Reading.

II. *Emphasis*. As *emphasis* is not a thing annexed to particular words, as *accent* is to syllables, but owes its rise chiefly to the *meaning* of a passage, and must therefore vary its seat according as that meaning varies, it will be necessary to explain a little farther the general idea given of it above. 3 Emphasis.

> Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
> Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
> Brought death into the world, and all our wo, &c.
> Sing heav'nly muse, &c.

Supposing, in reference to the above well-known lines, that originally other beings, besides men, had disobeyed the commands of the Almighty, and that the circumstance were well-known to us, there would fall an *emphasis* upon the word *man's* in the first line, and hence it would be read thus;

> Of *man's* first disobedience, and the fruit, &c.

But if it were a notorious truth, that mankind had transgressed in a peculiar manner more than once, the *emphasis* would fall on *first*, and the line be read,

> Of man's *first* disobedience, &c.

Again, admitting death (as was really the case) to have been an unheard of and dreadful punishment brought upon man in consequence of his transgression; on that supposition the third line would be read,

> Brought *death* into the world, &c.

But if we were to suppose mankind knew there was such an evil as death in other regions, though the place they inhabited had been free from it till their transgression; the line would run thus,

> Brought death into the *world*, &c.

Now from a proper delivery of the above lines, with regard to any one of the suppositions we have chosen, out of several others that might in the same manner have been imagined, it will appear that the *emphasis* they illustrate is effected by a manifest *delay* in the pronunciation, and a tone something *fuller* and *louder* than is used in ordinary; and that its office is solely to determine the meaning of a sentence with reference to something said before, pre-supposed by the author as general knowledge, or in order to remove an ambiguity where a passage is capable of having more senses given it than one.

But, supposing in the above example, that none of the senses there pointed out were precisely the true one, and that the meaning of the lines were no other than what is obviously suggested by their simple construction; in that case it may be asked, if in reading them there should be no word dignified with the emphatical accompanyments above described?—The answer is, Not one with an emphasis of the *same* kind as that we have just been illustrating; yet it is nevertheless true, that on hearing these lines well read, we shall find some words distinguished from the rest by a manner of delivery bordering a little upon it (A). And these words

(A) The following lines will illustrate both these kinds of stresses: For, to convey their right meaning, the word ANY is evidently to be pronounced louder and fuller than those with the accents over them.

> Get wealth and place, if possible with grace;
> If not, by ANY means get wealth and place. POPE.

This couplet is accented in the manner we find it in the *Essay on Elocution* by *Mason*. And if, according to the judg-

Reading. words will in general be such as seem the most important in the sentence, or on other accounts to merit this distinction. But as at best it only *enforces*, *graces*, or *enlivens*, and not *fixes* the meaning of any passage, and even caprice and fashion (B) have often a hand in determining its place and magnitude, it cannot properly be reckoned an *essential* of delivery. However, it is of too much moment to be neglected by those who would wish to be good readers; and for the sake of distinction, we may not unaptly denominate both the kinds of energies in question, by the terms *emphasis of sense*, and *emphasis of force* (C).

Now from the above account of these two species of emphasis it will appear, "that in reading, as in speaking, the first of them must be determined entirely by the *sense* of the passage, and always made *alike*: But as to the other, *taste* alone seems to have a right of fixing its situation and quantity."—Farther: Since the more essential of these two energies is solely the work of *nature* (as appears by its being *constantly* found in the common conversation of people of all kinds of capacities and degrees of knowledge), and the most ignorant person never fails of using it *rightly* in the effusions of his own heart, it happens very luckily, and ought always to be remembered, that provided we understand what we read, and give way to the dictates of our own feeling, the *emphasis of sense* can scarce ever avoid falling spontaneously upon its proper place.

Here it will be necessary to say something by way of reply to a question which will naturally occur to the mind of every one.—As the rule for the *emphasis of sense* requires we should understand what we read before it can be properly used, it is incumbent upon us never to attempt to read what we have not previously studied for that purpose? In answer to this, it must be observed, that though such a step will not be without its advantages; yet, as from the fairness of printed types, the well-known pauses of punctuation, and a long acquaintance with the phraseology and construction of our language, &c. experience tells us it is *possible* to comprehend the sense at the first reading, a previous perusal of what is to be read does not seem *necessary* to *all*, though, if they would wish to appear to advantage, it may be *expedient* to *many*; and it is this circumstance which makes us venture upon extemporary reading, and give it a place among our amusements.—Similar remarks might be made with regard to *modulation*, *expression*, &c. did not what is here observed naturally anticipate them. Reading.

4 Modulation

III. *Modulation* (D). Every person must have observed, that, in speaking, the voice is subject to an alteration of sound, which in some measure resembles the movement of a tune. These sounds, however, are evidently nothing like so much varied as those that are strictly musical; and we have attempted to show in the preceding chapter, that, besides this, they have an essential difference in themselves. Nevertheless, from the general similitude of these two articles, they possess several terms in common; and the particular we have now to examine is in both of them called *modulation*. This affection of the voice, being totally *arbitrary*, is differently characterized in different parts of the world; and, through the power of custom, every place is inclined to think their own the only one natural and agreeable, and the rest affected with some barbarous twang or ungainly variation (E). It may be observed, however, that though there is a general uniform cast

judgment of this author, the words thus distinguished are to have an emphatical stress, it must be of the inferior kind abovementioned, and which a little farther on we call *emphasis of force*; while the word ANY in a different type alone possesses the other sort of energy, and which is there contradistinguished by the term *emphasis of sense*.

(B) Among a number of people who have had proper opportunities of learning to read in the best manner it is now taught, it would be difficult to find two, who, in a given instance, would use the *emphasis of force* alike, either as to place or quantity. Nay some scarce use any at all: and others will not scruple to carry it *much* beyond any thing we have a precedent for in common discourse; and even now and then throw it upon words so very trifling in themselves, that it is evident they do it with no other view, than for the sake of the *variety* it gives to the modulation——This practice, like the introduction of discords into music, may without doubt be indulged now and then; but, were it too frequent, the capital intent of these energies would manifestly either be destroyed or rendered dubious.

(C) The first of these terms answers to the *simple emphasis* described in the *Lectures on Elocution*, and the second *nearly* to what is there called *complex*. The difference lies in this. Under *complex emphasis* the author seems (for he is far from being clear in this article) to include the *tones* simply considered of all the emotions of the mind; as well the *tender* and *languid*, as the *forcible* and *exulting*. Our term is intended to be confined to such modes of expression alone as are marked with an apparent *stress* or *increase* of the voice.

(D) The author of the *Introduction to the Art of Reading*, not allowing that there is any variation of tone, as to *high* and *low*, in the delivery of a complete period or sentence, places modulation solely in the diversification of the key-note and the variety of syllables, as to *long* or *short*, *swift* or *slow*, *strong* or *weak*, and *loud* or *soft*. As we are of a different opinion, our idea of modulation is confined purely to *harmonious inflexions of voice*. These qualities of words, it is true, add greatly both to the force and beauty of delivery; yet, since some of them are fixed and not arbitrary, (as *long* and *short*), and the others (of *swift* and *slow*, *strong* and *weak*, *loud* and *soft*) may be considered as modes of execution which do not affect the modulation as to *tone*, it will agree best with our plan to esteem these properties as respectively belonging to the established laws of *pronunciation*, and the *imitative* branch of expression mentioned in the end of the ensuing head.

(E) From what accounts we have remaining of the modulation of the ancients, it appears to have been highly ornamented, and apparently something not unlike our modern *recitative*; particularly that of their theatric declamation was music in its strictest sense, and accompanied with instruments. In the course of time and the progress of refinement, this modulation became gradually more and more simple, till it has now lost the genius of music, and is entirely regulated by taste. At home here, every one has heard the *sing-song* cant, as it is called, of

Ti ti dum dum, ti ti dum ti dum de,
Ti dum ti dum, ti dum ti dum dum de,

which, though disgustful now to all but mere rustics on account of its being out of fashion, was very probably the favourite modulation in which heroic verses were recited by our ancestors. So fluctuating are the taste and practices of

Reading. caſt or faſhion of modulation peculiar to every country, yet it by no means follows, that there is or can be any thing fixed in its application to particular paſſages; and therefore we find different people will, in any given inſtance, uſe modulations ſomething different, and neverthelefs be each of them equally agreeable.

But, quitting theſe general remarks, we ſhall (as our purpoſe requires it) conſider the properties of modulation a little more minutely.

Firſt, then, we may obſerve, that, in ſpeaking, there is a particular ſound (or *key-note*, as it is often called) in which the modulation for the moſt part runs, and to which its occaſional inflexions, either above or below, may in ſome reſpects be conceived to have a reference, like that which common muſic has to its key-note. Yet there is this difference between the two kinds of modulation, that whereas the firſt always concludes in the key-note, the other frequently concludes a little below it (r). This key-note, in ſpeaking, is generally the ſound given at the outſet of every complete ſentence or period; and it may be obſerved on ſome occaſions to vary its pitch through the limits of a muſical interval of a conſiderable magnitude. The tones, that fall a little lower than the key at the cloſe of a ſentence or period, are called *cadences*. Theſe cadences, if we are accurate in our diſtinctions, will, with reſpect to their offices, be found of two kinds; though they meet ſo frequently together, that it may be beſt to conceive them only as anſwering a double purpoſe. One of theſe offices is to aſſiſt the ſenſe, and the other to decorate the modulation. An account of the firſt may be ſeen in the ſection on *Pauſes*; and the latter will be found to ſhew itſelf pretty frequently in every thing grave and plaintive, or in poetic deſcription and other highly ornamented language, where the mind is by its influence brought to feel a placid kind of dignity and ſatisfaction. Theſe two cadences, therefore, may be conveniently diſtinguiſhed by applying to them reſpectively the epithets *ſignificant* and *ornamental*.

We have already obſerved, that reading ſhould in ſome things differ from ſpeaking; and the particular under conſideration ſeems to be one which ought to vary a little in theſe arts. For,

Modulation in reading ſerves a twofold purpoſe. At the ſame time that it gives pleaſure to the ear on the principles of harmony, it contributes through that medium to preſerve the attention. And ſince written language (when not purely dramatical) is in general more elegant in its conſtruction, and muſical in its periods, than the oral one; and ſince many intereſting particulars are wanting in reading, which are preſent in ſpeaking, that contribute greatly to fix the regard of the hearer; it ſeems reaſonable, in order to do juſtice to the language, and in part to ſupply the incitements of attention juſt alluded to, that in the former of theſe two articles a modulation ſhould be uſed ſomething more harmonious and artificial than in the latter. Agreeably to this reaſoning, it is believed, we ſhall find every reader, on a narrow examination, adopt more or leſs a modulation thus ornamented: tho', after all, it muſt be acknowledged there are better grounds to believe, that the practice has been hitherto directed intuitively by nature, than that it was diſcovered by the inductions of reaſon. We ſhall conclude this head with a rule for modulation in reading. "In every thing dramatic, colloquial, or of ſimple narrative, let your modulation be the ſame as in ſpeaking; but when the ſubject is flowery, ſolemn, or dignified, add ſomething to its harmony, diverſify the key-note, and increaſe the frequency of cadences in proportion to the merit of the compoſition."

Reading.

It will readily be ſeen, that the precepts here drawn from a compariſon between ſpeaking and reading, would be very inadequate, were they left deſtitute of the aſſiſtance of *taſte*, and the opportunity of *frequently hearing and imitating maſterly readers*. And indeed to theſe two great auxiliaries we might very properly have referred the whole matter at once, as capable of giving ſufficient directions, had we not remembered that our plan required us to ſound ſeveral of our rules as much on the principles of a philoſophical analyſis, as on thoſe more familiar ones which will be found of greater efficacy in real practice.

5 Expreſſion as to the tones of the voice.

IV. *Expreſſion*. 1. There is no compoſition in muſic, however perfect as to key and melody, but, in order to do juſtice to the ſubject and ideas of the author, will require, in the performing, ſomething more than an exact adherence to *tune* and *time*. This ſomething is of a nature too which perhaps can never be adequately pointed out by any thing graphic, and reſults entirely from the taſte and feeling of the performer. It is that which chiefly gives muſic its power over the paſſions, and characteriſes its notes with what we mean by the words *ſweet*, *harſh*, *dull*, *lively*, *plaintive*, *joyous*, &c. for it is evident every ſound, conſidered abſtractedly, without any regard to the movement, or high and low, may be thus modified. In practical muſic, this commanding particular is called *Expreſſion*; and as we find certain tones analagous to it frequently coaleſcing with the modulation of the voice, which indicate our paſſions and affections (thereby more particularly pointing out the meaning of what we ſay), the term is uſually applied in the ſame ſenſe to ſpeaking and reading.

Theſe tones are not altogether peculiar to man. Every animal, that is not dumb, has a power of making ſeveral of them. And from their being able, unaſſiſted by words, to manifeſt and raiſe their kindred emotions, they conſtitute a kind of language of themſelves. In this language of the heart man is eminently

of mankind! But whether the power of language over the paſſions has received any advantage from the change juſt mentioned, will appear at leaſt very doubtful, when we recollect the ſtories of its former triumphs, and the inherent charms of muſical ſounds.

(r) As muſical ſounds have always an harmonical reference to a key or fundamental note, and to which the mind is ſtill ſecretly attending, no piece of muſic would appear perfect, that did not cloſe in it, and ſo naturally put an end to expectation. But as the tones uſed in ſpeech are not muſical, and therefore cannot refer harmonically to any other ſound, there can be no neceſſity that this terminating ſound (and which we immediately below term the *cadence*), ſhould either be uſed at all, or follow any particular law as to form, &c. farther than what is impoſed by taſte and cuſtom.

Reading. eminently conversant; for we not only understand it in one another, but also in many of the inferior creatures subjected by providence to our service.

The expression here illustrated is one of the most essential articles in good reading, since it not only gives a finishing to the sense, but, on the principles of sympathy and antipathy, has also a peculiar efficacy in interesting the heart. It is likewise an article of most difficult attainment; as it appears from what follows, that a masterly reader ought not only to be able to incorporate it with the modulation properly as to *quality*, but in any degree as to *quantity*.

Every thing written being a proper imitation of speech, expressive reading must occasionally partake of all its tones. But from what was said above, of the difference between reading and speaking, it follows, that these signs of the emotions should be less strongly characterised in the former article than in the latter. Again, as several of these tones of expression are in themselves agreeable to the mind, and raise in us agreeable emotions (as those of *pity*, *benevolence*, or whatever indicates *happiness*, and *goodness* of heart), and others disagreeable (as those of a *boisterous*, *malevolent*, and *depraved* nature, &c.) it farther appears, since reading is an art *improving* and not *imitating* nature, that, in whatever degree we abate the expressiveness of the tones above alluded to in the first case, it would be eligible to make a greater abatement in the latter. But as to the quantities and proportional magnitudes of these abatements, they, like many other particulars of the same nature, must be left solely to the taste and judgment of the reader.

To add one more remark, which may be of service on more accounts than in suggesting another reason for the doctrine above. Let it be remembered, that though in order to acquit himself agreeably in this article of expression, it will be necessary every reader should *feel* his subject as well as *understand* it; yet, that he may preserve a proper ease and masterliness of delivery, it is also necessary he should guard against discovering too much emotion and perturbation.

From this reasoning we deduce the following rule for the tones which indicate the passions and emotions.

"In reading, let all your tones of expression be borrowed from those of common speech, but something more faintly characterised. Let those tones, which signify any disagreeable passion of the mind, be still more faint than those which indicate their contrary; and preserve yourself so far from being affected with the subject, as to be able to proceed through it with that peculiar kind of ease and masterliness, which has its charms in this as well as every other art."

We shall conclude this section with the following observation, which relates to speaking as well as reading. When words fall in our way, whose "sounds seem an echo to the sense," as *squirr*, *buzz*, *hum*, *rattle*, *hiss*, *jarr*, &c. we ought not to pronounce them in such a manner as to heighten the imitation, except in light and ludicrous subjects. For instance, they should not in any other case be sounded *squir.r.r—buzz.z.z—hum.m.m—r.r.rattle*, &c. On the contrary, when the the imitation lies in the *movement*, or *slow and structure of a whole passage* (which frequently happens in poetry, the delivery may always be allowed to give a heightening to it with the greatest propriety; as in the following instances, out of a number more which every experienced reader will quickly recollect. Reading.

In these deep solitudes and awful cells,
Where heav'nly-pensive Contemplation dwells,
And ever-musing Melancholy reigns—
Pope's Eloisa to Abelard.

With easy course
The vessels glide, unless their speed be stopp'd
By dead calms, that oft lie on these smooth seas.
Dyer's Fleece.

Softly sweet in Lydian measure,
Soon he soothe'd her soul to pleasure.
Dryden's Ode on St Cecilia's day.

Still gathering force it smokes, and, urg'd amain,
Whirls, leaps, and *thunders down impetuous to the plain.*
Pope's Iliad, B. 13.

For who to dumb forgetfulness a prey,
This pleasing anxious being ere resign'd,
Left the warm precincts of the cheerful day,
Nor cast *one longing ling'ring look behind?*
Grey's Elegy.

2. Besides the particular tones and modifications of voice above described, which always accompany and express our inward agitations, nature has in these cases endowed us with another language, which, instead of the ear, addresses itself to the eye, thereby giving the communications of the heart a double advantage over those of the understanding, and *as* a double chance to preserve so inestimable a blessing. This language is what arises from the different, almost involuntary movements and configurations of the face and body in our emotions and passions, and which, like that of tones, every one is formed to understand by a kind of intuition. 6 Expression as to the face and gesture.

When men are in any violent agitation of mind, this co-operating *expression* (as it is called) of face and gesture is very strongly marked, and totally free from the mixture of any thing which has a regard to gracefulness, or what appearance they may make in the eyes of others. But in ordinary conversation, and where the emotions are not so warm, fashionable people are perpetually insinuating, into their countenance and action, whatever they imagine will add to the ease and elegance of their deportment, or impress on the spectator an idea of their amiableness and breeding. Now though the above-mentioned natural organical signs of the emotions should accompany every thing spoken, yet from what was observed in the introductory part of this article (like the tones we have just treated upon) they should in reading be much less strongly expressed, and those suffer the greatest diminution that are in themselves the most ungainly. And as it was in the last section recommended to the reader to preserve himself as far from being affected in all passionate subjects, as to be able to keep a temperate command over the various affections of the voice, &c.; so under the sanction of this subordinate feeling he may accompany his delivery more frequently with any easy action or change of face, which will contribute to set off his manner, and make it agreeable on the principles of art.

As these calm decorations of action (as we may call them) are not altogether natural, but have their rise from a kind of institution, they must be modelled by the practices of the polite. And though mankind differ from one another scarce more in any particular, than in that of talents for adopting the graceful actions of the body, and hence nothing nothing determinate can be said of their nature and frequency, yet even those, most

most happily calculated to acquit themselves well in their use, might profit by considering that it is better greatly to abridge the display, than to over-do it ever so little. For the peculiar modesty of deportment, with which the inhabitants of this kingdom are endowed, makes us in common endeavour to suppress many signs of an agitated mind; and in such cases the bodily ones in particular are very sparingly used. We have also a natural and rooted dislike to any kind of affectation; and to no species, that we can recollect, a greater, than to that which is seen in a person who pretends to mimicry and courtly gesture, without possessing the advantages and talents they require, and of which not many people, comparatively speaking, have any remarkable share.

The inference of this is too obvious to need drawing out, and we would particularly recommend it to the consideration of those readers who think the common occurrences of a newspaper, &c. cannot be properly delivered without a good deal of elbow-room.

Although it is impossible to come to particulars in any directions of this kind, yet there is one article of our present subject on which a serviceable remark may be made. In ordinary discourse, when we are particularly pressing and earnest in what we say, the eye is naturally thrown upon those to whom we address ourselves: And in reading, a turn of this organ now and then upon the hearers, when any thing very remarkable or interesting falls in the way, has a good effect in gaining it a proper attention, &c. But this should not be too frequently used; for if so, besides its having a tendency to confound the natural importance of different passages, it may not be altogether agreeable to some to have their own reflections broken in upon by a signal, which might be interpreted to hint at their wanting regulation.

One observation more, and then we shall attempt to recapitulate the substance of this section in the form of a precept. Though it is, when strictly examined, inconsistent, both in speaking and reading, to imitate with action what we are describing, yet as in any thing *comic* such a practice may suggest ideas that will *accord* with those of the subject, it may there be now and then indulged in either of these articles.

"In a manner similar to that directed with regard to tones, moderate your bodily expressions of the signs of the emotions. And in order to supply, as it were, this deficiency, introduce into your carriage such an easy gracefulness, as may be consistent with your acquirements in these particulars, and the necessary dread which should ever be present of falling into any kind of affectation or grimace."

V. *Pauses.* Speech consisting of a succession of distinct words, must naturally be liable (both from a kind of accident, and a difficulty there may be in beginning certain sounds or portions of phrases immediately on the ending of certain others) to several small intermissions of voice; of which, as they can have no meaning, nothing farther need here be said. There are, however, some pauses, which the sense necessarily demands, and to these the substance of this section is directed.

The pauses are in part to distinguish the members of sentences from one another, the terminations of complete periods, and to afford an opportunity for taking breath. Besides this, they have a very graceful effect in the modulation, on the same account they are so essential in music.—In both articles, like blank spaces in pictures, they set off and render more conspicuous whatsoever they disjoin or terminate.

Were language made up of nothing but short colloquial sentences, these pauses, though they might do no harm, and would generally be graceful, would however be superseded as to use by the completeness and *narrowness*, as we may say, of the meaning. But in more diffuse language, composed of several detached sentences, and which require some degree of attention in order to take in the sense, the intermissions of voice under consideration are of the greatest service, by signifying to the mind the progress and completion of the whole passage. Now, though in extensive and differently formed periods there may be members whose completeness of sense might be conceived of various degrees, and hence might seem to require a set of pauses equally numerous; yet, since the sense does not altogether depend upon these intermissions, and their ratios to one another, if capable of being properly defined, could not be accurately observed, grammarians have ventured to conceive the whole class of pauses as reducible to the four or five kinds now in use, and whose marks and ratios are well known (G); presuming that under the eye of taste, and with the assistance of a particular to be next mentioned, they would not fail in all cases to suggest intermissions of voice suitable to the sense. But in many of these extensive and complex periods, rounded with a kind of redundancy of matter, where the full sense is long suspended, and the final words are not very important, there would be some hazard of a misapprehension of the termination, had we not more evident and infallible notice of it than that which is given by the pause. This notice is the *cadence*, referred to in the section on *Modulation*; which, as is there observed, besides the ornamental variety it affords, appears from these remarks to be a very necessary and serviceable article in perspicuous delivery.

As this cadence naturally accompanies the end of every entire sense, circumstanced as above-mentioned, it may sometimes fall before the *semicolon*, but more generally before the *colon*, as well as the period: For these marks are often found to terminate a complete sense; and in these cases, the relation what follows has to what went before, is signified to the mind by the relative shortness of the stop, and the form of introducing

(G) Supposing the *comma* (,) one *time*, the *semicolon* (;) will be two; the *colon* (:) three, and the *period* (.) as also the marks of *interrogation* (?) and *admiration* (!) four of these times. The blank line (— or ---), and the *breaks* between *paragraphs*, intimate still greater times, and by the same analogy may be reckoned a double and quadruple period respectively. Now and then these blank lines are placed immediately *after* the ordinary points, and then they are conceived only as separating for the *eye* the different natures of the matter;—as a question from an answer;—precept from example,—premises from inferences, &c. in which case their import is evident. But of late some authors have not scrupled to confound these distinctions; and to make a blank serve for all the pauses universally, or the mark of an indefinite rest, the quantity or which is left to the determination of the reader's taste. A practice, it is imagined, too destructive of the intended precision of these typical notices to be much longer adopted.

cing the additional matter. Nor can any bad consequence arise from thus founding distinctions on ratios of time, which it may be said are too nice to be often rightly hit upon; for if a confusion should happen between that of the *colon* and *period*, there is perhaps so trifling a difference between the nature of the passages they succeed, as to make a small inaccuracy of no consequence. And as to the rests of the semicolon and period, it will not be easy to mistake about them, as their ratio is that of two to one. Add to this the power which the matter and introduction of the subsequent passages have to rectify any slight error here made, and we shall be fully satisfied, that the pauses, as usually explained, with the cadence above described, and a proper knowledge of the language, will convey sufficient information to the understanding of the constructive nature of the passages after which they are found.

It may be observed, that in natural speech, according to the warmth and agitation of the speaker, the rests are often short and injudiciously proportioned, and hence that every thing thus delivered cannot be so graceful as it might have been from a proper attention to their magnitude and effects.

Pauses then, though chiefly subjected to the sense, are, as was remarked at the outset, serviceable in beautifying the modulation, &c.—And since books are often inaccurately printed as to points, and people's tastes differ some little about their place and value, it appears, that, "Although in reading great attention should be paid to the stops, yet a greater should be given to the sense, and their correspondent times occasionally lengthened beyond what is usual in common speech;" which observation contains all that we shall pretend to lay down by way of rule for the management of pauses in the delivery of written language.

As there are two or three species of writing, which have something singular in them, and with regard to the manner in which they should be read, a few *particular* remarks seem necessarily required, we shall conclude this article with laying them before the reader.—

1. Of Plays, and such like CONVERSATION-PIECES. Writings of this kind may be considered as intended for two different purposes; one to unfold subject matter for the exercise of theatric powers; and the other to convey amusement, merely as fable replete with pleasing incidents and characteristic manners. Hence there appears to be great latitude for the display of a *consistent* delivery of these performances: for while, on one hand, a good reader of very inferior talents for mimicry may be heard with a tolerable degree of pleasure; on the other, if any person is qualified to give a higher degree of life and force to the dialogue and characters by delivering them as an actor, he must be fully at liberty to start from the confinement of a chair to a posture and area more suited to his abilities, and, if he be not deceived in himself, his hearers will be considerable gainers by the change.—The next article is

2. Sermons or other ORATIONS, which in like manner may be conceived intended for a double purpose. First, as matter for the display of oratorical powers; and secondly, as persuasive discourses, &c. which may be read like any other book. Therefore it appears (for reasons similar to those above) that according as clergymen are possessed of the talents of elocution, they may consistently either rehearse their sermons, in the manner of an extemporary harangue, or deliver them in the more humble capacity of one who is content to entertain and instruct his hearers with reading to them his own or some other person's written discourse.

That either of these manners of delivery (or a mixture of them), in either of the cases above-mentioned, is agreeable, we find on a careful examination. For this will show us how frequently they run into one another, and that we are so far from thinking such transitions wrong, that, without a particular attention that way, we scarce ever perceive them at all.

3. Poetry is the next and last object of our present remarks. This is a very peculiar kind of writing, and as much different from the language of ordinary discourse as the movements of the dance are from common walking. To ornament and improve whatever is subservient to the pleasures and amusements of life, is the delight of human nature. We are also pleased with a kind of *excess* in any thing which has a power to amuse the fancy, inspire us with enthusiasm, or awaken the soul to a consciousness of its own importance and dignity. Hence one pleasure, at least, takes its rise, that we feel in contemplating the performances of every art; and hence the language of poetry, consisting of a measured rythmus, harmonious cadences, and an elevated picturesque diction, has been studied by the ingenious, and found to have a powerful influence over the human breast in every age and region. There is such an affinity between this language and music, that they were in the earlier ages never separated; and though modern refinement has in a great measure destroyed this union, yet it is with some degree of difficulty in rehearsing these divine compositions we can forget the singing of the muse.

From these considerations (and some kindred ones mentioned in sect. iii.) in repeating verses, they are generally accompanied with a modulation rather more ornamented and musical than is used in any other kind of writing. And accordingly, as there seems to be the greatest propriety in the practice, the rule for this particular in the section just referred to, will allow any latitude in it that can gain the sanction of taste and pleasure.

Rhymes in the lighter and more soothing provinces of poetry are found to have a good effect; and hence (for reasons like those just suggested) it is certainly absurd to endeavour to smother them by a feeble pronunciation, and running one line precipitately into another, as is often affected to be done by many of our modern readers and speakers. By this method they not only destroy one source of pleasure intended by the composer (which though not great is nevertheless genuine), but even often supply its place with what is really disagreeable, by making the rhymes, as they are interruptedly perceived, appear accidental blemishes of a different style, arising from an unmeaning recurrence of similar sounds. With regard then to reading verses terminated with rhyme, the common rule, which directs to pronounce the final words *full*, and to distinguish them by a slight pause even where is none required by the sense, seems the most rational, and consequently most worthy of being followed.

READ-

READING, a town of Berkshire in England, pleasently seated on the river Kenneth, near the confluence with the Thames. It had once a fine rich monastery, of which there are large ruins remaining. It had also a castle built by king Henry I. but it was afterwards levelled with the ground. It is a corporation, enjoys several privileges, and sends two members to parliament. The two navigable rivers render it a fit place for trade. W. Long. 1. 0. N. Lat. 51. 25.

READINGS, or *Various* READINGS, in criticism, are the different manner of reading the texts of authors in ancient manuscripts, where a diversity has arisen from the corruption of time, or the ignorance of copyists. A great part of the business of critics lies in settling the readings by confronting the various readings of the several manuscripts, and considering the agreement of the words and sense.

Readings are also used for a sort of commentary or gloss on a law, text, passage, or the like, to show the sense an author takes it in, and the application he conceives to be made of it.

REAL (Cæsar Vichard de St), a polite French writer, son of a counsellor to the senate of Chambery in Savoy. He came young to France, distinguished himself at Paris by several ingenious productions, and resided there a long time without title or dignity, intent upon literary pursuits. He died at Chamberry in 1692, advanced in years, though not in circumstances. He was a man of great parts and penetration, a lover of the sciences, and particularly fond of history. A complete edition of his works was printed at Paris, in 3 vols 4to. 1745, and another in 6 vols 12mo.

REALISTS, a sect of school-philosophers formed in opposition to the nominalists.

Under the Realists are included the Scotists, Thomists, and all excepting the followers of Ocham. Their distinguishing tenet is, that universals are realities, and have an actual existence out of an idea or imagination; or, as they express it in the schools, a *parte rei:* whereas the nominals contend, that they exist only in the mind, and are only ideas, or manners of conceiving things.

REALITY, in the schools, a diminutive of *res*, "thing," first used by the Scotists, to denote a thing which may exist of itself; or which has a full and absolute being of itself, and is not considered as a part of any other.

REALM, a country which gives its head or governor the denomination of a *king*.

REAUMUR (Rene Antoine Ferchault de), a celebrated French philosopher, born of a good family at Rochelle in 1683. He early discovered a genius for mathematics and physics, which he went to Paris to improve; he was admitted a member of the academy of sciences in 1708, and justified their choice by his many observations in various branches of natural philosophy. His capital work was his History of Insects, 6 vols 4to. He died in 1757, in consequence of a fall; and left a great variety of papers and natural curiosities to the academy of sciences. He is represented as a man of most amiable qualities.

REAR, a term frequently used in composition, to denote something behind, or backwards, in respect of another; in opposition to *van*.

REAR *of an Army*, signifies, in general, the hindermost part of an army, battalion, regiment, or squadron; also the ground behind either.

REAR-*Guard*, is that body of an army which marches after the main-body: for the march of an army is always composed of an advance-guard, a main-body, and a rear-guard; the first and last commanded by a general. The old grand-guards of the camp, always form the rear-guard of the army, and are to see that every thing come safe to the new camp.

REAR *Half files*, are the three hindmost ranks of the battalion, when it is drawn up six deep.

REAR-*Line*, of an army encamped, is always 1200 feet at least from the centre line; both of which run parallel to the front line, as also to the reserve.

REAR-*Rank*, is the last rank of a battalion, when drawn up, and generally 16 or 18 feet from the centre line when drawn in open order.

REASON, a faculty or power of the mind, whereby it distinguishes good from evil, truth from falsehood. See METAPHYSICS, n° 266—282.

REASONING, RATIOCINATION, the exercise of that faculty of the mind called *reason;* or it is an act or operation of the mind, deducing some unknown proposition from other previous ones that are evident and known. See LOGIC, Part III.

REBATE, or REBATEMENT, in commerce, a term much used at Amsterdam for an abatement in the price of several commodities, when the buyer, instead of taking time, advances ready money.

REBATEMENT, in heraldry, a diminution or abatement of the bearings in a coat of arms. See ABATEMENT.

REBELLION, *Rebellio*, among the Romans, was where those who had been formerly overcome in battle, and yielded to their subjection, made a second resistance: But with us it is generally used for the taking up of arms traiterously against the king, whether by natural subjects, or others when once subdued; and the word *rebel* is sometimes applied to him who wilfully break a law; also to a villein disobeying his lord.

There is a difference between enemies and rebels. Enemies are those who are out of the king's allegiance: therefore subjects of the king, either in open war, or rebellion, are not the king's enemies, but traitors. And David prince of Wales, who levied war against Edward I. because he was within the allegiance of the king, had sentence pronounced against him as a traitor and rebel. Private persons may arm themselves to suppress rebels, enemies, &c.

REBELLIOUS ASSEMBLY, is a gathering together of twelve persons or more, intending or going about to practise or put in use unlawfully, of their own authority, any thing to change the law or statutes of the realm; or to destroy the inclosures of any ground, or banks of any fish-pond, pool, or conduit, to the intent the same shall lie waste and void; or to destroy the deer in any park, or any warren of conies, dove-houses, or fish in ponds; or any house, barns, mills, or bays; or to burn stacks of corn; or abate rents, or prices of victuals, &c.

REBUTTER, (from the Fr. *bouter*, i. e. *repellere*, to put back or bar) is the answer of defendant to plain-

plaintiff's *surrejoinder;* and plaintiff's anſwer to the rebutter is called a *surrebutter:* but it is very rare the parties go ſo far in pleading.

Rebutter is alſo where a man by deed or fine grants to warranty any land or hereditament to another; and the perſon making the warranty, or his heir, ſues him to whom the warranty is made, or his heir or aſſignee, for the ſame thing; if he who is ſo ſued, plead the deed or fine with warranty, and pray judgment, if the plaintiff ſhall be received to demand the thing which he ought to warrant to the party, againſt the warranty in the deed, &c. this is called a *rebutter.* And if I grant to a tenant to hold without impeachment of waſte, and afterwards implead him for waſte done, he may debar me of this action by ſhewing my grant; which is a rebutter.

REBUS, an ænigmatical repreſentation of ſome name, &c. by uſing figures or pictures inſtead of words, or parts of words. Camden mentions an inſtance of this abſurd kind of wit in a gallant who expreſſed his love to a woman named *Roſe Hill,* by painting in the border of his gown a roſe, a hill, an eye, a loaf, and a well; which, in the ſtyle of the rebus, reads, "*Roſe Hill I love well.*" This kind of wit was long practiſed by the great, who took the pains to find devices for their names. It was, however, happily ridiculed by Ben Johnſon, in the humourous deſcription of Abel Drugger's device in the Alchemiſt; by the Spectator, in the device of Jack of Newbery; at which time the rebus, being raiſed to ſign-poſts, was grown out of faſhion at court.

RECAPITULATION, is a ſummary, or a conciſe and tranſient enumeration of the principal things inſiſted on in the preceding diſcourſe, whereby the force of the whole is collected into one view. See Oratory, n° 35, 127.

RECEIPT, or Receit, in commerce, an acquittance, or diſcharge, in writing, intimating that the party has received a certain ſum of money, either in full for the whole debt, or in part, or on account.

RECEIVER, in pneumatics, a glaſs veſſel for containing the thing on which an experiment in the air-pump is to be made.

Receiver, *receptor* or *receptator,* in law, is commonly underſtood in a bad ſenſe, and uſed for ſuch as knowingly receive ſtolen goods from thieves, and conceal them. This crime is felony, and the puniſhment is tranſportation for 14 years.

RECEPTACULUM, in botany, one of the ſeven parts of fructification defined by Linnæus to be the baſe which connects or ſupports the other parts.

RECEPTACULUM chyli, or *Pecquet's reſervatory,* the reſervoir or receptacle for the chyle, ſituated in the left ſide of the upper vertebra of the loins, under the aorta and the veſſels of the left kidney.

RECHABITES, a kind of religious order among the ancient Jews, inſtituted by Jonadab the ſon of Rechab, comprehending only his own family and poſterity.

Their founder preſcribed them three things: firſt, not to drink any wine; ſecondly, not to build any houſes, but to dwell in tents; and thirdly, not to ſow any corn, or plant vines. Theſe rules the Rechabites obſerved with great ſtrictneſs.

RECHEAT, in hunting, a leſſon which the huntſman plays on the horn, when the hounds have loſt their game, to call them back from purſuing a counter ſcent.

RECIPE, in medicine, a preſcription, or remedy, to be taken by a patient: ſo called becauſe always beginning with the word *recipe,* i. e. *take;* which is generally denoted by the abbreviature ℞.

RECIPROCAL, in general, ſomething that is mutual, or which is returned equally on both ſides, or that affects both parties alike.

Reciprocal *Terms,* among logicians, are thoſe which have the ſame ſignification; and conſequently are convertible, or may be uſed for each other.

Reciprocal *Figures,* in geometry, thoſe which have the antecedents and conſequents of the ſame ratio in both figures.

RECITATIVO, or Recitative, in muſic, a kind of ſinging, that differs but little from ordinary pronunciation; ſuch as that in which the ſeveral parts of the liturgy are rehearſed in cathedrals; or that wherein the actors commonly deliver themſelves on the theatre at the opera, when they are to expreſs ſome action or paſſion; to relate ſome event; or reveal ſome deſign.

RECKONING, or a *Ship's* Reckoning, in navigation, is that account whereby at any time it may be known where the ſhip is, and on what courſe or courſes ſhe is to ſteer, in order to gain her port; and that account taken from the log-board is called the *dead reckoning.* See Navigation.

RECLAIMING, or Reclaming, in our ancient cuſtoms, a lord's purſuing, proſecuting, and recalling, his vaſſal, who had gone to live in another place without his permiſſion.

Reclaiming is alſo uſed for the demanding of a perſon, or thing, to be delivered up to the prince or ſtate to which it properly belongs; when, by any irregular means, it is come into another's poſſeſſion.

Reclaiming, in falconry, is taming a hawk, &c. and making her gentle and familiar.

A partridge is ſaid to reclaim, when ſhe calls her young ones together, upon their ſcattering too much from her.

RECLUSE, among the Papiſts, a perſon ſhut up in a ſmall cell of an hermitage, or monaſtery, and cut off, not only from all converſation with the world, but even with the houſe. This is a kind of voluntary impriſonment, from a motive either of devotion or penance.

The word is alſo applied to incontinent wives, whom their huſbands procure to be thus kept in perpetual impriſonment in ſome religious houſe.

Recluſes were anciently very numerous. They took an oath never to ſtir out of their retreat: and having entered it, the biſhop ſet his ſeal upon the door; and the recluſe was to have every thing neceſſary for the ſupport of life, conveyed to him through a window. If he was a prieſt, he was allowed a ſmall oratory, with a window, which looked into the church, thro' which he might make his offerings at the maſs, hear the ſinging, and anſwer thoſe who ſpoke to him; but this window had curtains before it, ſo that he could not be ſeen. He was allowed a little garden, adjoining to his cell, in which he might plant a few herbs, and breathe a little freſh air. If he had diſciples, their

cells

cells were contiguous to his, with only a window of communication, through which they conveyed necessaries to him, and received his instructions. If a recluse fell sick, his door might be opened for persons to come in and assist him, but he himself was not to stir out.

RECOGNITION, in law, an acknowledgment; a word particularly used in our law-books for the first chapter of the statute 1 Jac. I. by which the parliament acknowledged, that, after the death of queen Elisabeth, the crown had rightfully descended to king James.

RECOGNIZANCE, in law, is an obligation of record, which a man enters into before some court of record or magistrate duly authorised, with condition to do some particular act; as to appear at the assizes, to keep the peace, to pay a debt, or the like. It is in most respects like another bond: the difference being chiefly this, that the bond is the creation of a fresh debt or obligation *de novo*, the recognizance is an acknowledgment of a former debt upon record; the form whereof is, "that A. B. doth acknowledge to owe to our lord the king, to the plaintiff, to C. D. or the like, the sum of ten pounds," with condition to be void on performance of the thing stipulated: in which case the king, the plaintiff, C. D. &c. is called the cognizee, *is cui cognoscitur*; as he that enters into the recognizance is called the cognizor, *is qui cognoscit*. This being certified to, or taken by the officer of some court, is witnessed only by the record of that court, and not by the party's seal: so that it is not in strict propriety a deed, though the effects of it are greater than a common obligation; being allowed a priority in point of payment, and binding the lands of the cognizor from the time of enrolment on record.

RECOIL, or REBOUND, the starting backward of a fire-arm after an explosion. Mersennus tells us, that a cannon 12 feet in length, weighing 6400 lb. gives a ball of 24 lb. an uniform velocity of 640 feet *per* second. Putting, therefore, $W=6400$, $w=14$, $V=640$, and $v=$ the velocity with which the cannon recails; we shall have (because the monumentums of the cannon and ball are equal) $Wv=wV$; and so $v=\frac{wV}{W}=\frac{24\times 64}{6400}=2,4$; that is, it would recoil at the rate of $2\frac{4}{10}$ feet *per* second, if free to move.

RECOLLECTION, a mode of thinking, by which ideas sought after by the mind are found and brought to view.

RECONNOITRE, in military affairs, implies to view and examine the state of things, in order to make a report thereof.

Parties ordered to reconnoitre are to observe the country and the enemy; to remark the routes, conveniences, and inconveniences of the first; the position, march, or forces of the second. In either case, they should have an expert geographer, capable of taking plans readily: he should be the best mounted of the whole, in case the enemy happen to scatter the escorte, that he may save his works and ideas. See WAR.

RECORD, an authentic testimony in writing, contained in rolls of parchment, and preserved in a court of record. See COURT.

Trial by RECORD, a species of trial which is used only in one particular instance: and that is where a matter of record is pleaded in any action, as a fine, a judgment, or the like; and the opposite party pleads, *nul tiel record*, that there is no such matter of record existing. Upon this, issue is tendered and joined in the following form, "and this he prays may be inquired of by the record, and the other doth the like;" and hereupon the party pleading the record has a day given him to bring it in, and proclamation is made in court for him to "bring forth the record by him in pleading alleged, or else he shall be condemned;" and, on his failure, his antagonist shall have judgment to recover. The trial, therefore, of this issue, is merely by the record: for, as Sir Edward Coke observes, a record or enrolment is a monument of so high a nature, and importeth in itself such absolute verity, that if it be pleaded that there is no such record, it shall not receive any trial by witness, jury, or otherwise, but only by itself. Thus titles of nobility, as whether earl or no earl, baron or no baron, shall be tried by the king's writ or patent only, which is matter of record. Also in case of an alien, whether alien friend or enemy, shall be tried by the league or treaty between his sovereign and ours; for every league or treaty is of record. And also, whether a manor be held in ancient demesne or not, shall be tried by the record of domesday in the king's exchequer.

RECORDER, a person whom the mayor and other magistrates of a city or corporation associate to them, for their better direction in matters of justice and proceedings in law; on which account this person is generally a counsellor, or other person well skilled in the law.

The recorder of London is chosen by the lord mayor and aldermen; and as he is held to be the mouth of the city, delivers the judgment of the courts therein, and records and certifies the city-customs.

RECOVERY, *or Common* RECOVERY, in English law, a species of assurance by matter of record; concerning the original of which it was observed under the article TAIL, that common recoveries were invented by the ecclesiastics to elude the statutes of mortmain; and afterwards encouraged by the sinesse of the courts of law in 12 Ed. IV. in order to put an end to all fettered inheritances, and bar not only estates-tail, but also all remainders and reversions expectant thereon. We have here, therefore, only to consider, first, the *nature* of a common recovery; and, secondly, its *force* and *effect*.

1. A common recovery is a suit or action, either actual or fictitious: and in it the lands are recovered against the tenant of the freehold; which recovery, being a supposed abjudication of the right, binds all persons, and vests a free and absolute fee-simple in the recoveror. To explain this as clearly and concisely as possible, let us, in the first place, suppose David Edwards to be tenant of the freehold, and desirous to suffer a common recovery, in order to bar all entails, remainders, and reversions, and to convey the same in fee-simple to Francis Golding. To effect this, Golding is to bring an action against him for the lands; and he accordingly sues out a writ called a *præcipe quod reddat*, because these were its initial or most operative words when the law-proceedings were in Latin. In this writ the demandant Golding alleges, that the defendant

ant Edwards (here called the tenant) has no legal title to the land; but that he came into possession of it after one Hugh Hunt had turned the demandant out of it. The subsequent proceedings are made up into a record or recovery roll, in which the writ and complaint of the demandant are first recited: whereupon the tenant appears, and calls upon one Jacob Morland, who is supposed, at the original purchase, to have warranted the title to the tenant; and thereupon he prays, that the said Jacob Morland may be called in to defend the title which he so warranted. This is called the *voucher*, "vocatio," or calling of Jacob Morland to warranty; and Morland is called the *vouchee*. Upon this Jacob Morland, the vouchee, appears, is impleaded, and defends the title. Whereupon Golding the demandant desires leave of the court to imparl, or confer with the vouchee in private; which is (as usual) allowed him. And soon afterwards the demandant Golding returns to court; but Morland the vouchee disappears, or makes default. Whereupon judgment is given for the demandant Golding, now called the *recoveror*, to recover the lands in question against the tenant Edwards, who is now the recoveree: and Edwards has judgment to recover of Jacob Morland lands of equal value, in recompense for the lands so warranted by him, and now lost by his default; which is agreeable to the doctrine of warranty mentioned in the preceding chapter. This is called the *recompense*, or *recovery in value*. But Jacob Morland having no lands of his own, being usually the crier of the court, (who, from being frequently thus vouched, is called the *common vouchee*), it is plain that Edwards has only a nominal recompence for the lands so recovered against him by Golding; which lands are now absolutely vested in the said recoveror by judgment of law, and seisin thereof is delivered by the sheriff of the county. So that this collusive recovery operates merely in the nature of a conveyance in fee-simple, from Edwards the tenant in tail to Golding the purchaser.

The recovery here described, is with a single voucher only; but sometimes it is with a double, treble, or farther voucher, as the exigency of the case may require. And indeed it is now usual always to have a recovery with double voucher at the least: by first conveying an estate of freehold to any indifferent person, against whom the *præcipe* is brought; and then he vouches the tenant in tail, who vouches over the common vouchee. For, if a recovery be had immediately against tenant in tail, it bars only such estate in the premises of which he is then actually seised; whereas if the recovery be had against another person, and the tenant in tail be vouched, it bars every latent right and interest which he may have in the lands recovered. If Edwards therefore be tenant of the freehold in possession, and John Barker be tenant in tail in remainder, here Edwards doth first vouch Barker, and then Barker vouches Jacob Morland the common vouchee; who is always the last person vouched, and always makes default; whereby the demandant Golding recovers the land against the tenant Edwards, and Edwards recovers a recompense of equal value against Barker the first vouchee; who recovers the like against Morland the common vouchee, against whom such ideal recovery in value is always ultimately awarded.

This supposed recompense in value is the reason why the issue in tail is held to be barred by a common recovery. For, if the recoveree should obtain a recompence in lands from the common vouchee (which there is a possibility in contemplation of law, though a very improbable one, of his doing) these lands would supply the place of those so recovered from him by collusion, and would descend to the issue in tail. The reason will also hold with equal force as to most remaindermen and reversioners, to whom the possibility will remain and revert, as a full recompense for the reality which they were otherwise entitled to: but it will not always hold; and therefore, as Pigott says, the judges have been even *astuti*, in inventing other reasons to maintain the authority of recoveries. And, in particular, it hath been said, that though the estate-tail is gone from the recoveree; yet it is not destroyed, but only transferred, and still subsists; and will ever continue to subsist (by construction of law) in the recoveror, his heirs and assigns: and as the estate-tail so continues to subsist for ever, the remainders or reversions expectant on the determination of such estate-tail can never take place.

To such aukward shifts, such subtile refinements, and such strange reasoning, were our ancestors obliged to have recourse, in order to get the better of that stubborn statute *de donis*. The design for which these contrivances were set on foot, was certainly laudable; the unrivetting the fetters of estates-tail, which were attended with a legion of mischiefs to the commonwealth: but, while we applaud the end, we cannot but admire the means. Our modern courts of justice have indeed adopted a more manly way of treating the subject: by considering common recoveries in no other light than as the formal mode of conveyance by which tenant in tail is enabled to aliene his lands. But, since the ill consequences of fettered inheritances are now generally seen and allowed, and of course the utility and expedience of setting them at liberty are apparent, it hath often been wished, that the process of this conveyance was shortened, and rendered less subject to niceties, by either totally repealing the statute *de donis*; which perhaps, by reviving the old doctrine of conditional fees, might give birth to many litigations: or by vesting in every tenant in tail, of full age, the same absolute fee-simple at once, which now he may obtain whenever he pleases, by the collusive fiction of a common recovery; though this might possibly bear hard upon those in remainder or reversion, by abridging the chances they would otherwise frequently have, as no recovery can be suffered in the intervals between term and term, which sometimes continue for near five months together: or, lastly, by empowering the tenant in tail to bar the estate-tail by a solemn deed, to be made in term-time, and enrolled in some court of record; which is liable to neither of the other objections, and is warranted not only by the usage of our American colonies, but by the precedent of the statute 21 Jac. I. c. 19. which, in the case of a bankrupt tenant in tail, empowers his commissioners to sell the estate at any time, by deed indented and enrolled. And if, in so national a concern, the emoluments of the officers concerned in passing recoveries are thought to be worthy attention, those might be provided for in the fees to be paid upon each enrollment.

2. The force and effect of common recoveries may

Recovery || Recruits.

appear, from what has been ſaid, to be an abſolute bar not only of all eſtates tail, but of remainders and reverſions expectant on the determination of ſuch eſtates. So that a tenant in tail may, by this method of aſſurance, convey the lands held in tail to the recoveror, his heirs and aſſigns, abſolutely free and diſcharged of all conditions and limitations in tail, and of all remainders and reverſions. But, by ſtatute 34 & 35 H. VIII. c. 20. no recovery had againſt tenant in tail of the king's gift, whereof the remainder or reverſion is in the king, ſhall bar ſuch eſtate-tail, or the remainder or reverſion of the crown. And by the ſtatute 11 H. VII. c. 20. no woman, after her huſband's death, ſhall ſuffer a recovery of lands ſettled on her by her huſband, or ſettled on her huſband and her by any of his anceſtors. And by ſtatute 14 Eliz. c. 8. no tenant for life, of any ſort, can ſuffer a recovery ſo as to bind them in remainder or reverſion. For which reaſon, if there be tenant for life, with remainder in tail, and other remainders over, and the tenant for life is deſirous to ſuffer a valid recovery, either he, or the tenant to the *præcipe* by him made, muſt vouch the remainder-man in tail, otherwiſe the recovery is void: but if he does vouch ſuch remainder-man, and he appears and vouches the common vouchee, it is then good; for if a man be vouched and appears, and ſuffers the recovery to be had, it is as effectual to bar the eſtate-tail as if he himſelf were the recoveree.

In all recoveries, it is neceſſary that the recoveree, or tenant to the *præcipe*, as he is uſually called, be actually ſeiſed of the freehold, elſe the recovery is void. For all actions to recover the ſeiſin of lands muſt be brought againſt the actual tenant of the freehold, elſe the ſuit will loſe its effect; ſince the freehold cannot be recovered of him who has it not. And, though theſe recoveries are in themſelves fabulous and fictitious, yet it is neceſſary that there be *actores fabulæ*, properly qualified. But the nicety thought by ſome modern practitioners to be requiſite in conveying the legal freehold, in order to make a good tenant to the *præcipe*, is removed by the proviſions of the ſtatute 14 Geo. II. c. 20. which enacts, with a retroſpect and conformity to the ancient rule of law, that, though the legal freehold be veſted in leſſees, yet thoſe who are entitled to the next freehold eſtate in remainder, or reverſion, may make a good tenant to the *præcipe;* and that, though the deed or fine which creates ſuch tenant be ſubſequent to the judgment of recovery, yet if it be in the ſame term, the recovery ſhall be valid in law: and that though the recovery itſelf do not appear to be entered, or be not regularly entered on record, yet the deed to to make a tenant to the *præcipe*, and declare the uſes of the recovery, ſhall after a poſſeſſion of 20 years be ſufficient evidence on behalf of a purchaſer for valuable conſideration, that ſuch recovery was duly ſuffered.

RECREANT, Cowardly, *Faint-hearted;* formerly a word very reproachful. See Battel.

RECREMENT, in chemiſtry, ſome ſuperfluous matter ſeparated from ſome other that is uſeful; in which ſenſe it is the ſame with *ſcoriæ*, *fæces*, and *excrements*.

RECRIMINATION, in law, an accuſation brought by the accuſed againſt the accuſer upon the ſame fact.

RECRUITS, in military affairs, new-raiſed ſoldiers deſigned to ſupply the place of thoſe who have loſt their lives in the ſervice, or who are diſabled by age or wounds.

Rectangle || Recurrents.

RECTANGLE, in geometry, the ſame with a right-angled parallellogram. See Geometry.

RECTIFICATION, in chemiſtry, is nothing but the repetition of a diſtillation or ſublimation ſeveral times, in order to render the ſubſtance purer, finer, and freer from aqueous and earthy parts.

Rectification *of Spirits*. See Distillation.

RECTIFIER, in navigation, an inſtrument conſiſting of two parts, which are two circles, either laid one upon, or let into the other, and ſo faſtened together in their centres, that they repreſent two compaſſes, one fixed, the other moveable; each of them divided into the 32 points of the compaſs, and 360°, and numbered both ways, from the north and the ſouth, ending at the eaſt and weſt, in 90°.

The fixed compaſs repreſents the horizon, in which the north and all the other points of the compaſs are fixed and immoveable.

The moveable compaſs repreſents the mariners compaſs; in which the north and all other points are liable to variation.

In the centre of the moveable compaſs is faſtened a ſilk thread, long enough to reach the outſide of the fixed compaſs. But if the inſtrument be made of wood, there is an index inſtead of the thread.

Its uſe is to find the variation of the compaſs, to rectify the courſe at ſea; having the amplitude or azimuth given.

RECTIFYING *the* Globe. See Geography, n° 33—35.

RECTILINEAR, in geometry, right-lined; thus figures whoſe perimeter conſiſts of right lines, are ſaid to be rectilinear.

RECTITUDE, in philoſophy, refers either to the act of judging or of willing; and therefore whatever comes under the denomination of rectitude is either what is true or what is good, theſe being the only objects about which the mind exerciſes its two faculties of judging and willing.

Moral rectitude, or uprightneſs, is the chooſing and purſuing thoſe things which the mind, upon due inquiry and attention, clearly perceives to be good; and avoiding thoſe that are evil.

RECTOR, a term applied to ſeveral perſons whoſe offices are very different: as, 1. The rector of a pariſh is a clergyman that has the charge and cure of a pariſh, and poſſeſſes all the tithes, &c. 2. The ſame name is alſo given to the chief elective officer in ſeveral foreign univerſities, particularly in that of Paris. 3. Rector is alſo uſed in ſeveral convents for the ſuperior officer who governs the houſe: and the Jeſuits give this name to the ſuperiors of ſuch of their houſes as are either ſeminaries or colleges.

RECTORY, a pariſh-church, parſonage, or ſpiritual living, with all its rights, tythes and glebes.

Rectory is alſo ſometimes uſed for the rector's manſion or parſonage-houſe.

RECTUM, in anatomy, the third and laſt of the large inteſtines or guts. See Anatomy, n° 354.

RECTUS, in anatomy, a name common to ſeveral pair of muſcles, ſo called on account of the ſtraightneſs of their fibres.

RECURRENTS, in anatomy, a name given to ſe-

Recurvirostra || Redans.

several large branches of nerves sent out by the par vagum from the upper part of the thorax to the larynx.

RECURVIROSTRA, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of grallæ. The beak is fubulated, bent back, sharp and flexible at the point; the feet are webbed, and furnished with three toes. There is but one species, viz. the avocetta, a native of the southern parts of Europe. See CCLIV. fig. 9.

RECUSANTS, such persons as acknowledge the pope to be the supreme head of the church, and refuse to acknowledge the king's supremacy; who are hence called *Popish recusants*. These are, in England, charged with double taxes; not merely as Romanists, but as recusants.

RED, one of the colours called *simple* or *primary;* being one of the shades into which the light naturally divides itself when refracted through a prism. See CHROMATICS.

RED, in dyeing, see that article.—Some reckon six kinds or casts of red, viz. scarlet-red, crimson-red, madder-red, half-grain red, lively orange-red, and scarlet of cochineal: but it is easy to see that there can be but one proper species of red; namely, the reflection of the light exactly in such a manner as it is refracted by the prism; all other shades being adulterations of that pure colour, with yellow, brown, &c.

RED, in heraldry. See GULES.

RED-*Breast*, in ornithology. See MOTACILLA.

RED-*Book* of the exchequer, an ancient record or manuscript volume, in the keeping of the king's remembrancer, containing divers miscellany treatises relating to the times before the conquest.

RED *Russia*, or *Little Russia*, a province of Poland, bounded on the west by Upper Poland, on the north by Lithuania, on the east by the country of the Little Tartars, and on the south by Moldavia, Transilvania, and a part of Hungary. It comprehends Russia properly so called, Volhinia, and Podolia. It is about 650 miles in length, and from 150 to 250 in breadth. It consists chiefly of large fields, but little cultivated on account of the frequent inroads of the Tartars, and because there is no water-carriage. It had the name of *Red Russia*, from the colour of the hair of its inhabitants. Russia, properly so called, comprehends the three palatinates of Leopol, or Lemburg, Belsko, and Chelm.

RED *Sea*, or *Arabic Gulph*, a sea which separates Asia from Africa. It is very long in proportion to its breadth; and its navigation is extremely difficult on account of the many rocks and shoals with which it abounds. It extends from the Capes Aden and Socotra, which form the Straits of Babelmandel to the town of Suez, situated on the isthmus between Asia and Africa.

RED-*Shank*, in ornithology. See SCOLOPAX.

RED-*Start*, a species of MOTACILLA.

RED-*Wing*. See TURDUS.

REDANS, in field fortification, are a kind of indented works, lines, or faces, forming sallying and re-entering angles, flanking one another; generally used on the sides of a river which runs through a garrison town. They were used before bastions were invented, and are by some thought preferable to them.

Reddendum || Reduction.

REDDENDUM, in law, is used substantively for the clause in a lease wherein the rent is reserved to the lessor. The proper place for it is next after the limitation of estate.

REDDLE, a soft, heavy, red marle, of great use in colouring; and being washed and freed from sand is often sold by our druggists under the name of *bole armenic*.

REDEMPTION, in law, a faculty or right of re-entering upon lands, &c. that have been sold and assigned, upon reimbursing the purchase-money with legal costs.

REDI (Francis), an Italian physician and polite scholar, was born at Arezzo in Tuscany in 1626. His ingenuity and learning recommended him to the office of first physician to Ferdinand II. duke of Tuscany; and he contributed not a little toward the compiling of the dictionary of La Crusca. He wrote upon vipers, upon the generation of insects, and composed a good deal of poetry. All his writings are in Italian; and his language is so fine and pure, that the authors of the dictionary of La Crusca have often cited them as standards of perfection. He died in 1697.

REDOUBT, in fortification, a small square fort, without any defence but in front; used in trenches, lines of circumvallation, contravallation, and approach; as also for the lodgings of corps-de-gard, and to defend passages.

REDUCTION, in the schools, a manner of bringing a term or proposition, which was before opposite to some other, to be equivalent to it.

REDUCTION, in arithmetic, that rule whereby numbers of different denominations are brought into one denomination. See ARITHMETIC.

REDUCTION of a figure, design, or draught, is the making a copy thereof, either larger or smaller than the original; still preserving the form and proportion. The great use of the proportional compasses is the reduction of figures, &c. whence they are called *compasses of reduction*. See the article COMPASS.

There are various methods of reducing figures, &c. the most easy is by means of the pentagraph, or parallelogram; but this hath its defects. See the article PENTAGRAPH.

The best and most usual methods of reduction are as follows: 1. To reduce a figure, as ABCDE (fig. 10. n° 1.) into a less compass. About the middle of the figure, as z, pitch on a point, and from this point draw lines to its several angles A, B, C, &c. then drawing the line *ab* parallel to AB, *bc* parallel to BC, &c. you will have the figure *abcde* similar to ABCDE. Plate CCLIV.

If the figure *abcde* had been required to be inlarged, there needed nothing but to produce the lines from the point beyond the angles, as zD, zC, &c. and to draw lines, *viz.* DC, CB, &c. parallel to the sides *dc*, *cb*, &c.

2. To reduce a figure by the angle of proportion, suppose the figure ABCDE (*ibid.* n° 2.) required to be diminished in the proportion of the line AB to *ab*, (*ibid.* n° 3.) draw the indefinite line GH, (*ibid.* n° 4.) and from G to H set off the line AB. On G describe the arch HI. Set off the line *ab* as a chord on HI, and draw GI. Then with the angle IGH, you have all the measures of the figure to be drawn. Thus to lay

Reduction || Reed.

lay down the point *c*, take the interval BC, and upon the point G describe the arch KL. Also on the point G describe MN; and upon A, with the distance MN, describe an arch cutting the preceding one in *c*, which will determine the side *bc*. And after the same manner are the other sides and angles to be described. The same process will also serve to enlarge the figure.

3. To reduce a figure by a scale. Measure all the sides of the figure, as ABCDE (*ibid.* n° 2.) by a scale, and lay down the same measures respectively from a smaller scale in the proportion required.

4. To reduce a map, design, or figure, by squares. Divide the original into little squares, and divide a fresh paper of the dimensions required into the same number of squares, which are to be larger or less than the former, as the map is to be enlarged or diminished. This done in every square of the second figure, draw what you find in its correspondent one in the first.

REDUCTION, in metallurgy, is the bringing back metalline substances which have been changed into scoriæ or ashes, or otherwise divested of their metallic form, into their natural and original state of metals again. See METALLURGY, *passim*.

REDUCTION, in surgery, denotes an operation whereby a dislocated, luxated, or fractured bone, is restored to its former state or place.

REDUNDANCY, a fault in discourse, consisting in the use of a superfluity of words. Words perfectly synonymous are redundant, and ought to be retrenched.

REDUNDANT, in music. What the French call *une accord superflue*, which we have translated *a redundant chord* in the article MUSIC (from D'Alembert), has by others been rendered *a chord extremely sharp*, as in the translation of Rameau's Principles of Composition. Their nature will be best understood by a few examples, and an account of the number of tones, semitones, or lesser intervals, contained in each.

The *second redundant* is composed of a major tone, and a minor semitone; as from *fa* to *sol* sharp. Its proportion is as 64 to 75.

The *third redundant* consists of two tones, and a semitone, as *fa*, *la*, sharp. Its proportion is as 96 to 125. The *fourth redundant* is the same with the tritone.

From these examples compared with the same intervals in their natural state, the reader may form a general idea of what is meant by *redundant*.

REE, REIS, or *Res*, a little Portuguese coin. See MONEY-*Table*.

REED, in botany. See ARUNDO, and BAMBOO.

There are two sorts of reed, says Hasselquist, growing near the Nile. One of them has scarce any branches; but is furnished with numerous leaves, which are narrow, smooth, channeled on the upper surface; and the plant is about 11 feet high. The Egyptians make ropes of the leaves. They lay them in water like hemp, and then make them into good strong cables. These, with the bark of the date-tree, form almost the only cable used in the Nile. The other sort is of great consequence. It is a small reed, about two or three feet high, full branched, with short, sharp, lancet-shaped leaves. The roots, which are as thick as the stem, creep and mat themselves together to a considerable distance. This plant seems useless in common life: but to it, continues the learned author, is the very soil of Egypt owing: for the matted roots have stopped the earth which floated in the waters, and thus formed, out of the sea, a country that is habitable.

Reef || Refining.

REEF, a term in navigation. When there is a great gale of wind, they commonly roll up part of the sail below, that by this means it may become the narrower, and not draw so much wind; which contracting or taking up the sail they call a *reef*, or *reefing the sail*: so also when a *top-mast is sprung*, as they call it, that is, when it is cracked, or almost broken in the cap, they cut off the lower piece that was near broken off, and setting the other part, now much shorter, in the step again, they call it a *reefed top-mast*.

REEL, in the manufactories, a machine serving for the office of reeling. There are various kinds of reels; some very simple, others very complex.

REELING, in the manufactories, the winding of silk, cotton, or the like, into a skain, or upon a button, to prevent its entangling. It is also used for the charging or discharging of bobbins, or quills, to use them in the manufacture of different stuffs, as thread, silk, cotton, &c. Reeling is performed in different ways, and on different engines.

REEVING, in the sea language, the putting a rope through a block: hence to pull a rope out of a block is called *unreeving*.

RE-EXCHANGE, in commerce, a second payment of the price of exchange, or rather the price of a new exchange due upon a bill of exchange that comes to be protested and to be refunded the bearer by the drawer or indorser.

REFECTION, among ecclesiastics, a spare meal or repast, just sufficing for the support of life: hence the hall in convents, and other communities, where the monks, nuns, &c. take their refections or meals in common, is called the *refectory*.

REFERENCE, in writing, &c. a mark relative to another similar one in the margin, or at the bottom of the page, where something omitted in the text is added, and which is to be inserted either in reading or copying.

REFINING, in general, is the art of purifying a thing; including not only the essaying or refining of metals, but likewise the depuration or clarification of liquors. See METALLURGY, Part II. CLARIFICATION, and PHARMACY, n° 185.—192.

Gold and silver may be refined by several methods, which are all founded on the essential properties of these metals, and acquire different names according to their kinds. Thus, for instance, gold, having the property which no other metal, not even silver, has, of resisting the action of sulphur, of antimony, of nitrous acid, of marine acid, may be purified by these agents from all other metallic substances, and consequently may be refined. These operations are distinguished by proper names, as *purification of gold by antimony, parting, concentrated parting, dry parting* *. In a similar manner, as silver has the property, which the imperfect metals have not, of resisting the action of nitre, it may be refined by this salt: but the term *refining* is chiefly applied to the purification of gold and silver by lead in the cupel.

* See *Parting*, in the APPENDIX.

This is performed by the destruction, vitrification, and scorification, of all the extraneous and destructible

Refining. ſtructible metallic ſubſtances with which they are all allayed.

As none but the perfect metals can reſiſt the combined action of air and fire, without loſing their inflammable principle, and being changed into earthy or vitreous matters, incapable of remaining any longer united with ſubſtances in a metallic ſtate, there is then a poſſibility of purifying gold and ſilver from all allay of imperfect metals merely by the action of fire and air; only by keeping them fuſed till all the allay be deſtroyed: but this purification would be very expenſive, from the great conſumption of fuel, and would be exceedingly tedious. Silver allayed with copper, has been expoſed longer than 60 hours to a glaſs-houſe fire without being perfectly refined: the reaſon of which is, that when a ſmall quantity only of imperfect metal remains united with gold or ſilver, it is covered and protected from the action of the air, which is neceſſary for the combuſtion of the imperfect metals, as of all combuſtible matters.

This refining of gold and ſilver merely by the action of fire, which was the only method anciently known, was very long, difficult, expenſive, and imperfect: but a much ſhorter and more advantageous method has been diſcovered. This method conſiſts in adding to the allayed gold and ſilver a certain quantity of lead, and in expoſing afterwards this mixture to the action of the fire. Lead is one of the metals which loſes moſt quickly and eaſily a ſufficient quantity of its inflammable principle to ceaſe to be in a metallic ſtate; but, at the ſame time, this metal has the remarkable property of retaining, notwithſtanding the action of the fire, enough of this ſame inflammable principle to be very eaſily melted into a vitrified and powerfully vitrifying matter, called *litharge*.

The lead then which is to be added to the gold and ſilver to be refined, or which happens naturally to be mixed with theſe metals, produces in their refining the following advantages: 1. By increaſing the proportion of imperfect metals, it prevents them from being ſo well covered and protected by the perfect metals. 2. By uniting with theſe imperfect metals, it communicates to them a property it has of loſing very eaſily a great part of its inflammable principle. 3. By its vitrifying and fuſing property which it exerciſes with all its force upon the calcined and naturally refractory parts of the other metals, it facilitates and accelerates the fuſion, the ſcorification, and the ſeparation of theſe metals. Theſe are the advantages procured by lead in the refining of gold and ſilver.

The lead, which in this operation is ſcorified, and ſcorifies along with it the imperfect metals, ſeparates from the metallic maſs, with which it is then incapable of remaining united. It floats upon the ſurface of the melted maſs; becauſe, by loſing part of its phlogiſton, it loſes alſo part of its ſpecific gravity, and laſtly it vitrifies.

Theſe vitrified and melted matters accumulating more and more upon the ſurface of the metal while the operation advances, would protect this ſurface from the contact of air which is ſo abſolutely neceſſary for the ſcorification of the reſt, and would thus ſtop the progreſs of the operation, which could never be finiſhed, if a method had not been contrived for their removal. This removal of the vitrified matter is procured either by the nature of the veſſel in which the melted matter is contained; and which being porous, abſorbs and imbibes the ſcorified matter as faſt as it is formed, or by a channel cut in the edge of the veſſel through which the matter flows out.

The veſſel in which the refining is performed is flat and ſhallow, that the matter which it contains may preſent to the air the greateſt ſurface poſſible. This form reſembles that of a cup, and hence it has been called *cupel*. The furnace ought to be vaulted, that the heat may be applied upon the ſurface of the metal during the whole time of the operation. Upon this ſurface a cruſt of dark-coloured pellicle is continually forming. In the inſtant when all the imperfect metal is deſtroyed, and conſequently the ſcorification ceaſes, the ſurface of the perfect metals is ſeen, and appears clean and brilliant. This forms a kind of fulguration or coruſcation. By this mark the metal is known to be refined. If the operation be ſo conducted that the metal ſuſtains only the preciſe degree of heat neceſſary to keep it fuſed before it be perfectly refined, we may obſerve that it fixes or becomes ſolid all at once in the very inſtant of the coruſcation; becauſe a greater heat is required to keep ſilver or gold in fuſion, when they are pure, than when allayed with lead.

The operation of refining may be performed in ſmall or in large quantities, upon the ſame principles, but only with ſome differences in the management. As the refining of ſmall quantities of perfect metals is performed in the ſame manner as theſe metals are eſſayed, the eſſay being only a very accurate refining, we refer to the article Essay *of the Value of Silver*.

Large quantities of ſilver are thus purified, after the operations by which that metal is obtained from its ores. This ſilver, being always much allayed, is to be mixed with a ſufficient quantity of lead to complete its purification, unleſs lead has been added in its firſt fuſion from the ore, or unleſs it has been extracted from an ore which alſo contains lead; in which latter caſe, it is allayed naturally with a ſufficient quantity, or more than ſufficient, for the refining of it.

REFLECTION, the return or progreſſive motion of a moving body, occaſioned by ſome obſtacle which hindered it from purſuing its former direction.

Reflection *of the Rays of Light*, in catoptrics, is their return, after approaching ſo near the ſurface of bodies as to be thereby repelled or driven backwards. For the cauſes of reflection, ſee Optics, p. 5544.

Reflection is alſo uſed, figuratively, for an operation of the mind, whereby it turns its view backwards as it were upon itſelf, and makes itſelf and its own operation the object of its diſquiſition; and by contemplating the manner, order, and laws, which it obſerves in perceiving ideas, comparing them together, reaſoning, &c. it frames new ideas of the relations diſcovered therein. See Metaphysics, n° 21. 22.

REFORMATION, in general, an act of reforming or correcting an error or abuſe in religion, diſcipline, or the like. By way of eminence the word is uſed for that great alteration and reformation in the corrupted ſyſtem of Chriſtianity, begun by Luther in the year 1517.

Under the article History, (ſect. ii.) the various corruptions in religion, the oppreſſions and uſurpations of the clergy, and the extreme inſolence of

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of the popes, have been so fully treated of, that any further detail here is unnecessary. It is sufficient to observe, that, before the period of the Reformation, the Pope had in the most audacious manner declared himself the sovereign of the whole world. All the parts of it which were inhabited by those who were not Christians, he accounted to be inhabited by *nobody*: and if Christians took it into their heads to possess any of those countries, he gave them full liberty to make war upon the inhabitants without any provocation, and to treat them with no more humanity than they would have treated wild beasts. The countries, if conquered, were to be parcelled out according to the pope's pleasure; and dreadful was the situation of that prince who refused to obey the will of the holy pontiff, of which many instances will occur to the reader in the various historical articles of this work. In consequence of this extraordinary authority which the pope had assumed, he at last granted to the king of Portugal all the countries to the eastward of Cape Non in Africa, and to the king of Spain all the countries to the westward of it. In this, according to the opinions of some, was completed in his person the character of *Antichrist sitting in the temple of God, and shewing himself as God**. He had long before, say they, assumed the supremacy belonging to the Deity himself in spiritual matters; and now he assumed the same supremacy in worldly matters also, giving the extreme regions of the earth to whom he pleased. The Reformation, therefore, they consider as the immediate effect of divine power taking vengeance on this and all other deviations from the system of truth; while others consider it merely as an effect of natural causes, and which might have been foreseen and prevented, without abridging the papal power in any considerable degree.

1 The pope assumes the disposal of the whole world.

* 2 Thess. ii. 4.

Be this as it will, however, the abovementioned partition was the last piece of insolence which the pope ever had, or in all probability ever will have, in his power to exercise, in the way of parcelling out the globe to his adherents. Every thing was quiet, every heretic exterminated, and the whole Christian world supinely acquiesced in the enormous absurdities which were inculcated upon them, when, in 1517, the empire of superstition began to decline, and has continued to do ever since. The person who made the first attack on the extravagant superstitions then prevailing was Martin Luther; the occasion of which is fully related under the article LUTHER. By some it is pretended, that the only motive which Luther had in beginning the Reformation was his enmity to the Dominican friars, who had excluded his order (the Augustins) from all share in the gainful traffic of indulgences. But this does not seem at all probable, if we consider that such a motive would not naturally have led him to deny the virtue of indulgences, as such conduct could not but exclude him for ever from any chance of a share in the traffic, which otherwise perhaps he might have obtained. Besides, the extreme contrariety of this traffic to the common principles of reason and honesty was so great, that we cannot wonder at finding *one* man in the world who had sense enough to discern it, and virtue enough to oppose such an infamous practice. In all probability, however, the insignificancy of the first reformer was the reason why he was not persecuted and exterminated at his first beginning, as others had been before him. Another reason probably might be, that he did not at once attack the whole errors of Popery, but brought about his reformation gradually, probably as it occurred to himself, and as we have related in the account of his life.

2 Reformation begun by Luther.

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The Reformation began in the city of Wittemberg in Saxony, but was not long confined either to that city or province. In 1520 the Franciscan friars, who had the care of promulgating indulgences in Switzerland, were opposed by Zuinglius, a man not inferior in understanding and knowledge to Luther himself. He proceeded with the greatest vigour, even at the very beginning, to overturn the whole fabric of Popery; but his opinions were declared erroneous by the universities of Cologne and Louvain. Notwithstanding this, the magistrates of Zurich approved of his proceedings; and that whole canton, together with those of Bern, Basil, and Schaffausen, embraced his opinions.

2 In Switzerland by Zuinglius.

In Germany, Luther continued to make great advances, without being in the least intimidated by the ecclesiastical censures which were thundered against him from all quarters, he being continually protected by the German princes either from religious or political motives, so that his adversaries could not accomplish his destruction as they had done that of others. Melancthon, Carlostadius, and other men of eminence, also greatly forwarded the work of Luther; and in all probability the Popish hierarchy would have soon come to an end, in the northern parts of Europe at least, had not the emperor Charles V. given a severe check to the progress of reformation in Germany. In order to follow out the schemes dictated by his ambition, he thought it necessary to ingratiate himself with the pope; and the most effectual method of doing this was by destroying Luther. The pope's legates insisted that Luther ought to be condemned by the diet of Worms without either trial or hearing; as being a most notorious, avowed, and incorrigible heretic. However, this appeared unjust to the members of the diet, and he was summoned to appear; which he accordingly did without hesitation *. There is not the least doubt that his appearance there had been his last in this world, had not the astonishing respect that was paid him, and the crowds who came daily to see him, deterred his judges from delivering the church from the author of such a pestilent heresy; which they were strongly solicited by the pope's party to do. He was therefore permitted to depart with a safe conduct for a certain time; after which he was in the state of a proscribed criminal, to whom it was unlawful to perform any of the offices of humanity.

4 Opposed in Germany by Charles V.

* See *Luther*.

During the confinement of Luther in a castle near Warburg, the Reformation advanced rapidly; almost every city in Saxony embracing the Lutheran opinions. At this time an alteration in the established forms of worship was first ventured upon at Wittemberg, by abolishing the celebration of private masses, and by giving the cup as well as the bread to the laity in the Lord's supper. In a short time, however, the new opinions were condemned by the university of Paris, and a refutation of them was attempted by Henry VIII. of England. But Luther was not to be thus intimidated.

5 Form of worship first altered in Wittemberg.

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dated. He published his animadversions on both with as much acrimony as if he had been refuting the meanest adversary; and a controversy managed by such illustrious antagonists drew a general attention, and the Reformers daily gained new converts both in France and England.

6 Disputes among the Reformers.

But while the efforts of Luther were thus every where crowned with success, the divisions began to prevail which have since so much agitated the reformed churches. The first dispute was between Luther and Zuinglius concerning the manner in which the body and blood of Christ were present in the eucharist. Luther and his followers, though they had rejected the notion of transubstantiation, were nevertheless of opinion that the body and blood of Christ were really present in the Lord's supper, in a way which they could not pretend to explain. Carlostadt, who was Luther's colleague, first suggested another view of the subject, which was afterwards confirmed and illustrated by Zuinglius, namely, that the body and blood of Christ were not really present in the euchrist; and that the bread and wine were no more than external symbols to excite the remembrance of Christ's sufferings in the minds of those who received it. Both parties maintained their tenets with the utmost obstinacy; and, by their divisions, first gave their adversaries an argument against them, which to this day the Catholics urge with great force; namely, that the Protestants are so divided, that it is impossible to know who is right or wrong; and that there cannot be a stronger proof than these divisions, that the whole doctrine is false.

7 Disturbances in Germany.

To these intestine divisions were added the horrors of a civil war, occasioned by oppression on the one hand, and enthusiasm on the other. In 1525, a great number of seditious fanatics arose on a sudden in different parts of Germany, took arms, united their forces, and made war against the empire, laying waste the country with fire and sword, and committing every where the greatest cruelties. The greatest part of this furious mob was composed of peasants and vassals, who groaned under heavy burdens, and declared that they were no longer able to bear the despotic government of their chiefs; and hence this sedition had the name of *the rustic war*, or the *war of the peasants*. At first this rabble declared, that they had no other motives than the redress of their grievances; but no sooner had the enthusiast Munzer, or Munster, the anabaptist, put himself at their head, than the face of thing was entirely changed, and the civil commotions in Saxony and Thuringia exceedingly increased, of which an account is given under the article ANABAPTISTS.

8 Reformation established in Saxony.

In the mean time Frederic surnamed the *Wise*, elector of Saxony, and Luther's great patron, departed this life, and was succeeded by his brother John. Frederic, though he had protected and encouraged Luther, yet was at no pains to introduce the reformed religion into his dominions. But with his successor it was otherwise; for he, convinced that Luther's doctrine must soon be totally destroyed and suppressed unless it received a speedy and effectual support, ordered Luther and Melancthon to draw up a body of laws relating to the form of ecclesiastical government, the method of public worship, &c. which was to be proclaimed by heralds throughout his dominions. This example was followed by all the princes and states of Germany who renounced the papal supremacy; and a like form of worship, discipline, and government, was thus introduced into all the churches which dissented from that of Rome. This open renunciation of the Romish jurisdiction soon changed the face of affairs; and the patrons of Popery soon intimated, in a manner not at all ambiguous, that they intended to make war on the Lutheran party; which would certainly have been put in excution, had not the troubles that took place in Europe disconcerted their measures. On the other hand, the Lutherans, apprized of these hostile intentions, began also to deliberate on a proper plan of defence against that superstitious violence with which they were in danger of being assailed. The diet of the empire assembled at Spire, in the year 1526; where the emperor's ambassadors were desired to use their utmost endeavours to suppress all disputes about religion, and to insist upon the rigorous execution of the sentence which had been pronounced against Luther and his followers at Worms. The greatest part of the German princes opposed this motion with the utmost resolution, declaring that they could not execute that sentence, nor come to any determination with regard to the doctrines by which it had been occasioned, before the whole matter was submitted to the decision of a council lawfully assembled; alleging farther, that the decision of controversies of this nature belonged properly to it, and to it alone. This opinion, after long and very warm debates, was adopted by a great majority, and at length consented to by the whole assembly: for it was unanimously agreed to present a solemn address to the emperor, intreating him to assemble, without delay, a free and general council; while in the mean time it was also agreed, that the princes of the empire should, in their respective dominions, be at liberty to manage ecclesiastical affairs in the manner they should think most proper; yet so as to be able to give to God and the emperor a proper account of their administration when it should be required of them.

9 Resolutions at the diet of Spire favourable to the reformation.

These resolutions proved extremely favourable to the cause of reformation; neither had the emperor any leisure for some time to give disturbance to the reformed. The war which at this time ensued between him and the pope, gave the greatest advantage to the friends of the reformed, and considerably augmented their number. Several princes, whom the fear of persecution and punishment had hitherto prevented from lending their assistance, publicly renounced the Romish superstition, and introduced among their subjects the same forms of religious worship, and the same system of doctrine, that had been received in Saxony. Others, though placed in such circumstances as discouraged them from acting in an open manner against the interests of the Roman pontiff, were, however, far from discovering the smallest opposition to those who withdrew the people from his despotic yoke; nor did they molest the private assemblies of those who had separated themselves from the church of Rome. And in general, all the Germans, who, before these resolutions of the diet of Spire, had rejected the papal discipline and doctrine, were now, in consequence of the liberty they enjoyed, wholly employed in bringing their

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their ſchemes and plans to a certain degree of conſiſtence, and in adding vigour and firmneſs to the cauſe in which they were engaged. But this tranquillity and liberty was of no long duration. In 1529, a new diet was aſſembled at the ſame place by the emperor, after he had quieted the troubles in various parts of his dominions, and concluded a peace with the pope. The power which had been granted to princes of managing eccleſiaſtical affairs till the meeting of a general council, was now revoked by a majority of votes; and every change declared unlawful that ſhould be introduced into the doctrine, diſcipline, or worſhip of the eſtabliſhed religion, before the determination of the approaching council was known. This decree was conſidered as iniquitous and intolerable by the elector of Saxony, the landgrave of Heſſe, and other members of the diet, who were perſuaded of the neceſſity of a reformation. The promiſe of ſpeedily aſſembling a general council, they looked upon to be an artifice of the church of Rome; well knowing, that a free and lawful council would be the laſt thing to which the pope would conſent. When, therefore, they found that all their arguments and remonſtrances made no impreſſion upon Ferdinand the emperor's brother, who preſided in the diet, Charles himſelf being then at Barcelona, they entered a ſolemn proteſt againſt this decree on the 19th of April, and appealed to the emperor and a future council. Hence aroſe the denomination of *Proteſtants*, which from this period has been given to thoſe who ſeparate from the communion of the church of Rome. The princes of the empire who entered this proteſt, were John, elector of Saxony; George, elector of Brandenburg; Erneſt and Francis dukes of Lunenburgh; the landgrave of Heſſe; and the prince of Anhalt. Theſe were ſeconded by 13 imperial towns, viz. Straſburg, Ulm, Nuremberg, Conſtance, Rottingen, Windſeim, Memmingen, Nortlingen, Lindaw, Kempten, Heilbron, Wiſſemburg, and St Gall.

10 Revoked by the emperor.

11 Origin of the name *Proteſtants*.

The diſſenting princes, who were the protectors and heads of the reformed churches, had no ſooner entered their proteſt, than they ſent proper perſons to the emperor, who was then upon his paſſage from Spain to Italy, to acquaint him with their proceedings in this matter. The miniſters employed in this commiſſion executed it with the greateſt intrepidity and preſence of mind; but the emperor, exaſperated at the audacity of thoſe who preſumed to differ from him, cauſed the ambaſſadors to be arreſted. The news of this violent ſtep made the Proteſtant princes conclude, that their perſonal ſafety, and the ſucceſs of their cauſe, depended entirely upon their courage and union. They determined, therefore, to enter into a ſolemn confederacy: for which purpoſe they held ſeveral meetings at Rot, Nuremberg, Smalcald, and other places; but ſo different were their opinions and views, that they could determine upon nothing.

12 Conference between Luther and Zuinglius.

One great obſtacle to the intended confederacy was the diſpute which had ariſen between Luther and Zuinglius concerning the real preſence of Chriſt in Lord's Supper. To terminate this diſpute, if poſſible, Philip, landgrave of Heſſe, invited, in the year 1529, to a conference at Marpurg, Luther and Zuinglius, together with ſeveral other of the more eminent doctors who adhered to the reſpective parties of theſe contending chiefs: but this meaſure was not attended with the ſalutary effects which were expected from it. The divines diſputed for four days in preſence of the landgrave. Luther attacked Oecolampadius, and Zuinglius was attacked by Melanchton. Zuinglius was accuſed of hereſy, not only on account of his explanation of the nature and deſign of the Lord's Supper, but alſo in conſequence of the falſe notions he was ſuppoſed to have adopted concerning the divinity of Chriſt, the efficacy of the divine word, original ſin, and ſome other parts of the Chriſtian doctrine. This illuſtrious reformer, however, cleared himſelf from the greateſt part of theſe charges with the moſt triumphant evidence, and in ſuch a manner as appeared ſatisfactory even to Luther himſelf: but their diſſention concerning the manner of Chriſt's preſence in the euchariſt ſtill remained; nor could either of the contending parties be perſuaded to abandon, or even to modify, their opinions on that matter. The only advantage, therefore, which refulted from the meeting was, that the jarring doctors formed a kind of truce, by agreeing to a mutual toleration of their ſentiments, and leaving to the diſpoſal of Providence the cure of their diviſions.

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In the mean time news were received that the emperor deſigned to come into Germany, with a view to terminate all religious differences at the approaching diet of Augſburg. Having foreſeen ſome of the conſequences of thoſe diſputes, and, beſides, taken the advice of men of wiſdom, ſagacity, and experience, he became at certain times more cool in his proceedings, and more impartial in his opinions both of the contending parties and the merits of the cauſe. He, therefore, in an interview with the pope at Bologna, inſiſted, in the moſt ſerious and urgent manner, on the neceſſity of a general council. His remonſtrances and expoſtulations, however, could not move the pontiff; who maintained with zeal the papal prerogatives, reproached the emperor with an ill-judged clemency, and alleged that it was the duty of that prince to ſupport the church, and to execute ſpeedy vengeance upon that obſtinate heretical faction who dared to call in queſtion the authority of Rome and its pontiff. To this diſcourſe the emperor paid no regard; looking upon it as a moſt iniquitous thing, and a meaſure directly oppoſite to the laws of the empire, to condemn unheard a ſet of men who had always approved themſelves good citizens, and deſerved well of their country in ſeveral reſpects. Hitherto indeed it was not eaſy for the emperor to form a clear idea of the matters in debate, ſince there was no regular ſyſtem as yet compoſed, by which it might be known with certainty what were the true cauſes of Luther's oppoſition to the pope. The elector of Saxony, therefore, ordered Luther, and other eminent divines, to commit to writing the chief articles of their religious ſyſtem, and the principal points in which they differed from the church of Rome. Luther, in compliance with this order, delivered to the elector at Torgaw, 17 articles which had been agreed upon in a conference at Sultzbach in 1529; from whence theſe received the name of *the articles of Torgaw*. But though theſe were deemed by Luther a ſufficient declaration of the ſentiments of the reformers, yet it was judged proper to enlarge them, in order to give perſpicuity to their arguments, and ſtrength to their cauſe.

13 Origin of the confeſſion of Augſburg.

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cause. In this work Melanchthon was employed, in which he shewed a proper deference to the counsels of Luther, and expressed his sentiments and doctrine with the greatest elegance and perspicuity; and thus came forth to view the famous *Confession of Augsburg*.

On the 15th of June 1530, Charles arrived at Augsburg, and the diet was opened five days after. The Protestants received a formal permission to present an account of their tenets to the diet on the 25th of the same month; in consequence of which, at the time appointed, Christian Bayer, chancellor of Saxony, read, in the German language, before the emperor and the princes assembled, the confession of Augsburg abovementioned. It contained 28 chapters, of which 21 were employed in representing the religious opinions of the Protestants, and the other seven in pointing out the errors and superstitions of the church of Rome. The princes heard it with the deepest attention and recollection of mind: it confirmed some in the principles they had embraced; surprised others; and many, who before this time had little or no idea of the religious sentiments of Luther, were now not only convinced of their innocence, but delighted with their purity and simplicity. The copies of this Confession, which after being read were delivered to the emperor, were signed by John elector of Saxony, George marquis of Brandenburg, Ernest duke of Lunenburg Philip landgrave of Hesse, Wolfgang prince of Anhalt, and by the imperial cities of Nuremberg and Reutlingen.

14 It is presented to the emperor.

15 A refutation of it, in which the Protestants are ordered to acquiesce.

The creatures of the church of Rome who were present at this diet employed John Faber, afterwards bishop of Vienna, together with Eckius, and another doctor named *Cocklæus*, to draw up a refutation of the Protestant confession; which refutation having been publicly read, the emperor required the Protestant members to acquiesce in it, and put an end to the religious disputes by an unlimited submission to the opinions and doctrines contained in this answer. But this demand was far from being complied with. The Protestants declared on the contrary, that they were by no means satisfied with the reply of their adversaries; and earnestly desired a copy of it, that they might more fully demonstrate its extreme insufficiency and weakness. But this reasonable request was refused by the emperor; who interposed his supreme authority to prevent any farther proceedings in this matter, and solemnly prohibited the publication of any new writings or declarations that might contribute to lengthen out these religious debates. This, however, did not reduce the Protestants to silence. The divines of that communion, who had been present at the diet, endeavoured to recollect the arguments and objections employed by Faber, and had again recourse to the pen of Melanchthon, who refuted them in an ample and satisfactory manner in a piece which was presented to the emperor on the 22d of September, but which Charles refused to receive. This answer was afterwards enlarged by Melanchthon when he had obtained a copy of Faber's reply; and was published in the year 1531, with the other pieces that related to the doctrine and discipline of the Lutheran church, under the title of *A Defence of the Confession of Augsburg*.

Matters now began to draw towards a crisis. There were only three ways of bringing to a conclusion these religious differences. 1. To grant the Protestants a toleration, and privilege of serving God as they thought proper: 2. To compel them to return to the church of Rome by the violent methods of persecution: or, 3. That a reconciliation should be made, upon fair, candid, and equitable terms, by engaging each of the parties to temper their zeal with moderation, to abate reciprocally the rigour of their pretensions, and remit something of their respective claims. The third expedient was most generally approved of, being peculiarly agreeable to all who had at heart the welfare of the empire; nor did the pope seem to look upon it either with aversion or contempt. Various conferences therefore were held between persons eminent for piety and learning on both sides; and nothing was omitted that might have the least tendency to calm the animosities and heal the divisions which reigned between the contending parties. But the differences were too great to admit of a reconciliation; and therefore the votaries of Rome had recourse to the powerful arguments of imperial edicts, and the force of the secular arm. On the 19th of November, a severe decree was issued out by the express order of the emperor (during the absence of the Hessian and Saxon princes, who were the chief supporters of the Protestant cause) in which every thing was manifestly adapted to deject the friends of religious liberty, excepting only a faint and dubious promise of engaging the pope to assemble a general council about six months after the separation of the diet. In this decree the dignity and excellence of the Popish religion were extolled beyond measure, a new degree of severity and force added to that which had been published at Worms against Luther and his adherents, the changes which had been introduced into the doctrine and discipline of the Protestant churches severely censured, and a solemn order addressed to the princes, cities, and states, who had thrown off the Papal yoke, to return to their allegiance to Rome, on pain of incurring the indignation and vengeance of the emperor as the patron and protector of the church. Of this formidable decree the elector of Saxony and confederated princes were no sooner informed, than they assembled in order to deliberate on the measures proper to be taken in such a crisis. In the years 1530 and 1531 they met, first at Smalcald, and afterwards at Francfort, where they formed a solemn alliance and confederacy, with the intention of defending vigorously their religion and liberties against the dangers and encroachments with which they were threatened by the edict of Augsburg, without attempting, however, any thing offensive against the votaries of Rome; and into this confederacy they invited the kings of England, France, Denmark, &c. leaving no means unemployed that might corroborate and cement this important alliance.

16 Severe decree against the Protestants.

17 The league of Smalcald.

This confederacy was at first opposed by Luther, from an apprehension of the calamities and troubles which it might produce: but, at last, perceiving the necessity of it, he consented; though he uncharitably, as well as imprudently, refused to comprehend in it the followers of Zuinglius among the Swiss, together with the German states and cities who had adopted the sentiments and confession of Bucer. In the invitation addressed to Henry VIII. of England, whom the confederate princes were willing to declare the head and pro-

18 Invitation to Henry VIII. of England.

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protector of their league, the following things, among others, were expresly stipulated: That the king should encourage, promote, and maintain the true doctrine of Christ, as it was contained in the confession of Augsburg, and defend the same at the next general council: that he should not agree to any council summoned by the bishop of Rome, but protest against it; and neither submit to its decrees, nor suffer them to be respected in his dominions: that he should never allow the Roman pontiff to have any pre-eminence or jurisdiction in his dominions; that he should advance 100,000 crowns for the use of the confederacy, and double that sum if it became necessary: all which articles the confederate princes were equally obliged to observe on their part. To these demands the king replied, That he would maintain and promote the true doctrine of Christ; but, at the same time, as the true ground of that doctrine lay only in the Holy Scriptures, he would not accept at any one's hand what should be his own faith, or that of his kingdom; and therefore desired that they would send over two learned men to confer with him, in order to promote a religious union between him and the confederates. However, he declared himself of their opinion with regard to the meeting of a free general council, and promised to join with them in all such councils for the defence of the true doctrine; but thought the regulation of the ceremonial part of religion, being a matter of indifference, ought to be left to the choice of each sovereign for his own dominions. After this the king gave them a second answer more full and satisfactory; but after the execution of queen Anne, this negociation came to nothing. On the one hand, the king grew cold when he perceived that the confederates were no longer of use to him in supporting the validity of his marriage; and, on the other hand, the German princes became sensible that they could never succeed with Henry unless they allowed him an absolute dictatorship in matters of religion.

While every thing thus tended to an open war between the two opposite parties, the elector Palatine, and the elector of Mentz, offered their mediation, and endeavoured to procure a reconciliation. The emperor himself, for various reasons, was at this time inclined to peace: for, on the one hand, he stood in need of succours against the Turks, which the Protestant princes refused to grant as long as the edicts of Worms and Augsburg remained in force; and, on the other, the election of his brother Ferdinand to the dignity of king of the Romans, which had been carried by a majority of votes at the diet of Cologne in 1531, was by the same princes contested, as being contrary to the fundamental laws of the empire. In consequence of all this, after many negociations and projects of reconciliation, a treaty of peace was concluded at Nuremberg in 1532, between the emperor and the Protestant princes, on the following conditions; *viz.* That the latter should furnish a subsidy for carrying on the war against the Turks, and acknowledge Ferdinand lawful king of the Romans; and that the emperor on his part should abrogate and annul the edicts of Worms and Augsburg, and allow the Lutherans the free and undisturbed exercise of their religious doctrine and discipline, until a rule of faith was fixed either in the free general council that was to be assembled in the space of six months, or in a diet of the empire.

19 Peace of Nuremberg concluded.

Soon after conclusion of the peace at Nuremberg, died John, elector of Saxony, who was succeeded by his son John Frederic, a prince of invincible fortitude and magnanimity, but whose reign was little better than one continued train of disappointments and calamities. The religious truce, however, gave new vigour to the reformation. Those who had hitherto been only secret enemies to the Roman pontiff, now publicly threw off his yoke; and various cities and provinces of Germany enlisted themselves under the religious standards of Luther. On the other hand, as the emperor had now no other hope of terminating the religious disputes but by the meeting of a general council, he repeated his requests to the pope for that purpose. The pontiff (Clement VII.) whom the history of past councils filled with the greatest uneasiness, endeavoured to retard what he could not with decency refuse. At last, in 1533, he made a proposal by his legate to assemble a council at Mantua, Placentia, or Bologna; but the Protestants refused their consent to the nomination of an Italian council, and insisted that a controversy which had its rise in the heart of Germany should be determined within the limits of the empire. The pope, by his usual artifices, eluded the performance of his own promise; and, in 1534, was cut off by death, in the midst of his stratagems. His successor Paul III. seemed to show less reluctance to the assembling a general council, and in the year 1535 expressed his inclination to convoke one at Mantua; and, the year following, actually sent circular letters for that purpose through all the states and kingdoms under his jurisdiction. This council was summoned, by a bull issued out on the 2d of June 1536, to meet at Mantua the following year; but several obstacles prevented its meeting, one of the most material of which was, that Frederic, duke of Mantua, had no inclination to receive at once so many guests, some of them very turbulent, into the place of his residence. On the other hand the Protestants were firmly persuaded, that, as the council was assembled in Italy, and by the authority of the pope alone, the latter must have had an undue influence in that assembly; of consequence, that all things must have been carried by the votaries of Rome. For this reason they assembled at Smalcald in the year 1537, where they solemnly protested against this partial and corrupt council, and, at the same time, had a new summary of their doctrine drawn up by Luther, in order to present it to the assembled bishops if it should be required of them. This summary, which had the title of *The Articles of Smalcald*, is commonly joined with the creeds and confessions of the Lutheran church.

20 A general council proposed.

21 Protestation against it.

After the meeting of the general council in Mantua was thus prevented, many schemes of accommodation were proposed both by the emperor and the Protestants; but, by the artifices of the church of Rome, all of them came to nothing. In 1541, the emperor appointed a conference at Worms on the subject of religion between persons of piety and learning chosen from the contending parties. This conference, however, was, for certain reasons, removed to the diet which was to be held at Ratisbon that same year, and in which the principal subject of deliberation was a memorial presented by a person unknown, containing a project of peace. But the conference produced no other

22 Fruitless schemes of accommodation.

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effect than a mutual agreement of the contending parties to refer their matters to a general council, or, if the meeting of such a council should be prevented, to the next German diet.

This resolution was rendered ineffectual by a variety of incidents, which widened the breach, and put off to a farther day the deliberations which were designed to heal it. The pope ordered his legate to declare to the diet of Spire, assembled in 1542, that he would, according to the promise he had already made, assemble a general council, and that Trent should be the place of its meeting, if the diet had no objection to that city. Ferdinand, and the princes who adhered to the cause of the pope, gave their consent to this proposal; but it was vehemently objected to by the Protestants, both because the council was summoned by the authority of the pope only, and also because the place was within the jurisdiction of the Pope; whereas they desired a free council, which should not be biassed by the dictates, nor awed by the proximity, of the pontiff. But this protestation produced no effect. Paul III. persisted in his purpose, and issued out his circular letters for the convocation of the council, with the approbation of the emperor. In justice to this pontiff, however, it must be observed, that he shewed himself not to be averse to every reformation. He appointed four cardinals, and three other persons eminent for their learning, to draw up a plan for the reformation of the church in general, and of the church of Rome in particular. The reformation proposed in this plan was indeed extremely superficial and partial; yet it contained some particulars which could scarcely have been expected from those who composed it. They complained of the pride and ignorance of the bishops, and proposed that none should receive orders but learned and pious men; and that therefore care should be taken to have proper masters for the instruction of youth. They condemned translations from one benefice to another, grants of reservation, non-residence, and pluralities. They proposed that some convents should be abolished; that the liberty of the press should be restrained and limited; that the colloquies of Erasmus should be suppressed; that no ecclesiastic should enjoy a benefice out of his own country; that no cardinal should have a bishopric; that the questors of St Anthony and several other saints should be abolished; and, which was the best of all their proposals, that the effects and personal estate of ecclesiastics should be given to the poor. They concluded with complaining of the prodigious number of indigent and ragged priests who frequented St Peter's church; and declared, that it was a great scandal to see the whores lodged so magnificently at Rome, and riding through the streets on fine mules, while the cardinals and other ecclesiastics accompanied them in the most courteous manner. This plan of reformation was turned into ridicule by Luther and Sturmius; and indeed it left unredressed the most intolerable grievances of which the Protestants complained.

23 Council of Trent proposed.

24 Plan of reformation proposed by the pope.

All this time the emperor had been labouring to persuade the Protestants to consent to the meeting of the council at Trent; but, when he found them fixed in their opposition to this measure, he began to listen to the sanguinary measures of the pope, and resolved to terminate the disputes by force of arms. The elector of Saxony and landgrave of Hesse, who were the chief supporters of the Protestant cause, upon this took proper measures to prevent their being surprised and overwhelmed by a superior force; but, before the horrors of war commenced, the great reformer Luther died in peace at Ayselben, the place of his nativity, in 1546.

25 War between the emperor and the Protestants.

The emperor and the pope had mutually resolved on the destruction of all who should dare to oppose the council of Trent. The meeting of it was to serve as a signal for taking up arms; and accordingly its deliberations were scarcely begun in 1546, when the Protestants perceived undoubted signs of the approaching storm, and of a formidable union betwixt the emperor and pope, which threatened to crush and overwhelm them at once. This year indeed there had been a new conference at Ratisbon upon the old subject of accommodating differences in religion; but from the manner in which the debates were carried on, it plainly appeared that these differences could only be decided in the field of battle. The council of Trent in the mean time promulgated their decrees; while the reformed princes, in the diet of Ratisbon, protested against their authority, and were on that account proscribed by the emperor, who raised an army to reduce them to obedience.

The elector of Saxony and the landgrave of Hesse led their forces into Bavaria against the emperor, and cannonaded his camp at Ingolstadt. It was supposed that this would bring on an engagement, which would probably have been advantageous to the cause of the reformed; but this was prevented, chiefly by the perfidy of Maurice duke of Saxony, who invaded the dominions of his uncle. Divisions were also fomented among the confederate princes, by the dissimulation of the emperor; and France failed in paying the subsidy which had been promised by its monarch: all which so discouraged the heads of the Protestant party, that their army soon dispersed, and the elector of Saxony was obliged to direct his march homewards. But he was pursued by the emperor, who made several forced marches, with a view to destroy his enemy before he should have time to recover his vigour. The two armies met near Muhlberg on the Elbe, on the 24th of April 1547; and, after a bloody action, the elector was entirely defeated, and himself taken prisoner. Maurice, who had so basely betrayed him, was now declared elector of Saxony; and by his intreaties, Philip landgrave of Hesse, the other chief of the Protestants, was persuaded to throw himself on the mercy of the emperor, and to implore his pardon. To this he consented, relying on the promise of Charles for obtaining forgiveness and being restored to liberty; but, notwithstanding these expectations, he was unjustly detained prisoner by a scandalous violation of the most solemn convention. It is said that the emperor retracted his promise, and deluded this unhappy prince by the ambiguity of two German words. History indeed can scarce afford a parallel to the perfidious, mean-spirited, and despotic behaviour of the emperor in the present case. After having received in public the humble submission of the prince on his knees, and after having set him at liberty by a solemn treaty, he had him arrested anew without any reason, nay,

26 Elector of Saxony defeated and taken prisoner.

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nay without any pretence; and kept him close prisoner for several years. When Maurice remonstrated against this new confinement, the emperor answered, that he had never promised that the landgrave should not be imprisoned anew, but only that he should be exempted from perpetual imprisonment; and, to support this assertion, he produced the treaty, in which his ministers had perfidiously foisted *ewiger gefangnis*, which signifies a "perpetual prison," instead of *einiger gefangnis*, which signifies "any prison." This, however, is contested by some historians.

The affairs of the Protestants now seemed to be desperate. In the diet of Augsburg, which was soon after called, the emperor required the Protestants to leave the decision of these religious disputes to the wisdom of the council which was to meet at Trent. The greatest part of the members consented to this proposal, being convinced by the powerful argument of an imperial army which was at hand to dispel the darkness from the eyes of such as might otherwise have been blind to the force of Charles's reasoning.

27 The council suddenly dissolved.

However, this general submission did not produce the effect which was expected from it. A plague which broke out, or was said to do so, in the city, caused the greatest part of the bishops retire to Bologna; by which means the council was in effect dissolved, nor could all the intreaties and remonstrances of the emperor prevail upon the pope to re-assemble it without delay. During this interval, therefore, the emperor judged it necessary to fall upon some method of accommodating the religious differences, and maintaining peace until the council so long expected should be finally obtained. With this view he ordered Julius Pelugius bishop of Naumberg, Michael Sidonius, a creature of the pope, and John Agricola, a native of Ayselben, to draw up a formulary which might serve as a rule of faith and worship, till the council should be assembled; but as this was only a temporary expedient, and had not the force of a permanent or perpetual institution, it thence obtained the name of the *Interim*.

28 A formulary drawn up by the emperor.

This project of Charles was formed partly with a design to vent his resentment against the pope, and partly to answer other political purposes. It contained all the essential doctrines of the church of Rome, though considerably softened by the artful terms which were employed, and which were quite different from these employed before and after this period by the council of Trent. There was even an affected ambiguity in many of the expressions which made them susceptible of different senses, and applicable to the sentiments of both communions. The consequence of all this was, that the imperial creed was reprobated by both parties. However, it was promulgated with great solemnity by the emperor at Augsburg. The elector of Mentz, without even asking the opinion of the princes present, gave a sanction to this formula, as if he had been commissioned to represent the whole diet. Many kept silence through fear, and that silence was interpreted as a tacit consent. Some had the courage to oppose it, and these were reduced by force of arms, and the most deplorable scenes of bloodshed and violence were acted throughout the whole empire. Maurice, elector of Saxony, who had hitherto kept neutral, now assembled the whole of his nobility and clergy, in order to deliberate on this critical affair. At the head of the latter was Melancthon, whose word was respected as a law among the Protestants. But this man had not the courage of Luther; and was therefore on all occasions ready to make concessions, and to propose schemes of accommodation. In the present case, therefore, he gave it as his opinion, that the whole of the book called *Interim* could not by any means be adopted by the Protestants; but at same time he declared, that he saw no reason why this book might not be approved, adopted, and received, as an authoritative rule in things that did not relate to the essential parts of religion, and which he accounted indifferent. But this scheme, instead of cementing the differences, made them much worse than ever; and produced a division among the Protestants themselves, which might have overthrown the Reformation entirely, if the emperor and pope had seized the opportunity.

29 Displeases both parties.

30 Scheme of reconciliation by Melancthon.

31 A new council proposed at Trent.

In the year 1549, the pope (Paul III.) died; and was succeeded by Julius III. who, at the repeated solicitations of the emperor, consented to the re-assembling of a council at Trent. A diet was again held at Augsburg under the cannon of an imperial army, and Charles laid the matter before the princes of the empire. Most of those present gave their consent to it, and among the rest Maurice, elector of Saxony; who consented on the following conditions. 1. That the points of doctrine which had already been decided there should be re-examined. 2. That this examination should be made in presence of the Protestant divines. 3. That the Saxon Protestants should have a liberty of voting as well as of deliberating in the council. 4. That the pope should not pretend to preside in that assembly, either in person or by his legates. This declaration of Maurice was read in the diet, and his deputies insisted upon its being entered into the registers, which the archbishop of Mentz obstinately refused. The diet was concluded in the year 1551; and, at its breaking up, the emperor desired the assembled princes and states to prepare all things for the approaching council, and promised to use his utmost endeavours to procure moderation and harmony, impartiality and charity, in the transactions of that assembly.

On the breaking up of the diet the Protestants took such steps as they thought most proper for their own safety. The Saxons employed Melancthon, and the Wurtembergers Brengius, to draw up Confessions of Faith to be laid before the new council. The Saxon divines, however, proceeded no farther than Nuremberg, having received secret orders from Maurice to stop there. For the elector, perceiving that Charles had formed designs against the liberties of the German princes, resolved to take the most effectual measures for crushing his ambition at once. He therefore entered with the utmost secrecy and expedition into an alliance with the king of France, and several of the German princes, for the security of the rights and liberties of the empire; after which, assembling a powerful army, in 1552, he marched against the emperor, who lay with a handful of troops at Inspruck and expected no such thing. By this sudden and unforeseen accident Charles was so much dispirited, that he was willing to make peace almost on any terms.

32 The emperor is surprised, and forced to a peace by the elector of Saxony.

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The consequence of this was, that he concluded a treaty at Passau, which by the Protestants is considered as the basis of their religious liberty. By the first three articles of this treaty it was agreed, that Maurice and the confederates should lay down their arms, and lend their troops to Ferdinand to assist him against the Turks; and that the landgrave of Hesse should be set at liberty. By the fourth it was agreed, that the Rule of Faith called the *Interim* should be considered as null and void; that the contending parties should enjoy the freee and undisturbed exercise of their religion, until a diet should be assembled to determine amicably the present disputes, (which diet was to meet in the space of six months); and that this religious liberty should continue always, in case it should be found impossible to come to an uniformity in doctrine and worship. It was also determined, that all those who had suffered banishment, or any other calamity, on account of their having been concerned in the league or war of Smalcald, should be reinstated in their privileges, possessions, and employments; that the imperial chamber at Spire should be open to the Protestants as well as to the Catholics; and that there should always be a certain number of Lutherans in that high court.—To this peace Albert, marquis of Brandenburg, refused to subscribe; and continued the war against the Roman-catholics, committing such ravages in the empire, that a confederacy was at last formed against him. At the head of this confederacy was Maurice elector of Saxony, who died of a wound he received in a battle fought on the occasion in 1553.

33 Treaty of Augsburg.

The assembling of the diet promised by Charles was prevented by various incidents; however, it met at Augsburg in 1555, where it was opened by Ferdinand in name of the emperor, and terminated those deplorable calamities which had so long desolated the empire. After various debates, the following acts were passed, on the 25th of September: That the Protestants who followed the Confession of Augsburg should be for the future considered as entirely free from the jurisdiction of the Roman pontiff, and from the authority and superintendance of the bishops; that they were left at perfect liberty to enact laws for themselves, relating to their religious sentiments, discipline, and worship; that all the inhabitants of the German empire should be allowed to judge for themselves in religious matters, and to join themselves to that church whose doctrine and worship they thought the most pure and consonant to the spirit of true Christianity; and that all those who should injure or persecute any person under religious pretences, and on account of their opinions, should be declared and proceeded against as public enemies of the empire, invaders of its liberty, and disturbers of its peace.

34 Account of the Reformation in Sweden.

Thus was the Reformation established in many parts of the German empire, where it continues to this day; nor have the efforts of the Popish powers at any time been able to suppress it, or even to prevent it from gaining ground. It was not, however, in Germany alone that a reformation of religion took place. Almost all the kingdoms of Europe began to open their eyes to the truth about the same time. The reformed religion was propagated in Sweden, soon after Luther's rupture with the church of Rome, by one of his disciples named *Olaus Petri*. The zealous efforts of this missionary were seconded by Gustavus Vasa, whom the Swedes had raised to the throne in place of Christiern king of Denmark, whose horrid barbarity lost him the crown. This prince, however, was as prudent as he was zealous; and, as the minds of the Swedes were in a fluctuating state, he wisely avoided all kind of vehemence and precipitation in spreading the new doctrine. Accordingly the first object of his attention was the instruction of his people in the sacred doctrines of the Holy Scriptures; for which purpose he invited into his dominions several learned Germans, and spread abroad through the kingdom the Swedish translation of the Bible that had been made by Olaus Petri. Some time after this, in 1526, he appointed a conference at Upsal, between this reformer and Peter Gallius a zealous defender of the ancient superstition, in which each of the champions was to bring forth his arguments, that it might be seen on which side the truth lay. In this dispute Olaus obtained a signal victory; which contributed much to confirm Gustavus in his persuasion of the truth of Luther's doctrine, and to promote its progress in Sweden. The following year another event gave the finishing stroke to its propagation and success. This was the assembly of the states at Westeraas, where Gustavus recommended the doctrine of the reformers with such zeal, that, after warm debates fomented by the clergy in general, it was unanimously resolved that the reformation introduced by Luther should have place in Sweden. This resolution was principally owing to the firmness and magnanimity of Gustavus, who declared publicly, that he would lay down the sceptre and retire from the kingdom, rather than rule a people enslaved by the orders and authority of the pope, and more controuled by the tyranny of their bishops than by the laws of their monarch. From this time the papal empire in Sweden was entirely overthrown, and Gustavus declared head of the church.

35 In Denmark.

In Denmark, the reformation was introduced as early as the year 1521, in consequence of the ardent desire discovered by Christiern II. of having his subjects instructed in the doctrines of Luther. This monarch, notwithstanding his cruelty, for which his name has been rendered odious, was nevertheless desirous of delivering his dominions from the tyranny of the church of Rome. For this purpose, in the year 1520, he sent for Martin Reinard, one of the disciples of Carlostadt, out of Saxony, and appointed him professor of divinity at Hafnia; and after his death, which happened in 1521, he invited Carlostadt himself to fill that important place. Carlostadt accepted of this office indeed, but in a short time returned to Germany; upon which Christiern used his utmost endeavours to engage Luther to visit his dominions, but in vain. However, the progress of Christiern in reforming the religion of his subjects, or rather of advancing his own power above that of the church, was checked, in the year 1523, by a conspiracy, by which he was deposed and banished; his uncle Frederic, duke of Holstein and Slesvic, being appointed his successor.

Frederic conducted the reformation with much greater prudence than his predecessor. He permitted the Protestant doctors to preach publicly the sentiments of Luther, but did not venture to change the establish-

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ed government and discipline of the church. However, he contributed greatly to the progress of the reformation, by his successful attempts in favour of religious liberty in an assembly of the states held at Odensee in 1527. Here he procured the publication of a famous edict, by which every subject of Denmark was declared free either to adhere to the tenets of the church of Rome, or to the doctrine of Luther. The papal tyranny was totally destroyed by his successor Christiern III. He began by suppressing the despotic authority of the bishops, and restoring to their lawful owners a great part of the wealth and possessions which the church had acquired by various stratagems. This was followed by a plan of religious doctrine, worship, and discipline, laid down by Bugenhagius, whom the king had sent for from Wittemberg for that purpose; and in 1539 an assembly of the states at Odensee gave a solemn sanction to all these transactions.

36 France.

In France also, the reformation began to make some progress very early. Margaret, queen of Navarre, sister to Francis I. the perpetual rival of Charles V. was a great friend to the new doctrine; and it appears, that, as early as the year 1523, there were in several of the provinces of France great numbers of people who had conceived the greatest aversion both to the doctrine and tyranny of the church of Rome; among whom were many of the first rank and dignity, and even some of the episcopal order. But as their number increased daily, and troubles and commotions were excited in several places on account of the religious differences, the authority of the king intervened, and many persons eminent for their virtue and piety were put to death in the most barbarous manner. Indeed, Francis, who had either no religion at all, or, at best, no fixed and consistent system of religious principles, conducted himself towards the Protestants in such a manner as best answered his private views. Sometimes he resolved to invite Melancthon into France, probably with a view to please his sister the queen of Navarre, whom he loved tenderly, and who had strongly imbibed the Protestant principles. At other times he exercised the most infernal cruelty towards the reformed, and once made the following mad declaration, That if he thought the blood in his arm was tainted by the Lutheran heresy, he would have it cut off; and that he would not spare even his own children, if they entertained sentiments contrary to those of the Catholic church.

About this time the famous Calvin began to draw the attention of the public, but more especially of the queen of Navarre. His zeal exposed him to danger; and the friends of the reformation, whom Francis was daily committing to the flames, placed him more than once in the most perilous situation, from which he was delivered by the interposition of the queen of Navarre. He therefore retired out of France to Basil in Switzerland; where he published his Christian Institutions, and became afterwards so famous.

Those among the French who first renounced the jurisdiction of the Romish church, are commonly called *Lutherans* by the writers of those early times. Hence it has been supposed that they had all imbibed the peculiar sentiments of Luther. But this appears by no means to have been the case: for the vicinity of the cities of Geneva, Lausanne, &c. which had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, produced a remarkable effect upon the French Protestant churches; insomuch that, about the middle of this century, they all entered into communion with the church of Geneva. The French Protestants were called *Huguenots* * by their adversaries, by way of contempt. Their fate was very severe, being persecuted with unparallelled fury; and though many princes of the blood, and of the first nobility, had embraced their sentiments, yet in no part of the world did the reformers suffer so much †. At last all commotions were quelled by the fortitude and magnanimity of Henry IV. who in the year 1598 granted all his subjects full liberty of conscience by the famous Edict of Nantz, and seemed to have thoroughly established the reformation throughout his dominions. During the minority of Lewis XIV. however, this edict was revoked by cardinal Mazarine, since which time the Protestants have often been cruelly persecuted; nor is the profession of the reformed religion in France by any means so safe as in most other countries of Europe.

* See *Huguenots*.

† See *France*, nº 78, 88.

37 In the Netherlands, &c.

In the other parts of Europe the opposition to the church of Rome was but faint and ambiguous before the diet of Augsburg. Before that period, however, it appears from undoubted testimony, that the doctrine of Luther had made a considerable, though probably secret, progress through Spain, Hungary, Bohemia, Britain, Poland, and the Netherlands; and had in all these countries many friends, of whom several repaired to Wittemberg, in order to enlarge their knowledge by means of Luther's conversation. Some of these countries threw off the Romish yoke entirely, and in others a prodigious number of families embraced the principles of the reformed religion. It is certain indeed, and the Roman-catholics themselves acknowledge it without hesitation, that the Papal doctrines and authority would have fallen into ruin in all parts of the world at once, had not the force of the secular arm been employed to support the tottering edifice. In the Netherlands particularly, the most grievous persecutions took place, so that by the emperor Char. V. upwards of 100,000 were destroyed, while still greater cruelties were exercised upon the people by his son Philip II. The revolt of the United Provinces, however, and motives of real policy, at last put a stop to these furious proceedings; and, though in many provinces of the Netherlands the Popish religion is still established, the Protestants are in no danger of being persecuted on account of their principles.

38 In Italy.

The reformation made a considerable progress in Spain and Italy soon after the rupture between Luther and the Roman pontiff. In all the provinces of Italy, but more especially in the territories of Venice, Tuscany, and Naples, the superstition of Rome lost ground, and great numbers of people of all ranks expressed an aversion to the Papal yoke. This occasioned violent and dangerous commotions in the kingdom of Naples in the year 1546; which, however, were at last quelled by the united efforts of Charles V. and his viceroy Don Pedro di Toledo. In several places the pope put a stop to the progress of the reformation, by letting loose the inquisitors; who spread dreadful marks of their barbarity through the greatest part of Italy. These formidable ministers of superstition put so many to death, and perpetrated such horrid acts of cruelty

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cruelty and oppreſſion, that moſt of the reformed conſulted their ſafety by a voluntary exile, while others returned to the religion of Rome, at leaſt in external appearance. But the inquiſition, which frighted into the profeſſion of Popery ſeveral Proteſtants in other parts of Italy, could never make its way into the kingdom of Naples; nor could either the authority or intreaties of the pope engage the Neapolitans to admit even viſiting inquiſitors.

39 In Spain.

In Spain, ſeveral people embraced the Proteſtant religion, not only from the controverſies of Luther, but even from thoſe divines whom Charles V. had brought with him into Germany in order to refute the doctrines of Luther. For theſe doctors imbibed the pretended hereſy inſtead of refuting it, and propagated it more or leſs on their return home. But the inquiſition, which could obtain no footing in Naples, reigned triumphant in Spain, and by the moſt dreadful methods frightened the people back into Popery, and ſuppreſſed the deſire of exchanging their ſuperſtition for a more rational plan of religion. It was indeed preſumed that Charles himſelf died a Proteſtant; and it ſeems to be certain, that, when the approach of death had diſſipated thoſe ſchemes of ambition and grandeur which had ſo long blinded him, his ſentiments became much more rational and agreeable to Chriſtianity than they had ever been. All the eccleſiaſtics who had attended him, as ſoon as he expired, were ſent to the inquiſition, and committed to the flames, or put to death by ſome other method equally terrible. Such was the fate of Auguſtine Caſal, the emperor's preacher; of Conſtantine Pontius, his confeſſor; of Egidius, whom he had named to the biſhopric of Tortoſa; of Bartholomew de Caranza, a Dominican, who had been confeſſor to king Philip and queen Mary; with 20 others of leſs note.

40 In England.

In England, the principles of the reformation began to be adopted as ſoon as an account of Luther's doctrines could be conveyed thither. In that kingdom there were ſtill great remains of the ſect called *Lollards*, whoſe doctrine reſembled that of Luther; and among whom, of conſequence, the ſentiments of our reformer gained great credit. Henry VIII. king of England at that time, was a violent partiſan of the church of Rome, and had a particular veneration for the writings of Thomas Aquinas. Being informed that Luther ſpoke of his favourite author with contempt, he conceived a violent prejudice againſt the reformer, and even wrote againſt him, as we have already obſerved. Luther did not heſitate at writing againſt his majeſty, overcame him in argument, and treated him with very little ceremony. The firſt ſtep towards public reformation, however, was not taken till the year 1529. Great complaints had been made in England, and of a very ancient date, of the uſurpations of the clergy; and by the prevalence of the Lutheran opinions, theſe complaints were now become more general than before. The Houſe of Commons, finding the occaſion favourable, paſſed ſeveral bills, reſtraining the impoſitions of the clergy; but what threatened the eccleſiaſtical order with the greateſt danger were the ſevere reproaches thrown out almoſt without oppoſition in the houſe, againſt the diſſolute lives, ambition, and avarice of the prieſts, and their continual encroachments on the privileges of the laity. The bills for regulating the clergy met with oppoſition in the Houſe of Lords; and biſhop Fiſher imputed them to want of faith in the Commons, and to a formed deſign, proceeding from heretical and Lutheran principles, of robbing the church of her patrimony, and overturning the national religion. The Commons, however, complained to the king, by their ſpeaker Sir Thomas Audley, of theſe reflections thrown out againſt them; and the biſhop was obliged to retract his words.

Though Henry had not the leaſt idea of rejecting any, even of the moſt abſurd Romiſh ſuperſtitions, yet as the oppreſſions of the clergy ſuited very ill with the violence of his own temper, he was pleaſed with every opportunity of leſſening their power. In the parliament of 1531, he ſhewed his deſign of humbling the clergy in the moſt effectual manner. An obſolete ſtatute was revived, from which it was pretended that it was criminal to ſubmit to the legantine power which had been exerciſed by cardinal Wolſey. By this ſtroke the whole body of clergy were declared guilty at once. They were too well acquainted with Henry's diſpoſition, however, to reply, that their ruin would have been the certain conſequence of their not ſubmitting to Wolſey's commiſſion which had been given by royal authority. Inſtead of making any defence of this kind, they choſe to throw themſelves on the mercy of their ſovereign; which, however, it coſt them 118,840 l. to procure. A confeſſion was likewiſe extorted from them, that the king was protector and ſupreme head of the church of England; though ſome of them had the dexterity to get a clauſe inſerted, which invalidated the whole ſubmiſſion, viz. *in ſo far as is permitted by the law of Chriſt.*

The king, having thus begun to reduce the power of the clergy, kept no bounds with them afterwards. He did not indeed attempt any reformation in religious matters; nay, he perſecuted moſt violently ſuch as did attempt this in the leaſt. Indeed, the moſt eſſential article of his creed ſeems to have been his own ſupremacy; for whoever denied this, was ſure to ſuffer the moſt ſevere penalties, whether Proteſtant or Papiſt. But an account of the abſurd and cruel conduct of this prince is given under the article ENGLAND, n° 220——228.

He died in 1547, and was ſucceeded by his only ſon Edward VI. This amiable prince, whoſe early youth was crowned with that wiſdom, ſagacity, and virtue, that would have done honour to advanced years, gave new ſpirit and vigour to the Proteſtant cauſe, and was its brightneſt ornament, as well as its moſt effectual ſupport. He encouraged learned and pious men of foreign countries to ſettle in England, and addreſſed a particular invitation to Martin Bucer and Paul Fagius, whoſe moderation added a luſtre to their other virtues, that, by the miniſtry and labours of theſe eminent men, in concert with thoſe of the friends of the Reformation in England, he might purge his dominions from the ſordid fictions of popery, and eſtabliſh the pure doctrines of Chriſtianity in their place. For this purpoſe, he iſſued out the wiſeſt orders for the reſtoration of true religion; but his reign was too ſhort to accompliſh fully ſuch a glorious purpoſe. In the year 1553, he was taken from his loving and afflicted ſubjects, whoſe ſorrow was inexpreſſible, and

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suited to their loss. His sister Mary (the daughter of Catharine of Arragon, from whom Henry had been separated by the famous divorce), a furious bigot to the church of Rome, and a princess whose natural character, like the spirit of her religion, was despotic and cruel, succeeded him on the British throne, and imposed anew the arbitrary laws and the tyrannical yoke of Rome upon the people of England. Nor were the methods she employed in the cause of superstition better than the cause itself, or tempered by any sentiments of equity or compassion. Barbarous tortures and death, in the most shocking forms, awaited those who opposed her will, or made the least stand against the restoration of Popery. And among many other victims, the learned and pious Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, who had been one of the most illustrious instruments of the Reformation in England, fell a sacrifice to her fury. This odious scene of persecution was happily concluded in the year 1558, by the death of the queen, who left no issue; and, as soon as her successor the lady Elizabeth ascended the throne, all things assumed a new and a pleasing aspect. This illustrious princess, whose sentiments, counsels, and projects, breathed a spirit superior to the natural softness and delicacy of her sex, exerted this vigorous and manly spirit in the defence of oppressed conscience and expiring liberty, broke anew the despotic yoke of papal authority and superstition, and, delivering her people from the bondage of Rome, established that form of religious doctrine and ecclesiastical government which still subsists in England. This religious establishment differs, in some respects, from the plan that had been formed by those whom Edward VI. had employed for promoting the cause of the Reformation, and approaches nearer to the rites and discipline of former times; though it is widely different, and, in the most important points, entirely opposite to the principles of the Roman hierarchy.

41 In Ireland.

The cause of the reformation underwent in Ireland the same vicissitudes and revolutions that had attended it in England. When Henry VIII. after the abolition of the Papal authority, was declared supreme head, upon earth, of the church of England, George Brown, a native of England, and a monk of the Augustine order, whom that monarch had created, in the year 1535, archbishop of Dublin, began to act with the utmost vigour in consequence of this change in the hierarchy. He purged the churches of his diocese from superstition in all its various forms, pulled down images, destroyed relics, abolished absurd and idolatrous rites, and, by the influence as well as authority he had in Ireland, caused the king's supremacy to be acknowledged in that nation. Henry showed, soon after, that this supremacy was not a vain title; for he banished the monks out of that kingdom, confiscated their revenues, and destroyed their convents. In the reign of Edward VI. still farther progress was made in the removal of Popish superstitions, by the zealous labours of bishop Brown, and the auspicious encouragement he granted to all who exerted themselves in the cause of the Reformation. But the death of this excellent prince, and the accession of queen Mary, had like to have changed the face of affairs in Ireland as much as in England; but her designs were disappointed by a very curious adventure, of which the following account has been copied from the papers of Richard earl of Corke. "Queen Mary having dealt severely with the Protestants in England, about the latter end of her reign signed a commission for to take the same course with them in Ireland; and to execute the same with greater force, she nominates Dr Cole one of the commissioners. This Doctor coming, with the commission, to Chester on his journey, the mayor of that city hearing that her majesty was sending a messenger into Ireland, and he being a churchman, waited on the Doctor, who in discourse with the mayor taketh out of a cloke-bag a leather box, saying unto him, *Here is a commission that shall lash the Heretics of Ireland*, calling the Protestants by that title. The good woman of the house being well affected to the Protestant religion, and also having a brother named *John Edmonds* of the same, then a citizen in Dublin, was much troubled at the Doctor's words; but watching her convenient time while the mayor took his leave, and the Doctor complimented him down the stairs, she opens the box, takes the commission out, and places in lieu thereof a sheet of paper with a pack of cards wrapt up therein, the knave of clubs being faced uppermost. The Doctor coming up to his chamber, suspecting nothing of what had been done, put up the box as formerly. The next day going to the water-side, wind and weather serving him, he sails towards Ireland, and landed on the 7th of October 1558 at Dublin. Then coming to the castle, the Lord Fitz-Walters being lord-deputy, sent for him to come before him and the privy-council; who, coming in, after he had made a speech relating upon what account he came over, he presents the box unto the lord-deputy, who causing it to be opened, that the secretary might read the commission, there was nothing save a pack of cards with the knave of clubs uppermost; which not only startled the lord-deputy and council, but the Doctor, who assured them he had a commission, but knew not how it was gone. Then the lord-deputy made answer: Let us have another commission, and we will shuffle the cards in the mean while. The Doctor being troubled in his mind, went away, and returned into England, and coming to the court obtained another commission; but staying for a wind on the water-side, news came to him that the queen was dead: and thus God preserved the Protestants of Ireland." Queen Elisabeth was so delighted with this story, which was related to her by Lord Fitz-Walter on his return to England, that she sent for Elisabeth Edmonds, whose husband's name was *Mattershad*, and gave her a pension of 40l. during her life.

42 Curious disappointment of a Popish doctor in Scotland.

43 Of the Reformation in Scotland.

In Scotland, the seeds of reformation were very early sown, by several noblemen who had resided in Germany during the religious disputes there. But for many years it was suppressed by the power of the pope, seconded by inhuman laws and barbarous executions. The most eminent opposer of the Papal jurisdiction was John Knox, a disciple of Calvin, a man of great zeal and invincible fortitude. On all occasions he raised the drooping spirits of the reformers, and encouraged them to go on with their work notwithstanding the opposition and treachery of the queen-regent; till at last, in 1561, by the assistance of an English army sent by Elisabeth, Popery was in a manner totally extirpated throughout the kingdom. From this period to the present times, the form of doctrine, worship, and

and discipline established by Calvin at Geneva, has been maintained in Scotland. But for a particular account of the various difficulties which the Scottish reformers had to struggle with, and the manner in which these were overcome, and the present system of religion established, see the article SCOTLAND.

REFRACTION, in general, is the deviation of a moving body from its direct course, occasioned by the different density of the medium in which it moves; or it is a change of direction occasioned by a body's falling obliquely out of one medium into another. The word is chiefly made use of with regard to the rays of of light. See OPTICS, p. 5520, *et seq.*

REFRANGIBILITY *of* LIGHT, the disposition of rays to be refracted. The term is chiefly applied to the disposition of rays to produce different colours, according to their different degrees of refrangibility. See CHROMATICS and OPTICS *passim*.

REFRIGERATIVE, in medicine, a remedy which refreshes the inward parts by cooling them; as clysters, ptisans, &c.

REFRIGERATORY, in chemistry, a vessel filled with cold water, through which the worm passes in distillations; the use of which is to condense the vapours as they pass through the worm.

REFUGEES, a term at first applied to the French Protestants, who, by the revocation of the edict of Nantz, were constrained to fly from persecution, and take refuge in foreign countries. Since that time, however, it has been extended to all such as leave their country in times of distress; and hence, since the revolt of the British colonies in America, we have frequently heard of *American refugees*.

REGALE, a magnificent entertainment, or treat, given to ambassadors and other persons of distinction, to entertain or do them honour.

It is usual in Italy, at the arrival of a traveller of eminence, to send him a regale, that is, a present of sweetmeats, fruits, &c. by way of refreshment.

REGALIA, in law, the rights and prerogatives of a king. See PREROGATIVE.

Regalia is also used for the apparatus of a coronation; as the crown, the sceptre with the cross, that with the dove, St Edward's staff, the globe, and the orb with the cross, four several swords, &c.—The regalia of Scotland were deposited in the castle of Edinburgh in the year 1707, and are said to be still kept there; but they are never shown to any body.

LORD *of* REGALITY, in Scots law. See LAW, n° clviii. 4.

COURT *of* REGARD. See FOREST-*Courts*.

REGARDANT, in heraldry, signifies looking behind; and it is used for a lion, or other beast, with his face turned towards his tail.

REGARDER, an ancient officer of the king's forest, sworn to make the regard of the forest every year; that is, to take a view of its limits, to inquire into all offences and defaults committed by the foresters within the forest, and to observe whether all the other officers executed their respective duties.

REGEL, or RIGEL, a fixed star of the first magnitude, in Orion's left foot.

REGENERATION, in theology, the act of being born again by a spiritual birth, or the change of heart and life experienced by a person who forsakes a course of vice and sincerely embraces a life of virtue and piety.

REGENT, one who governs a kingdom during the minority or absence of the king.

In France, the queen-mother has the regency of the kingdom during the minority of the king, under the title of *queen-regent*.

In England, the methods of appointing this guardian or regent have been so various, and the duration of his power so uncertain, that from hence alone it may be collected that his office is unknown to the common law; and therefore (as Sir Edward Coke says, 4 Inst. 58.) the surest way is to have him made by authority of the great council in parliament. The earl of Pembroke by his own authority assumed in very troublesome times the regency of Henry III. who was then only nine years old; but was declared of full age by the pope at 17, confirmed the great charter at 18, and took upon him the administration of the government at 20. A guardian and councils of regency were named by Edward III. by the parliament, which deposed his father; the young king being then 15, and not assuming the government till three years after. When Richard II. succeeded at the age of 11, the duke of Lancaster took upon him the management of the kingdom, till the parliament met, which appointed a nominal council to assist him. Henry V. on his deathbed named a regent and a guardain for his infant son Henry VI. then nine months old: but the parliament altered his disposition, and appointed a protector and council, with a special limited authority. Both these princes remained in a state of pupilage till the age of 23. Edward V. at the age of 13, was recommended by his father to the care of the duke of Glocester; who was declared protector by the privy-council. The statutes 25 Hen. VIII. c. 12. and 28 Hen. VIII. c. 7. provided, that the successor, if a male and under 18, or if a female and under 16, should be till such age in the governance of his or her natural mother, (if approved by the king), and such other counsellors as his majesty should by will or otherwise appoint: and he accordingly appointed his 16 executors to have the government of his son Edward VI. and the kingdom, which executors elected the earl of Hartford protector. The statutes 24 Geo. II. c. 24. in case the crown should descend to any of the children of Frederic late prince of Wales under the age of 18, appointed the princess dowager;—and that of 5 Geo. III. c. 27. in case of a like descent to any of his present majesty's children, empowers the king to name either the queen or princess dowager, or any descendant of king George II. residing in this kingdom;—to be guardian and regent, till the successor attains such age, assisted by a council of regency: the powers of them all being expressly defined and set down in the several acts.

REGENT also signifies a professor of arts and sciences in a college, who has a set of pupils under his care: but here regent is generally restrained to the lowe; classes, as, regent of rhetoric, regent of logic, &c. those of philosophy are rather called *professors*.

REGIAM MAJESTATEM. See LAW, N° clv. 3.

REGICIDE, KING-KILLER, a word chiefly used with us in speaking of the persons concerned in the trial, condemnation, and execution, of king Charles I.

RE-

Regimen || Region.

REGIMEN, the regulation of diet, and, in a more general ſenſe, of all the non-naturals, with a view to preſerve or reſtore health. See ABSTINENCE, ALIMENT, FOOD, DIET, DRINK, and MEDICINE.

The viciſſitude of exerciſe and reſt forms alſo a neceſſary part of regimen. See EXERCISE.

It is beneficial to be at reſt now and then, but more ſo frequently to uſe exerciſe; becauſe inaction renders the body weak and liſtleſs, and labour ſtrengthens it. But a medium is to be obſerved in all things, and too much fatigue to be avoided: for frequent and violent exerciſe overpowers the natural ſtrength, and waſtes the body; but moderate exerciſe ought always to be uſed before meals. Now, of all kinds of exerciſe, riding on horſeback is the moſt convenient: or if the perſon be too weak to bear it, riding in a coach, or at leaſt in a litter: next follow fencing, playing at ball, running, walking. But it is one of the inconveniences of old age, that there is ſeldom ſufficient ſtrength for uſing bodily exerciſe, though it be extremely requiſite for health: wherefore frictions with the fleſh-bruſh are neceſſary at this time of life; which ſhould be performed by the perſon himſelf, if poſſible; if not, by his ſervants.

Sleep is the ſweet ſoother of cares, and reſtorer of ſtrength; as it repairs and replaces the waſtes that are made by the labours and exerciſes of the day. But exceſſive ſleep has its inconveniences; for it blunts the ſenſes, and renders them leſs fit for the duties of life. The proper time for ſleep is the night, when darkneſs and ſilence invite and bring it on: day-ſleep is leſs refreſhing; which rule if it be proper for the multitude to obſerve, much more is the obſervance of it neceſſary for perſons addicted to literary ſtudies, whoſe minds and bodies are more ſuſceptible of injuries.

REGIMEN, in grammar, that part of ſyntax, or conſtruction, which regulates the dependency of words, and the alterations which one occaſions in another.

REGIMEN *for Seamen*. See SEAMEN.

REGIMENT, is a body of men, either horſe, foot, or artillery, commanded by a colonel, lieutenant-colonel, and major. Each regimeut of foot is divided into companies; but the number of companies differs: though in Britain our regiments are generally 10 companies, one of which is always grenadiers, excluſive of the two independent companies. Regiments of horſe are commonly 6 troops, but ſome of 9. Dragoon regiments, are generally in war-time 8 troops, and in time of peace but 6. Each regiment has a chaplain, quarter-maſter, adjutant, and ſurgeon. Some German regiments conſiſt of 2000 foot; and the regiment of Picardy France, of 6000, being 120 companies, of 50 men in each company.

Regiments were firſt formed in France in the year 1558, and in England in the year 1660.

REGIOMONTANUS. See MULLER.

REGION, in geography, a large extent of land, inhabited by many people of the ſame nation, and incloſed within certain limits or bounds.

The modern aſtronomers divide the moon into ſeveral regions, or large tracts of land, to each of which they give its proper name.

REGION, in phyſiology, is taken for a diviſion of our atmoſphere, which is divived into the upper, middle, and lower regions.

Region || Regium

The upper region commences from the tops of the mountains, and reaches to the utmoſt limits of the atmoſphere. In this region reign a perpetual, equable, calmneſs, clearneſs, and ſerenity. The middle region is that in which the clouds reſide, and where meteors are formed, extending from the extremity of the loweſt to the tops of the higheſt mountains. The loweſt region is that in which we breath, which is bounded by the reflection of the ſun's rays; or by the height to which they rebound from the earth. See ATMOSPHERE and AIR.

Æthereal REGION, in coſmography, is the whole extent of the univerſe, in which is included all the heavenly bodies, and even the orb of the fixed ſtars.

Elementary REGION, according to the Ariſtotelians, is a ſphere terminated by the concavity of the moon's orb, comprehending the atmoſphere of the earth.

REGION, in anatomy, a diviſion of the human body, otherwiſe called *cavity*, of which anatomiſts reckon three, viz. the upper region, or that of the head; the middle region, that of the thorax or breaſt; and the lower the abdomen, or belly. See ANATOMY.

REGISTER, a public book, in which are entered and recorded memoirs, acts and minutes, to be had recourſe to occaſionally for knowing and proving matters of fact. Of theſe there are ſeveral kinds; as,

1. Regiſter of deeds in Yorkſhire and Middleſex, in which are regiſtered all deeds, conveyances, wills, &c. that affect any lands or tenements in thoſe counties, which are otherwiſe void againſt any ſubſequent purchaſers or mortgagees, &c. but this does not extend to any copyhold eſtate, nor to leaſes at a rack-rent, or where they do not exceed 21 years. The regiſtered memorials muſt be ingroſſed on parchment, under the hand and ſeal of ſome of the grantors or grantees, atteſted by witneſſes who are to prove the ſigning or ſealing of them and the execution of the deed. But theſe regiſters, which are confined to two counties, are in Scotland general, by which the laws of North Britain are rendered very eaſy and regular. Of theſe there are two kinds; the one general, fixed at Edinburgh, under the direction of the lord-regiſter; and the other is kept in the ſeveral ſhires, ſtewartries, and regalities, the clerks of which are obliged to tranſmit the regiſters of their reſpective courts to the general regiſter.

2. Pariſh-regiſters, are books in which are regiſtered the baptiſms, marriages, and burials, of each pariſh.

REGISTER *Ships*, in commerce, are veſſels which obtain a permiſſion either from the king of Spain, or the council of the Indies, to traffic in the ports of the Spaniſh Weſt Indies; which are thus called, from their being regiſtered before they ſet ſail from Cadiz for Buenos Ayres.

REGISTERS, in chemiſtry, are holes, or chinks with ſtopples, contrived in the ſides of furnaces, to regulate the fire; that is, to make the heat more intenſe or remiſs, by opening them to let in the air, or keeping them cloſe to exclude it. There are alſo regiſters in the ſteam-engine. See STEAM-*Engine*.

REGIUM, REGUM *Lepidi*, *Regium Lepidum*, (anc. geog.); a town of Ciſalpine Gaul, on the Via Æmilia, ſo called from Æmilius Lepidus, who was conſul with C. Flaminius; but whence it was ſurnamed

Regiuvi, is altogether uncertain. Tacitus relates, that at the battle of Bedriacum, a bird of an unusual size was seen perching in a famous grove near *Regium Lepidum*. Now called *Reggio*, a city of Modena. E. Long. 11. 0. N. Lat. 44. 45.

REGNRAD (John Francis), one of the best French comic writers after Moliere, was born at Paris in 1647. He had scarcely finished his studies, when an ardent passion for travelling carried him over the greatest part of Europe. When he settled in his own country, he was made a treasurer of France, and lieutenant of the waters and forests: he wrote a great many comedies; and, though naturally of a gay genius, died of chagrin in the 52d year of his age. His works, consisting of comedies and travels, were printed at Rouen, in 5 vols 12mo, 1732.

REGNIER (Mathurin), the first French poet who succeeded in satire, was born at Chartres in 1573. He was brought up to the church, a place for which his debaucheries rendered him very unsuitable; and these by his own confession were so excessive, that at 30 he had all the infirmities of age. Yet he obtained a canonry in the church of Chartres, with other benefices; and died in 1613. There is a neat Elzevir edition of his works, 12mo, 1652, Leyden; but the most elegant is that with notes by M. Brossette, 4to, 1729, London.

REGNIER DES MARETS (Seraphin), a French poet, born at Paris in 1632. He distinguished himself early by his poetical talents, and in 1684 was made perpetual secretary to the French academy on the death of Mezeray: it was he who drew up all those papers in the name of the academy against Furetiere: the king gave him the priory of Grammont, and he had also an abbey. He died in 1713, and his works are, French, Italian, Spanish, and Latin poems, 2 vols; a French grammar; and an Italian translation of Anacreon's odes, with some other translations.

REGNUM, (anc. geog.) a town of the Regni, a people in Britain, next the Cantii, now Surry, Sussex, and the coast of Hampshire, (Cambden); a town situate, by the Itinerary numbers, on the confines of the Belgæ, in a place now called *Ringwood*, in Hampshire, on the rivulet Avon, running down from Salisbury, and about ten miles or more distant from the sea.

REGRATOR, signifies him who buys and sells any wares or victuals in the *same* market or fair: and regrators are particularly described to be those who buy, or get into their hands, in fairs or markets, any grain, fish, butter, cheese, sheep, lambs, calves, swine, pigs, geese, capons, hens, chickens, pigeons, conies, or other dead victuals whatsoever, brought to a fair or market to be sold there, and do sell the same again in the same fair, market, or place, or in some other within four miles thereof.

Regrating is a kind of *Huckstry*, by which victuals are made dearer; for every seller will gain something, which must of consequence enhance the price. And, in ancient times, both the engrosser and regrator were comprehended under the word *forestaller*. Regrators are punishable by loss and forfeiture of goods, and imprisonment, according to the first, second, or third offence, &c.

REGENSBERG, a handsome, though small town of Switzerland, in the canton of Zurich, and capital of a bailiwick of the same name, with a strong castle; seated on a hill which is part of Mount Jura. There is a well sunk through a rock, 36 fathoms deep.

REGGIO, an ancient and considerable town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and in the Farther Calabria, with an archbishop's see, and a woollen manufactory. It is seated in a country which produces plenty of dates, on the streight or pharos of Messina, and is a large populous place. E. Long. 16. 3. N. Lat. 38. 6.

REGGIO, an ancient, handsome, and strong town of Italy, in the duchy of Modena, with a strong citadel, and a bishop's see. It has been ruined several times by the Goths and other nations. In the cathedral are paintings by the greatest masters; and in the square the statue of Brennus, chief of the Gauls. The inhabitants are about 22,000, who carry on a great trade in silk. It was taken by prince Eugene in 1706, and by the king of Sardinia in 1742. It is seated in a fertile country to the south of the Appennines, and to the north of a spacious plain, 15 miles north-west of Modena, and 83 south-east of Milan. E. Long. 10. 37. N. Lat. 44. 43. The duchy of this name is bounded on the west by that of Modena, and produces a great deal of silk; and belongs to the duke of Modena, except the marquisate of St Martin, which belongs to a prince of that name.

REGULAR, denotes any thing that is agreeable to the rules of art: thus we say, a regular building, verb, &c.

A regular figure in geometry, is one whose sides, and consequently angles, are equal; and a regular figure with three or four sides, is commonly termed an *equilateral triangle*, or *square*, as all others with more sides are called *regular polygons*.

REGULAR, in a monastery, a person who has taken the vows; because he is bound to observe the rules of the order he has embraced.

REGULATION, a rule or order prescribed by a superior, for the proper management of some affair.

REGULATOR *of a* WATCH, the small spring belonging to the balance; serving to adjust its motions, and make it go faster or slower. See WATCH.

REGULBIUM, or REGULVIUM, (Notitia Imperii); mentioned no where else more early: a town of the Cantii, in Britain. Now *Reculver*, a village on the coast, near the island Thanet, towards the Thames, to the north of Canterbury, (Cambden).

REGULUS, in chemistry, an imperfect metallic substance, that falls to the bottom of the crucible, in the melting of ores or impure metallic substances.

REGULUS *of Antimony*. See CHEMISTRY, nº 158, 211, 258, 449.

REGULUS *of Arsenic*. This is a white arsenic, to which the properties of a semi-metal have been given, by combining it properly with a sufficient quantity of phlogiston.

Regulus of arsenic may be made by several methods. The process anciently used for this purpose consisted in mixing four parts of arsenic with two parts of black flux, one part of borax, and one part of filings of iron or of copper, and quickly fusing the mixture in a crucible. When the operation is finished, a regulus of arsenic will be found at the bottom of the crucible, of a white livid colour, and considerably solid. The iron and

Regulus. and copper employed in this process are not intended, as in the operation for the martial regulus of antimony, to precipitate the arsenic, and to separate it from sulphur or any other substance; for the white arsenic is pure, and nothing is to be taken from it; but, on the contrary, the inflammable principle is to be added to reduce it to a regulus. The true use of these metals in the present operation is to unite with the regulus of arsenic, to give it more body, and to prevent its entire dissipation in vapours. Hence the addition of iron, while it procures these advantages, has the inconveniency of altering the purity of the regulus: for the metallic substance obtained is a regulus of arsenic allayed with iron. It may, however, be purified from the iron by sublimation in a close vessel; by which operation the reguliſed arsenical part, which is very volatile, is sublimed to the top of the vessel, and is separated from the iron, which being of a fixed nature, remains at the bottom. We are not, however, very certain, that in this kind of rectification the regulus of arsenic does not carry along with it a certain quantity of iron; for in general a volatile substance raises along with it, in sublimation, a part of any fixed matter with which it happened to be united.

Chem. Dict.

Mr Brandt proposes another method, which we believe is preferable to that described. He directs that white arsenic should be mixed with soap. Instead of the soap, olive-oil may be used, which has been found to succeed well. The mixture is to be put into a retort or glass matrass, and to be distilled or sublimed with fire at first very moderate, and only sufficient to raise the oil. As the oils, which are not volatile, cannot be distilled but by a heat sufficient to burn and decompose them, the oil therefore which is mixed with the arsenic undergoes these alterations, and after having penetrated the arsenic thoroughly is reduced to a coal. When no more oily vapours rise, we may then know that the oil is reduced to coal. Then the fire must be increased, and the metallised arsenic will be soon sublimed to the upper part of the vessel, in the inside of which it will form a metallic crust. When no more sublimes, the vessel is to be broken, and the adhering crust of regulus of arsenic is to be separated. The regulus obtained by this first operation is not generally perfect, or not entirely so, as a part of it is always overcharged with fuliginous matter, and another part has not enough of phlogiston; which latter part adheres to the inner surface of the crust, and forms grey or brown crystals. This sublimate must then be mixed with a less quantity of oil, and sublimed a second time like the first; and even, to obtain as good regulus as may be made, a third sublimation in a close vessel, and without oil, is necessary. During this operation, the oil which rises is more fetid than any other empyreumatic oil, and is almost insupportable. This smell certainly proceeds from the arsenic, the smell of which is exceedingly strong and disagreeable when heated.

Regulus of arsenic made by the method we have described, and which we consider as the only one which is pure, has all the properties of a semi-metal. It has metallic gravity, opacity, and lustre. Its colour is white and livid, it tarnishes in the air, is very brittle, but much more volatile than any other semi-metal. It easily loses its inflammable principle, when sublimed in vessels into which the air has access; the sublimate having the appearance of grey flowers, which by repeated sublimations become entirely white, and similar to white crystalline arsenic.

When regulus of arsenic is heated quickly and strongly in open air, as under a muffle, it burns with a white or bluish flame, and dissipates in a thick fume, which has a very fetid smell, like that of garlic.

Regulus of arsenic may be combined with acids and most metals. As white arsenic also can unite with these substances, we refer to that article. We shall only observe here, that, according to Mr Brandt, in the Swedish Memoirs, the regulus of arsenic cannot be united with mercury. Although the phenomena exhibited by white arsenic and regulus of arsenic in solutions and allays are probably the same, yet an accurate comparison of these would deserve notice, especially if the regulus employed were well made; for some difference must proceed from the greater or less quantity of phlogiston with which it is united. See CHEMISTRY, n° 467.

REGULUS *of Cobalt*, is a semi-metal lately discovered, and not yet perfectly well known. It receives its name from cobalt, because it can only be extracted from the mineral properly so called.

The process by which this semi-metal is obtained, is similar to those generally used for the extraction of metals from their ores. The cobalt must be thoroughly torrefied to deprive it of all the sulphur and arsenic it contains; and the unmetallic earthy and stony matters must be separated by washing. The cobalt thus prepared is then to be mixed with double or triple its quantity of black flux, and a little decrepitated sea-salt; and must be fused either in a forge or in a hot furnace, for this ore is very difficult of fusion.

When the fusion has been well made, we find, upon breaking the crucible, after it has cooled, a metallic regulus covered with a scoria of a deep blue colour. The regulus is of a white metallic colour. The surface of its fracture is close and small-grained. The semi-metal is hard, but brittle. When the fusion has been well made, its surface appears to be carved with many convex threads, which cross each other diversely. As almost all cobalts contain also bismuth, and even as much as of the regulus itself, this bismuth is reduced by the same operation, and precipitated in the same manner, as the regulus of cobalt; for although these two metals are frequently mixed in the same mineral, that is, in cobalt, they are incapable of uniting together, and are always found distinct and separate from one another when they are melted together. At the bottom of the crucible then we find both regulus of cobalt and bismuth. The latter, having a greater specific gravity, is found under the former. They may be separated from each other by the blow of a hammer. Bismuth may be easily distinguished from the regulus of cobalt, not only from its situation in the crucible, but also by the large shining facets which appear in its fracture, and which are very different from the close ash-coloured grain of regulus of cobalt.

This semi-metal is more difficult of fusion than any other; is less easily calcinable, and much less volatile. Its calx is grey, and more or less brown; and when fused with vitrifiable matters, it changes into a beautiful blue glass called *smalt*. This calx then is one of those which

Regulus || Reland.

which preserve always a part of their inflammable principle. It is soluble in acids, as the regulus is. This regulus is soluble in vitriolic, marine, nitrous acids, and in aqua regia, to all which it communicates colours. The solution in vitriolic acid is reddish; the solution in marine acid is of a fine bluish-green when hot, and its colour is almost totally effaced when cold, but is easily recoverable by heating it, without being obliged to uncork the bottle containing it. This solution of the calx of regulus of cobalt is the basis of the sympathetic ink; for without marine acid this ink cannot be made.

All the solutions of regulus of cobalt may be precipitated by alkalies; and these precipitates are blue, which colour they retain when vitrified with the strongest fire.

Not only sympathetic ink, but also regulus of cobalt, may be made from the zaffre commonly sold, which is nothing else than the calx of regulus of cobalt mixed with more or less pulverised flints. For this purpose we must separate as well as we can the powder of flints from it, by washing, as Mr Beaumé does, and then reduce it with black flux and sea-salt.

Regulus of cobalt seems incapable of uniting with sulphur: but it easily unites with liver of sulphur; and the union it forms is so intimate, that Mr Beaumé could not separate these two substances, otherwise than by precipitation with an acid.

Many curious and interesting remarks are still to be discovered concerning this singular semi-metal, and we may hope to receive further information from the endeavours of chemists who have undertaken the examination of it. Mr Beaumé particularly has made considerable experiments on this subject, part of which he communicates to the public in his Course of Chemistry. All the new remarks in this article are from him. See Chemistry, n° 159, 212, 213, 259.

REHEARSAL, in music and the drama, an essay or experiment of some composition, generally made in private, previous to its representation or performance in public, in order to render the actors and performers more perfect in their parts.

REINS, in anatomy, the same with Kidneys.

Reins *of a Bridle*, are two long slips of leather, fastened on each side of a curb or snaffle, which the rider holds in his hand, to keep the horse in subjection.

There is also what is called *false reins;* which is a lath of leather, passed sometimes through the arch of the banquet, to bend the horse's neck.

REJOINDER, in law, is the defendant's answer to the plaintiff's replication or reply. Thus, in the court of chancery, the defendant puts in an answer to the plaintiff's bill, which is sometimes also called an *exception;* the plaintiff's answer to that is called a *replication*, and the defendant's answer to that a *rejoinder*.

RELAND (Adrian), an eminent Orientalist, born at Ryp, in North Holland, in 1676. During three years study under Surenhusius, he made an uncommon progress in the Hebrew, Syriac, Chaldee, and Arabic languages; and these languages were always his favourite study. In 1701, he was, by the recommendation of king William, appointed professor of Oriental languages and ecclesiastical antiquities in the university of Utrecht; and died of the small-pox in 1718. He was distinguished by his modesty, humanity, and learning; and carried on a correspondence with the most eminent scholars of his time. His principal works are, 1. An excellent description of Palestine. 2. Five dissertations on the Medals of the ancient Hebrews, and several other dissertations on different subjects. 3. An Introduction to the Hebrew Grammar. 4. The Antiquities of the ancient Hebrews. 5. On the Mahometan Religion. These works are all written in Latin.

Relation || Release.

RELATION, the mutual respect of two things, or what each is with regard to the other. See Metaphysics, n° 50, 54, 94, 98, 121, &c.

Relation, in geometry. See Ratio.

Relation, is also used for analogy. See Analogy.

RELATIVE, something relating to or respecting another.

Relative, in music. See Mode.

Relative *Terms*, in logic, are words which imply a relation: such are master and servant, husband and wife, &c.

In grammar, relative words are those which answer to some other word foregoing, called the *antecedent;* such are the relative pronouns *qui, quæ, quod*, &c. and in English, *who, whom, which*, &c. The word answering to these relatives is often understood, as, "I know whom you mean;" for "I know the person whom you mean."

RELAXATION, in medicine, the act of loosening or slackening; or the looseness or slackness of the fibres, nerves, muscles, &c.

RELAY, a supply of horses, placed on the road, and appointed to be ready for a traveller to change, in order to make the greater expedition.

RELEASE, in law, is a discharge or conveyance of a man's right in lands or tenements, to another that hath some former estate in possession. The words generally used therein are "remised, released, and for ever quit-claimed." And these releases may enure, either, 1. By way of *enlarging an estate*, or *enlarger l' estate:* as, if there be tenant for life or years, remainder to another in fee, and he in remainder releases all his right to the particular tenant and his heirs, this gives him the estate in fee. But in this case the releasee must be in *possession* of some estate, for the releasee to work upon; for if there be lessee for years, and, before he enters and is in possession, the lessor releases to him all his right in the reversion, such release is void for want of possession in the releasee. 2. By way of *passing an estate*, or *mitter l' estate:* as, when one of two coparceners releaseth all her right to the other, this passeth the fee-simple of the whole. And in both these cases there must be a privity of estate between the releasor and releasee; that is, one of their estates must be fo related to the other, as to make but one and the same estate in law. 3. By way of *passing a right*, or *mitter le droit:* as if a man be disseised, and releaseth to his disseisor all his right; hereby the disseisor acquires a new right, which changes the quality of his estate, and renders that lawful which before was tortious. 4. By way of *extinguishment:* as if my tenant for life makes a lease to A for life, remainder to B and his heirs, and I release to A; this ex-

Blackst. Comment.

extinguiſhes my right to the reverſion, and ſhall enure to the advantage of B's remainder as well as of A's particular eſtate. 5. By way of *entry and feoffment:* as if there be two joint diſſeiſors, and the diſſeiſee releaſes to one of them, he ſhall be ſole ſeiſed, and ſhall keep out his former companion; which is the ſame in effect as if the diſſeiſee had entered, and thereby put an end to the diſſeiſin, and afterwards had enfeoffed one of the diſſeiſors in fee. And hereupon we may obſerve, that when a man has in himſelf the poſſeſſion of lands, he muſt at the common law convey the freehold by feoffment and livery; which makes a notoriety in the country: but if a man has only a right or a future intereſt, he may convey that right or intereſt by a mere releaſe to him that is in poſſeſſion of the land: for the occupancy of the releſſee is a matter of ſufficient notoriety already.

RELEVANCY, in Scots law. See LAW, N° clxxxvi. 48.

RELICS, in the Romiſh church, the remains of the bodies or cloaths of ſaints or martyrs, and the inſtruments by which they were put to death, devoutly preſerved, in honour to their memory; kiſſed, revered, and carried in proceſſion.

RELICT, in law, the ſame with WIDOW.

RELIEF, (*Relevamen;* but, in Domeſday, *Relevatio, Relevium*), ſignifies a certain ſum of money, which the tenant, holding by knight's ſervice, grand ſerjeanty, or other tenure, (for which homage or legal ſervice is due), and being at full age at the death of his anceſtor, paid unto his lord at his entrance.

Though reliefs had their original while feuds were only life-eſtates, yet they continued after feuds became hereditary; and were therefore looked upon, very juſtly, as one of the greateſt grievances of tenure: eſpecially when, at the firſt, they were merely arbitrary and at the will of the lord; ſo that, if he pleaſed to demand an exorbitant relief, it was in effect to diſinherit the heir. The Engliſh ill brooked this conſequence of their new-adopted policy; and therefore William the conqueror by his laws *aſcertained* the relief, by directing (in imitation of the Daniſh heriots), that a certain quantity of arms, and habiliments of war, ſhould be paid by the earls, barons, and vavaſours reſpectively; and, if the latter had no arms, they ſhould pay 100 s. William Rufus broke thro' this compoſition, and again demanded arbitrary uncertain reliefs, as due by the feodal laws; thereby in effect obliging every heir to new-purchaſe or *redeem* his land: but his brother Henry I. by the charter beforementioned, reſtored his father's law; and ordained, that the relief to be paid ſhould be according to the law ſo eſtabliſhed, and not an arbitrary redemption. But afterwards, when, by an ordinance in 27 Hen. II. called the *aſſiſe of arms*, it was provided, that every man's armour ſhould deſcend to his heir, for defence of the realm, and it thereby became impracticable to pay theſe acknowledgments in arms according to the laws of the conqueror, the compoſition was univerſally accepted of 100 s. for every knight's fee, as we find it ever after eſtabliſhed. But it muſt be remembered, that this relief was only then payable, if the heir at the death of his anceſtor had attained his full age of 21 years.

To RELIEVE *the* GUARD, is to put freſh men upon guard, which is generally every 24 hours.

To RELIEVE *the Trenches*, is to relieve the guard of the trenches, by appointing thoſe for that duty who have been there before.

To RELIEVE *the Sentries*, is to put freſh men upon that duty from the guard, which is generally done every two hours, by a corporal who attends the relief, to ſee the proper orders are delivered to the ſoldier who relieves.

RELIEVO, or RELIEF, in ſculpture, &c. is the projecture or ſtanding out of a figure which ariſes prominent from the ground or plan on which it is formed; whether that figure be cut with the chiſel, mould ed, or caſt.

There are three kinds or degrees of relievo, viz. alto, baſſo, and demi-relievo. The alto-relievo, called alſo *haut-relief*, or *high-relievo*, is when the figure is formed after nature, and projects as much as the life. Baſſo-relievo, baſs-relief, or low-relievo, is when the work is raiſed a little from the ground, as in medals, and the frontiſpieces of buildings; and particularly in the hiſtories, feſtoons, foliages, and other ornaments of friezes. Demi-relievo is when one half of the figure riſes from the plan. When, in a baſſo-relievo, there are parts that ſtand clear out, detached from the reſt, the work is called a *demi baſſo*.

In architecture, the relievo or projecture of the ornaments ought always to be proportioned to the magnitude of the building it adorns, and to the diſtance at which it is to be viewed.

RELIEVO, or *Relief*, in painting, is the degree of boldneſs with which the figures ſeem, at a due diſtance, to ſtand out from the ground of the painting.

The relievo depends much upon the depth of the ſhadow, and the ſtrength of the light; or on the height of the different colours, bordering on one another; and particularly on the difference of the colour of the figure from that of the ground: thus, when the light is ſo diſpoſed as to make the neareſt parts of the figure advance, and is well diffuſed on the maſſes, yet inſenſibly diminiſhing, and terminating in a large ſpacious ſhadow, brought off inſenſibly, the relievo is ſaid to be bold, and the clair obſcure well underſtood.

RELIGION, that worſhip and homage which is due to God, conſidered as our Creator, Preſerver, and moſt bountiful Benefactor.

As our affections depend on our opinions of their objects, it ſeems to be among the firſt duties we owe to the Author of our being, to form the leaſt imperfect, ſince we cannot form perfect, conceptions of his character and adminiſtration: for ſuch conceptions will render our religion rational, and our diſpoſitions refined. If our opinions are diminutive and diſtorted, our religion will be ſuperſtitious, and our temper abject. Thus, if we aſcribe to the Deity that falſe majeſty which conſiſts in the unbenevolent and ſullen exerciſe of mere will or power, or ſuppoſe him to delight in the proſtrations of ſervile fear, or as ſervile praiſe, he will be worſhipped with mean adulation, and a profuſion of compliments. If he be looked upon as a ſtern and implacable Being, delighting in vengeance, he will be adored with pompous offerings, or whatever elſe may be thought proper to ſoothe and mollify him. But if we believe perfect goodneſs to be the character

Religion. ter of the Supreme Being, and that he loves those who resemble him most in this the most amiable of his attributes, the worship paid him will be rational and sublime, and his worshippers will seek to please him by imitating that goodness which they adore. Indeed, wherever right conceptions of the Deity, and his Providence, prevail, when he is considered as the inexhausted source of light, and love, and joy, as acting in the joint character of a father and governor, what veneration and gratitude must such conceptions, thoroughly believed, excite in the mind? how natural and delightful must it be, to one whose heart is open to the perception of truth, and of every thing fair, great, and wonderful in nature, to engage in the exercises of religion, and to contemplate and adore him, who is the first fair, first great, and first wonderful; in whom wisdom, power, and goodness dwell vitally, essentially, and act in perfect concert? what grandeur is here, to fill the most enlarged capacity, what beauty to engage the most ardent love, what a mass of wonders, in such exuberance of perfection, to astonish and delight the human mind, through an unfailing duration! When we consider the unsullied purity and absolute perfection of the divine nature, and reflect on the imperfection and various blemishes of our own, and the ungrateful returns we have made to his goodness, we must sink, or be convinced we ought to sink, into the deepest humility and prostration of soul before him, and be conscious that it is our duty to repent of a temper and conduct so unworthy of our nature, and so unbecoming our obligations to its author; and to resolve to act a wiser and better part for the future. And if the Deity is considered as the father of mercies, who loves his creatures with infinite tenderness, and, in a particular manner, all good men; nay, who delights in goodness even in its most imperfect degrees; what resignation, what dependence, what generous confidence, what hope in God, and in his all-wise providence, must arise in the soul that is possessed of such amiable views of him! We must further observe, that all those affections which regard the Deity as their immediate and primary object, are vital energies of the soul, and consequently exert themselves into act, and, like all other energies, gain strength or greater activity by that exertion: it is therefore our duty, as well as highest interest, often, at stated times, and by decent and solemn acts, to adore the great original of our existence, to express our veneration and love by a devout recognition of his perfections, and to evidence our gratitude by celebrating his goodness, and thankfully acknowledging all his benefits; by proper exercises of sorrow and humiliation to confess our ingratitude and folly, to signify our dependence on God, our confidence in his goodness, and our resignation to the disposals of his Providence; and this not only in private, but in public worship, where the presence of our fellow-creatures and the powerful contagion of the social affections, conspire to kindle and spread the devout flame with greater warmth and energy.

Religion is divided into *natural* and *revealed*. By *natural* religion is meant that knowledge, veneration, and love of God, and the practice of those duties to him, our fellow-creatures, and ourselves, which are discoverable by the right exercise of our rational faculties, from considering the nature and perfections of God, and our relation to him and to one another. (See Moral *Philosophy*. And by *revealed* religion is meant, natural religion explained, enforced, and enlarged, from the express declarations of God himself from the mouths or pens of his prophets, &c. Religion.

Religion, in a more contracted sense, is used for that system of faith and worship, which obtains in several countries of the world; (see Christianity, Mahometanism, Jews, Mythology:) And even for the various sects into which religion is divided; (see Roman-Catholics, Lutherans, Calvinists, &c.)

RELIGIOUS, in a general sense, something that relates to religion.—We say, a religious life, religious society, &c.—Churches and church-yards are religious places.—A religious war is also called a *croisade*. See Croisade.

Religious, is also used substantially for a person engaged by solemn vows to the monastic life; or a person shut up in a monastery to lead a life of devotion and austerity, under some rule or institution. The male religious we popularly call *monks* and *friars*; the female, *nuns* and *canonesses*.

REMBRANDT (Van Rhin), a Flemish painter and engraver of great eminence, was born in 1606, in a mill upon the banks of the Rhine, from whence he derived his name of *Van Rhin*. This master was born with a creative genius, which never attained perfection. It was said of him, that he would have invented painting, if he had not found it already discovered. Without study, without the assistance of any master, but by his own instinct, he formed rules, and a certain practical method for colouring, and the mixture produced the designed effect. Nature is not set off to the greatest advantage in his pictures; but there is such a striking truth and simplicity in them, that his heads, particularly his portraits, seem animated, and rising from the canvass. He was fond of strong contrasts of light and shade. The light entered in his working-room only by a hole, in the manner of a camera obscura, by which he judged with greater certainty of his productions. This artist considered painting like the stage, where the characters do not strike unless they are exaggerated. He did not pursue the method of the Flemish painters of finishing his pieces. He sometimes gave his light such thick touches, that it seemed more like modelling than painting. A head of his has been shown, the nose of which was so thick of paint, as that which he copied from nature. He was told one day, that by his peculiar method of employing colours, his pieces appeared rugged and uneven—he replied, he was a painter, and not a dyer. He took a pleasure in dressing his figures in an extraordinary manner: with this view he had collected a great number of eastern caps, ancient armour, and drapery long since out of fashion. When he was advised to consult antiquity to attain a better taste in drawing, as his was usually heavy and uneven, he took his counsellor to the closet where these old vestments were deposited, saying, by way of derision, those were his antiques. Rembrandt

Rembrandt, like most men of genius, had many caprices. Being one day at work, painting a whole family in a single picture, word being brought him that his monkey was dead, he was so affected at the loss of this

this animal, that, without paying any attention to the persons who were sitting for their pictures, he painted the monkey upon the same canvass. This whim could not fail of displeasing those the piece was designed for; but he would not efface it, choosing rather to lose the sale of his picture.

This freak will appear still more extraordinary in Rembrandt, when it is considered that he was extremely avaricious; which vice daily grew upon him. He practised various stratagems to sell his prints at a high price. The public were very desirous of purchasing them, and not without reason. In his prints the same taste prevails as in his pictures; they are rough and irregular, but picturesque. In order to heighten the value of his prints, and increase their price, he made his son sell them as if he had purloined them from his father; others he exposed at public sales, and went thither himself in disguise to bid for them; sometimes he gave out that he was going to leave Holland, and settle in another country. These stratagems were successful, and he got his own price for his prints. At other times he would print his plates half finished, and expose them to sale; he afterwards finished them, and they became fresh plates. When they wanted retouching, he made some alterations in them, which promoted the sale of his prints a third time, tho' they differed but little from the first impressions.

His pupils, who were not ignorant of his avarice, one day painted some pieces of money upon cards; and Rembrandt no sooner saw them, than he was going to take them up. He was not angry at the pleasantry, but his avarice still prevailed. He died in 1674.

REMEMBRANCE, is when the idea of something formerly known recurs again to the mind, without the operation of a like object on the external sensory. See MEMORY and REMINISCENCE.

REMEMBRANCERS, anciently called *clerks of the remembrance*, certain officers in the exchequer, whereof three are distinguished by the names of the *king's remembrancer*, the *lord treasurer's remembrancer*, and the *remembrancer of the first fruits*. The king's remembrancer enters in his office all recognizances taken before the barons for any of the king's debts, for appearances or observing of orders; he also takes all bonds for the king's debts, &c. and makes out processes thereon. He likewise issues processes against the collectors of the customs, excise, and others, for their accounts; and informations upon penal statutes are entered and sued in his office, where all proceedings in matters upon English bills in the exchequer-chamber remain. His duty further is to make out the bills of compositions upon penal laws, to take the statement of debts; and into his office are delivered all kinds of indentures and other evidences which concern the assuring any lands to the crown. He, every year *in crastino animarum*, reads in open court the statute for election of sheriffs; and likewise openly reads in court the oaths of all the officers, when they are admitted.

The lord treasurer's remembrancer is charged to make out process against all sheriffs, escheators, receivers, and bailiffs, for their accounts. He also makes out writs of *fieri facias*, and extent for debts due to the king, either in the pipe or with the auditors; and process for all such revenue as is due to the king on account of his tenures. He takes the account of sheriffs; and also keeps a record, by which it appears whether the sheriffs or other accountants pay their proffers due at Easter and Michaelmas; and at the same time he makes a record, whereby the sheriffs or other accountants keep their prefixed days: there are likewise brought into his office all the accounts of customers, comptrollers, and accountants, in order to make entry thereof on record; also all estreats and amercements are certified here, &c.

The remembrancer of the first-fruits takes all compositions and bonds for the payment of first-fruits and tenths; and makes out process against such as do not pay the same.

REMINISCENCE, that power of the human mind, whereby it recollects itself, or calls again into its remembrance such ideas or notions as it had really forgot: in which it differs from memory, which is a treasuring up of things in the mind, and keeping them there, without forgetting them.

REMISSION, in physics, the abatement of the power or efficacy of any quality; in opposition to the *increase* of the same, which is called *intension*.

REMISSION, in law, &c. denotes the pardon of a crime, or the giving up the punishment due thereto.

REMISSION, in medicine, is when a distemper abates for a time, but does not go quite off.

REMITTANCE, in commerce, the traffick or return of money from one place to another, by bills of exchange, orders, or the like.

REMONSTRANCE, an expostulation or humble supplication, addressed to a king, or other superior, beseeching him to reflect on the incoveniences or ill consequences of some order, edict, or the like. This word is also used for an expostulatory counsel, or advice; or a gentle and handsome reproof, made either in general, or particular, to apprize of or correct some fault, &c.

REMORA, or SUCKING-FISH, a species of ECHENEIS. Many incredible things are related of this animal by the ancients; as that it had the power of stopping the largest and swiftest vessel in its course: and even to this day it is asserted by the fishermen in the Mediterranean, that it has a power of retarding the motion of their boats by attaching itself to them; for which reason they kill it whenever they perceive this retardation. But in what manner the remora performs this, we have no account.

ACTION of REMOVING in Scots law. See LAW, N° clxvii. 18.

RENAL, something belonging to the reins or KIDNEYS.

RENCOUNTER, in the military art, the encounter of two little bodies or parties of forces. In which sense *rencounter* is used in opposition to a pitched battle.

RENCOUNTER, in single combats, is used by way of contradistinction to DUEL.—When two persons fall out, and fight on the spot, without having premeditated the combat, it is called a *rencounter*.

RENDEZVOUS, or RENDEVOUS, a place appointed to meet in, at a certain day and hour.

RENEGATE, or RENEGADO, a person who has aposta-

Renfrew-shire || Repealing.

apostatized or renounced the Christian faith, to embrace some other religion, particularly Mahometanism.

RENFREW-SHIRE, a county of Scotland, styled by way of eminence the *barony*, because it was the ancient inheritance of the Stuarts, is a small county, extending about 20 miles from north to south, and 13 from east to west, parted from Dumbarton-shire by the river Clyde on the west, bordering on the east with Lanerkshire, and on the north with Cunningham. The face of the country is varied with hill and vale, wood and stream; crowded with populous villages, and adorned with the seats of gentlemen. The soil is in general fertile, producing rye, barley, oats, pease, beans, flax, and some wheat: it likewise yields plenty of coal, and turf for fuel; and affords abundance of pasturage for sheep and cattle. The inhabitants are lowlanders, and Presbyterians; wealthy and industrious, addicted to traffic, and particularly expert in the linen manufacture. Their genius is stimulated to commerce, by the example of their neighbours of Glasgow, as well as the convenience of the river and frith of Clyde, along the course of which they are situated. *Renfrew*, the county town, standing on the small river Cathcart, which flows into the Clyde at the distance of five miles from Glasgow, is a small but ancient royal borough, the seat of the sheriff's court and of a presbytery. The town is neatly built, and the inhabitants enjoy a tolerable share of commerce.—Renfrew was originally joined to Lanerk, but was made an independent sheriffdom by Robert II. who had a palace here.

RENNES, a town of France, in Bretagne, and capital of that province, with a bishop's see, two abbeys, a parliament, and a mint. It is very populous; the houses are six or seven stories high, and the suburbs of larger extent than the town itself. The cathedral church is large, and the parliament-house a handsome structure. The great square belonging to it is surrounded with handsome houses. There is a tower, formerly a pagan temple, which now contains the town-clock. It is seated on the river Villaine, which divides it into two parts, E. Long. o. 23. N. Lat. 48. 7.

RENNET. See RUNNET.

RENT, in law, a sum of money, or other consideration, issuing yearly out of lands or tenements.

RENTERING, in the manufactories, the same with fine drawing.

RENVERSE, INVERTED, in heraldry, is when any thing is set with the head downwards, or contrary to its natural way of standing. Thus, a chevron renversé, is a chevron with the point downwards. They use also the same term when a beast is laid on its back.

RENUNCIATION, the act of renouncing, abdicating, or relinquishing any right, real or pretended.

REPARTEE, a smart, ready reply, especially in matters of wit, humour, or raillery.

REPEALING, in law, the revoking or annulling of a statute, or the like.

No act of parliament shall be repealed the same session in which it was made. A deed or will may be repealed in part, and stand good for the rest. It is held that a pardon of felony may be repealed on disproving the suggestion thereof.

Repellents || Replevy.

REPELLENTS, in medicine, remedies which drive back a morbid humour into the mass of blood, from whence it was unduely secreted.

REPERCUSSION, in music, a frequent repetition of the same sound.

REPERTORY, a place wherein things are orderly disposed, so as to be easily found when wanted. The indices of books are repertories, showing where the matters sought for are treated of. Common-place books are also kinds of repertories.

REPETITION, the reiterating of an action.

REPETITION, in music, denotes a reiterating or playing over again the same part of a composition, whether it be a whole strain, part of a strain, or double strain, &c.

When the song ends with a repetition of the first strain, or part of it, the repetition is denoted by *da capo*, or D. C. *i. e.* "from the beginning."

REPETITION, in rhetoric, a figure which gracefully and emphatically repeats either the same word, or the same sense in different words. See ORATORY, n° 66—79.

The nature and design of this figure is to make deep impressions on those we address. It expresses anger and indignation, full assurance of what we affirm, and a vehement concern for what we have espoused.

REPHIDIM, (anc. geog.) a station of the Israelites near mount Horeb, where they murmured for want of water; when Moses was ordered to smite the rock Horeb, upon which it yielded water. Here Joshua discomfited the Amalekites. This rock, out of which Moses brought water, is a stone of a prodigious height and thickness, rising out of the ground; on two sides of which are several holes, by which the water ran. (Thevenot.)

REPLEGIARE, in law, signifies to redeem a thing taken or detained by another, by putting in legal sureties.

DE HOMINE REPLEGIANDO. See HOMINE.

REPLEVIN, in law, a remedy granted on a distress, by which the first possessor has his goods restored to him again, on his giving security to the sheriff that he will pursue his action against the party distraining, and return the goods or cattle if the taking them shall be adjudged lawful.

In a replevin the person distrained becomes plaintiff; and the person distraining is called the *defendant* or *avowant*, and his justification an *avowry*.

At the common-law replevins are by writ, either out of the king's-bench or common-pleas; but by statute, they are by plaint in the sheriff's court, and court-baron, for a person's more speedily obtaining the goods distrained.

If a plaint in replevin be removed into the court of king's-bench, &c. and the plaintiff makes default and becomes non-suit, or judgment is given against him, the defendant in replevin shall have the writ of *retorno habendo* of the goods taken in distress. See the article REPLEVY.

REPLEVY, in law, is a tenant's bringing a writ of replevin, or *replegiari facias*, where his goods are taken by distress for rent; which must be done within five days after the distress, otherwise at the five days end they are to be appraised and sold.

This

Report || Reprieve.

This word is alſo uſed for bailing a perſon, as in the caſe of a *homine replegiando*.

REPORT, the relation made upon oath, by officers or perſons appointed to viſit, examine, or eſtimate the ſtate, expences, &c. of any thing.

REPORT, in law, is a public relation of caſes judicially argued, debated, reſolved, or adjudged in any of the king's courts of juſtice, with the cauſes and reaſons of the ſame, as delivered by the judges. Alſo when the court of chancery, or any other court, refers the ſtating of a caſe, or the comparing of an account, to a maſter of chancery, or other referee, his certificate thereon is called a *report*.

REPOSE, in poetry, &c. the ſame with reſt and pauſe. See REST, &c.

REPOSE, in painting, certain maſſes or large aſſemblages of light and ſhade, which being well conducted, prevent the confuſion of objects and figures, by engaging and fixing the eye ſo as it cannot attend to the other parts of the painting for ſome time; and thus leading it to conſider the ſeveral groups gradually, proceeding, as it were, from ſtage to ſtage.

REPRESENTATION, in the drama, the exhibition of a theatrical piece, together with the ſcenes, machinery, &c.

REPRESENTATIVE, one who perſonates or ſupplies the place of another, and is inveſted with his right and authority. Thus the houſe of commons are the repreſentatives of the people in parliament. See COMMONS and PARLIAMENT.

REPRIEVE, in criminal law, (from *reprendre*, "to take back,") is the withdrawing of a ſentence for an interval of time; whereby the execution is ſuſpended. See JUDGEMENT.

This may be, firſt, *ex arbitrio judicis*, either before or after judgment: as, where the judge is not ſatisfied with the verdict, or the evidence is ſuſpicious, or the indictment is inſufficient, or he is doubtful whether the offence be within clergy; or ſometimes if it be a ſmall felony, or any favourable circumſtances appear in the criminal's character, in order to give room to apply to the crown for either an abſolute or conditional pardon. Theſe arbitrary reprieves may be granted or taken off by the juſtices of goal-delivery, although their ſeſſion be finiſhed, and their commiſſion expired: but this rather by common uſage than of ſtrict right.

Blackſt. Comment.

Reprieves may alſo be *ex neceſſitate legis:* as where a woman is capitally convicted, and pleads her pregnancy. Though this is no cauſe to ſtay judgment, yet it is to reſpite the execution till ſhe be delivered. This is a mercy dictated by the law of nature, *in favorem prolis;* and therefore no part of the bloody proceedings in the reign of queen Mary hath been more juſtly deteſted, than the cruelty that was exerciſed in the iſland of Guernſey, of burning a woman big with child; and, when through the violence of the flames the infant ſprang forth at the ſtake, and was preſerved by the byſtanders, after ſome deliberations of the prieſts who aſſiſted at the ſacrifice, they caſt it into the fire as a young heretic. A barbarity which they never learned from the laws of ancient Rome; which direct, with the ſame humanity as our own, *quod prægnantis mulieris damnatæ pœna differatur, quoad pariat:* which doctrine has alſo prevailed in England, as early as the firſt memorials of our law will reach. In caſe this plea be made in ſtay of execution, the judge muſt direct a jury of 12 matrons or diſcreet women to inquire into the fact: and if they bring in their verdict *quick with child* (for barely *with child*, unleſs it be alive in the womb, is not ſufficient) execution ſhall be ſtaid generally till the next ſeſſion; and ſo from ſeſſion to ſeſſion, till either ſhe is delivered, or proves by the courſe of nature not to have been with child at all. But if ſhe once hath had the benefit of this reprieve, and been delivered, and afterwards becomes pregnant again, ſhe ſhall not be entitled to the benefit of a farther reſpite for that cauſe. For ſhe may now be executed before the child is quick in the womb; and ſhall not, by her own incontinence, evade the ſentence of juſtice.

Reprieve || Reproduction.

Another cauſe of regular reprieve is, if the offender become *non compos* between the judgment and the award of execution: for regularly, though a man be *compos* when he commits a capital crime, yet if he becomes *non compos* after, he ſhall not be indicted; if after indictment, he ſhall not be convicted; if after conviction, he ſhall not receive judgement; if after judgment, he ſhall not be ordered for execution: for *furioſus ſolo furore punitur*, and the law knows not but he might have offered ſome reaſon, if in his ſenſes, to have ſtayed theſe reſpective proceedings. It is therefore an invariable rule, when any time intervenes between the attainder and the award of execution, to demand of the priſoner what he hath to allege why execution ſhould not be awarded againſt him; and, if he appears to be inſane, the judge in his diſcretion may and ought to reprieve him. Or, the party may plead in bar of execution; which plea may be either pregnancy, the king's pardon, an act of grace, or diverſity of perſon, *viz.* that he is not the ſame that was attainted, and the like. In this laſt caſe a jury ſhall be impanelled to try this collateral iſſue, namely, the identity of his perſon; and not whether guilty or innocent, for that has been decided before. And in theſe collateral iſſues the trial ſhall be *inſtanter;* and no time allowed the priſoner to make his defence or produce his witneſſes, unleſs he will make oath that he is not the perſon attainted: neither ſhall any peremptory challenges of the jury be allowed the priſoner, though formerly ſuch challenges were held to be allowable whenever a man's life was in queſtion. If neither pregnancy, infanity, non-identity, nor other plea, will avail to avoid the judgment, and ſtay the execution conſequent thereupon, the laſt and ſureſt reſort is in the king's moſt gracious pardon; the granting of which is the moſt amiable prerogative of the crown. See the article PARDON.

REPRISALS, a right which princes claim of taking from their enemies any thing equivalent to what they unjuſtly detain from them.

REPROBATION, in theology, a decree by which God is ſuppoſed, either from all eternity, or from the creation of the world, to conſign over to eternal miſery the greateſt part of mankind, and to ſave none of the human race, except thoſe whom he made the heirs of glory by election.

REPRODUCTION, the act whereby a thing is produced anew, or grows a ſecond time.

The reproduction of ſeveral parts of lobſters, crabs, &c. is one of the greateſt curioſities in natural hiſtory.

Reproduction, Reptiles.

It seems, indeed, inconsistent with the modern system of generation, which supposes the animal to be wholly formed in the egg; that, in lieu of an organical part of an animal cut off, another should arise perfectly like it: the fact, however, is too well attested to be denied. The legs of lobsters, &c. consist each of five articulations: now when any of the legs happen to break, by any accident, as by walking, &c. which frequently happens, the fracture is always found to be at the future near the fourth articulation; and what they thus lose, is exactly reproduced in some time afterwards; that is, a part of the leg shoots out, consisting of four articulations, the first whereof has two claws, as before; so that the loss is entirely repaired.

If the leg of a lobster be broken off by design at the fourth or fifth articulation, what is thus broken off is always reproduced. But, if the fracture be made in the first, second, or third articulation, the reproduction is not so certain. And it is very surprising, that, if the fracture be made at these articulations, at the end of two or three days all the other articulations are generally found broken off to the fourth, which, it is supposed, is done by the creature itself, to make the reproduction certain. The part reproduced is not only similar to that retrenched, but also, in a certain space of time, grows equal to it. Hence it is that we frequently see lobsters which have their two large legs unequal in all proportions; and, if the part reproduced be broken off, a second will succeed.

In an essay on the reproduction of animals by the Abbe Spalanzani, that gentleman has asserted, that snails are endowed with a very extraordinary reproductive power; insomuch, that even when their heads are cut off, new ones are soon produced: but this has been found to be a mistake, and all the snails whose heads were cut off died sooner or later, though some lived a whole year after the operation. The Abbe's mistake was occasioned by his having only cut off part of the heads; by reason of the creatures contracting their bodies in order to avoid the injury. So far from being endowed with any power of reproducing their heads, these creatures are not even endowed with a power of reproducing their horns, or any part of them, when cut off.

REPTILES, in natural history, a kind of animals denominated from their creeping or advancing on the belly. Or reptiles are a genus of animals and insects, which, instead of feet, rest on one part of the body, while they advance forward with the rest. Such are earthworms, snakes, caterpillars, &c. Indeed, most of the class of reptiles have feet; only those very small, and the legs remarkably short in proportion to the bulk of the body.

Naturalists observe a world of artful contrivance for the motion of reptiles. Thus, particularly in the earthworm, Dr Willis tells us, the whole body is only a chain of annular muscles; or, as Mr Derham says, it is only one continued spiral muscle, the orbicular fibres whereof being contracted, render each ring narrower and longer than before; by which means it is enabled, like the worm of an augre, to bore its passage into the earth. Its reptile motion might also be explained by a wire wound on a cylinder, which when slipped off, and one end extended and held fast, will bring the other near to it. So the earth-worm having shot out or extended his body (which is with a wreathing), it takes hold by these small feet it has, and so contracts the hinder part of its body. Dr Tyson adds, that when the forepart of the body is stretched out, and applied to a plane at a distance, the hind part relaxing and shortening is easily drawn towards it as a centre.

Its feet are disposed in a quadruple row the whole length of the worm, with which, as with so many hooks, it fastens down sometimes this and sometimes that part of the body to the plane, and at the same time stretches out or drags after it another.

The creeping of serpents is effected after a somewhat different manner; there being a difference in their structure, in that these last have a compages of bones articulated together.

The body here is not drawn together, but as it were complicated; part of it being applied on the rough ground, and the rest ejaculated and shot from it, which being set on the ground in its turn, brings the other after it. The spine of the back variously wreathed has the same effect in leaping, as the joints in the feet of other animals; they make their leaps by means of muscles, and extend the plicæ or folds.

REPUBLIC, or commonwealth, a popular state or government; or a nation where the people have the government in their own hands. See GOVERNMENT.

Republic of Letters, a phrase used collectively of the whole body of the studious and learned people.

REPUDIATION, in the civil law, the act of divorcing. See DIVORCE.

REPULSION, in physics, that property of bodies whereby they recede from each other, and, on certain occasions, mutually avoid coming into contact.

REPULSION, as well as attraction, has of late been considered as one of the primary qualities of all matter, and has been much used in explaining the phenomena of nature: thus the particles of air, fire, steam, electric fluid, &c. are all said to have a repulsive power with respect to one another.—That this is the case with the air, and vapour of all kinds, is certain; because when they are compressed into a small space, they expand with great force: but as to fire, light, and electricity, our experiments fail; nay, the supposition of a repulsive power among the particles of the electric fluid is inconsistent with the phenomena, as has been demonstrated under the article ELECTRICITY, Sect. V. and VI. Even in those fluids, air and steam, where a repulsive power most manifestly exists, it is demonstrable that the repulsion cannot be a *primary* quality, since it can be increased to a great degree by heat, and diminished by cold: but it is impossible that a *primary* quality of matter can be increased or diminished by any external circumstances whatever; for whatever property depends upon external circumstances, is not a primary but a secondary one.—The repulsion of electrified bodies is explained under the article ELECTRICITY: that of others is less subject to investigation; and the most that can be said concerning it is, that in many cases it seems to be the consequence of a modification of fire, and in others of electricity.

REQUEST, in law, a supplication or petition preferred to a prince, or to a court of justice; begging

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ging relief in some conscionable cases where the common law grants no immediate redress.

Court of REQUEST (*curia requisitionum*) was a court of equity, of the same nature with the court of chancery, but inferior to it; principally instituted for the relief of such petitioners as in conscionable cases addressed themselves by supplication to his majesty. Of this court the lord privy-seal was chief judge, assisted by the masters of requests; and it had beginning about the 9 *H.* 7. according to Sir Julius Cæsar's tractate upon this subject: though Mr Gwyn, in his preface to his Readings, saith it began from a commission first granted by king Henry VIII.—This court, having assumed great power to itself, so that it became burthensome, *Mich.* anno 40 and 41 *Eliz.* in the court of common-pleas it was adjudged upon solemn argument, that the court of requests was no court of judicature, &c. and by stat. 16 & 17 Car. 1. c. 10. it was taken away.

REQUIEM, in the Romish church, a mass sung for the rest of the soul of a person deceased.

RESCISSION, in the civil law, an action intended for the annulling or setting aside any contract, deed, &c.

RESCRIPT, an answer delivered by an emperor, or a pope, when consulted by particular persons on some difficult question or point of law, to serve as a decision thereof.

RESEDA, DYERS WEED, *Yellow-weed*, *Weld*, or *Wild-woad*; a genus of the order of trigynia, belonging to the dodecandria class of plants. There are 11 species; of which the most remarkable is the luteola or common dyers weed, growing naturally in waste places in many parts of Britain. The young leaves are often undulated; the stalk is a yard high, or more, terminated with a long naked spike of yellowish-green flowers: the plant is cultivated and much used for dying silk and wool of a yellow colour. The great recommendation of the plant is, that it will grow with very little trouble, without dung, and on the very worst soils. For this reason it is commonly sown with, or immediately after, barley or oats, without any additional care, except drawing a bush over it to harrow it in. The reaping of the corn does it little or no hurt, as it grows but little the first year; and the next summer it is pulled and dried like flax. Much care and nicety, however, is requisite, so as not to injure either the seed or stalk; or, which sometimes happens, damaging both, by letting it stand too long, or pulling it too green. To avoid these inconveniences, a better method of culture has been devised. This new method is to plough and harrow the ground very fine, without dung, as equally as possible, and then sowing about a gallon of seed, which is very small, upon an acre, some time in the month of August. In about two months it will be high enough to hoe, which must be carefully done, and the plants left about six inches asunder. In March it is to be hoed again, and this labour is to be repeated a third time in May. About the close of June, when the flower is in full vigour, and the stalk is become of a greenish-yellow, it should be pulled; a sufficient quantity of stems being left growing for seed till September. By this means the flower and stalk, both of them being carefully dried, will sell at a good price to the dyers, who employ it constantly, and in large quantities; add to this, that the seed being ripe and in perfect order, will yield a very considerable profit. In a tolerable year, when the seasons have not been unfavourable, the advantages derived from this vegetable will answer very well; but if the summer should be remarkably fine, and proper care is taken in getting it in, there will be a very large produce upon an acre. The crop being, as has been shown, so early removed, the ground may be conveniently prepared for growing wheat the next year. Upon the whole, weld is in its nature a very valuable commodity in many respects, as it serves equally for woollen, linen, or silk; dyeing not only a rich and lasting yellow, but also, properly managed, all the different shades of yellow with brightness and beauty; and if these be previously dipped blue, they are by the weld changed into a very pleasing green, which our artists can also diversify into a great variety of shades.

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RESEMBLANCE *and* DISSIMILITUDE, the relations of likeness and difference among objects. See COMPARISON.

The connection that man hath with the beings around him, requires some acquaintance with their nature, their powers, and their qualities, for regulating his conduct. For acquiring a branch of knowledge so essential to our well-being, motives alone of reason and interest are not sufficient: nature hath providentially superadded curiosity, a vigorous propensity, which never is at rest. This propensity alone attaches us to every new object *; and incites us to compare objects, in order to discover their differences and resemblances.

Elem. of Criticism.

* See *Novelty.*

Resemblance among objects of the same kind, and dissimilitude among objects of different kinds, are too obvious and familiar to gratify our curiosity in any degree: its gratification lies in discovering differences among things where resemblance prevails, and resemblances where difference prevails. Thus a difference in individuals of the same kind of plants or animals, is deemed a discovery, while the many particulars in which they agree are neglected; and in different kinds, any resemblance is greedily remarked, without attending to the many particulars in which they differ.

A comparison of the former neither tends to gratify our curiosity, nor to set the objects compared in a stronger light: two apartments in a palace, similar in shape, size, and furniture, make separately as good a figure as when compared; and the same observation is applicable to two similar compartments in a garden: on the other hand, oppose a regular building to a fall of water, or a good picture to a towering hill, or even a little dog to a large horse, and the contrast will produce no effect. But a resemblance between objects of different kinds, and a difference between objects of the same kind, have remarkably an enlivening effect. The poets, such of them as have a just taste, draw all their similies from things that in the main differ widely from the principal subject; and they never attempt a contrast, but where the things have a common genus, and a resemblance in the capital circumstances: place together a large and a small-sized animal of the same species, the one will appear greater, the other less, than when viewed separately: when we oppose beauty to deformity, each makes a greater figure by the comparison. We compare the dress of different nations with curiosity, but without surprise; because they

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they have no such resemblance in the capital parts as to please us by contrasting the smaller parts. But a new cut of a sleeve, or of a pocket, enchants by its novelty; and, in opposition to the former fashion, raises some degree of surprise.

That resemblance and dissimilitude have an enlivening effect upon objects of sight, is made sufficiently evident; and that they have the same effect upon objects of the other senses, is also certain. Nor is that law confined to the external senses; for characters contrasted make a greater figure by the opposition: Iago, in the tragedy of Othello, says,

> He hath a daily beauty in his life,
> That makes me ugly.

The character of a fop, and of a rough warrior, are nowhere more successfully contrasted than in Shakespeare:

> *Hotspur.* My liege, I did deny no prisoners:
> But I remember, when the fight was done,
> When I was dry with rage, and extreme toil,
> Breathless and faint, leaning upon my sword;
> Came there a certain lord, neat, trimly dress'd,
> Fresh as a bridegroom; and his chin, new-reap'd,
> Show'd like a stubble-land at harvest-home.
> He was perfumed like a milliner;
> And 'twixt his finger and his thumb he held
> A pouncet-box, which ever and anon
> He gave his nose:—and still he smil'd and talk'd;
> And as the soldiers bare dead bodies by,
> He call'd them untaught knaves, unmannerly,
> To bring a slovenly, unhandsome corse
> Betwixt the wind and his nobility.
> With many holiday and lady terms
> He question'd me: among the rest, demanded
> My pris'ners, in your majesty's behalf.
> I then, all smarting with my wounds; being gall'd
> To be so pester'd with a popinjay,
> Out of my grief, and my impatience,
> Answer'd, neglectingly, I know not what:
> He should, or should not; for he made me mad,
> To see him shine so brisk, and smell so sweet,
> And talk so like a waiting gentlewoman,
> Of guns, and drums, and wounds, (God save the mark!)
> And telling me, the sovereign'st thing on earth
> Was parmacity, for an inward bruise;
> And that it was great pity, so it was,
> This villanous saltpetre should be digg'd
> Out of the bowels of the harmless earth,
> Which many a good, tall fellow had destroy'd
> So cowardly: and but for these vile guns,
> He would himself have been a soldier.——
>
> *First part, Henry* IV. *act* 1. *sc.* 4.

Passions and emotions are also enflamed by comparison. A man of high rank humbles the bye-standers even to annihilate them in their own opinion: Cæsar, beholding the statue of Alexander, was greatly mortified, that now at the age of 32, when Alexander died, he had not performed one memorable action.

Our opinions also are much influenced by comparison. A man whose opulence exceeds the ordinary standard, is reputed richer than he is in reality; and wisdom or weakness, if at all remarkable in an individual, is generally carried beyond the truth.

The opinion a man forms of his present distress is heightened by contrasting it with his former happiness:

> Could I forget
> What I have been, I might the better bear
> What I'm destin'd to. I'm not the first
> That have been wretched: but to think how much
> I have been happier.
>
> *Southern's Innocent Adultery, act* 2.

The distress of a long journey makes even an indifferent inn agreeable: and, in travelling, when the road is good and the horseman well covered, a bad day may be agreeable, by making him sensible how snug he is.

The same effect is equally remarkable, when a man opposes his condition to that of others. A ship tossed about in a storm, makes the spectator reflect upon his own ease and security, and puts these in the strongest light.

A man in grief cannot bear mirth; it gives him a more lively notion of his unhappiness, and of course makes him more unhappy. Satan, contemplating the beauties of the terrestrial paradise, has the following exclamation.

> With what delight could I have walk'd thee round,
> If I could joy in ought, sweet interchange
> Of hill and valley, rivers, woods, and plains,
> Now land, now sea, and shores with forest crown'd,
> Rocks, dens, and caves! but I in none of these
> Find place or refuge; and the more I see
> Pleasures about me, so much more I feel
> Torment within me, as from the hateful siege
> Of contraries: all good to me becomes
> Bane, and in heav'n much worse would be my state.
>
> *Paradise lost, book* 9. *l.* 114.

The appearance of danger gives sometimes pleasure, sometimes pain. A timorous person upon the battlements of a high tower, is seized with fear, which even the consciousness of security cannot dissipate. But upon one of a firm head, this situation has a contrary effect: the appearance of danger heightens, by opposition, the consciousness of security, and consequently the satisfaction that arises from security: here the feeling resembles that abovementioned, occasioned by a ship labouring in a storm.

The effect of magnifying or lessening objects by means of comparison, is to be attributed to the influence of passion over our opinions. This will evidently appear by reflecting in what manner a spectator is affected, when a very large animal is for the first time placed beside a very small one of the same species. The first thing that strikes the mind, is the difference between the two animals, which is so great as to occasion surprise; and this, like other emotions, magnifying its object, makes us conceive the difference to be the greatest that can be: we see, or seem to see, the one animal extremely little, and the other extremely large. The emotion of surprise arising from any unusual resemblance, serves equally to explain, why at first view we are apt to think such resemblance more entire than it is in reality. And it must be observed, that the circumstances of more and less, which are the proper subjects of comparison, raise a perception so indistinct and vague as to facilitate the effect described: we have no mental standard of great and little, nor of the several

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ſeveral degrees of any attribute; and the mind, thus unreſtrained, is naturally diſpoſed to indulge its ſurpriſe to the utmoſt extent.

In exploring the operations of the mind, ſome of which are extremely nice and ſlippery, it is neceſſary to proceed with the utmoſt circumſpection: and after all, ſeldom it happens that ſpeculations of that kind afford any ſatisfaction. Luckily, in the preſent caſe, our ſpeculations are ſupported by facts and ſolid argument. Firſt, a ſmall object of one ſpecies oppoſed to a great object of another, produces not, in any degree, that deception which is ſo remarkable when both objects are of the ſame ſpecies. The greateſt diſparity between objects of different kinds, is ſo common as to be obſerved with perfect indifference; but ſuch diſparity between objects of the ſame kind being uncommon, never fails to produce ſurpriſe; and may we not fairly conclude, that ſurpriſe, in the latter caſe, is what occaſions the deception, when we find no deception in the former? In the next place, if ſurpriſe be the ſole cauſe of the deception, it follows neceſſarily that the deception will vaniſh as ſoon as the objects compared become familiar. This holds ſo unerringly, as to leave no reaſonable doubt that ſurpriſe is the prime mover: our ſurpriſe is great, the firſt time a ſmall lapdog is ſeen with a large maſtiff; but when two ſuch animals are conſtantly together, there is no ſurpriſe, and it makes no difference whether they be viewed ſeparately or in company. We ſet no bounds to the riches of a man who has recently made his fortune; the ſurpriſing diſproportion between his preſent and his paſt ſituation being carried to an extreme: but with regard to a family that for many generations hath enjoyed great wealth, the ſame falſe reckoning is not made. It is equally remarkable, that a trite ſimile has no effect: a lover compared to a moth ſcorching itſelf at the flame of a candle, originally a ſprightly ſimile, has by frequent uſe loſt all force; love cannot now be compared to fire, without ſome degree of diſguſt. It has been juſtly objected againſt Homer, that the lion is too often introduced into his ſimiles; all the variety he is able to throw into them, not being ſufficient to keep alive the reader's ſurpriſe.

To explain the influence of compariſon upon the mind, we have choſen the ſimpleſt caſe, *viz.* the firſt ſight of two animals of the ſame kind, differing in ſize only; but to complete the theory, other circumſtances muſt be taken in. And the next ſuppoſition we make, is where both animals, ſeparately familiar to the ſpectator, are brought together for the firſt time. In that caſe, the effect of magnifying and diminiſhing is found remarkably greater than in that firſt mentioned; and the reaſon will appear upon analyſing the operation: the firſt feeling we have is of ſurpriſe at the uncommon difference of two creatures of the ſame ſpecies; we are next ſenſible, that the one appears leſs, the other larger, than they did formerly; and that new circumſtance increaſing our ſurpriſe, makes us imagine a ſtill greater oppoſition between the animals, than if we had formed no notion of them beforehand.

Let us make one other ſuppoſition, that the ſpectator was acquainted beforehand with one of the animals only; the lapdog, for example. This new circumſtance will vary the effect; for, inſtead of widening the natural difference, by enlarging in appearance the one animal, and diminiſhing the other in proportion, the whole apparent alteration will reſt upon the lapdog: the ſurpriſe to find it leſs than it appeared formerly, directs to it our whole attention, and makes us conceive it to be a moſt diminutive creature: the maſtiff in the mean time is quite overlooked. To illuſtrate this effect by a familiar example. Take a piece of paper or of linen tolerably white, and compare it with a pure white of the ſame kind: the judgment we formed of the firſt object is inſtantly varied; and the ſurpriſe occaſioned by finding it leſs white than was thought, produceth a haſty conviction that it is much leſs white than it is in reality: withdrawing now the pure white, and putting in its place a deep black, the ſurpriſe occaſioned by that new circumſtance carries us to the other extreme, and makes us conceive the object firſt mentioned to be a pure white: and thus experience compels us to acknowledge, that our emotions have an influence even upon our eye-ſight. This experiment leads to a general obſervation, that whatever is found more ſtrange or beautiful than was expected, is judged to be more ſtrange or beautiful than it is in reality. Hence a common artifice, to depreciate beforehand what we wiſh to make a figure in the opinion of others.

The compariſons employed by poets and orators are of the kind laſt mentioned; for it is always a known object that is to be magnified or leſſened. The former is effected by likening it to ſome grand object, or by contraſting it with one of an oppoſite character. To effectuate the latter, the method muſt be reverſed: the object muſt be contraſted with ſomething ſuperior to it, or likened to ſomething inferior. The whole effect is produced upon the principal object; which by that means is elevated above its rank, or depreſſed below it.

In accounting for the effect that any unuſual reſemblance or diſſimilitude hath upon the mind, no cauſe has been mentioned but ſurpriſe; and to prevent confuſion, it was proper to diſcuſs that cauſe firſt. But ſurpriſe is not the only cauſe of the effect deſcribed: another concurs, which operates perhaps not leſs powerfully, *viz.* a principle in human nature that lies ſtill in obſcurity, not having been unfolded by any writer, though its effects are extenſive; and as it is not diſtinguiſhed by a proper name, the reader muſt be ſatisfied with the following deſcription. Every man who ſtudies himſelf or others, muſt be ſenſible of a tendency or propenſity in the mind to complete every work that is begun, and to carry things to their full perfection. There is little opportunity to diſplay that propenſity upon natural operations, which are ſeldom left imperfect; but in the operations of art it hath great ſcope: it impels us to perſevere in our own work, and to wiſh for the completion of what another is doing: we feel a ſenſible pleaſure when the work is brought to perfection; and our pain is not leſs ſenſible when we are diſappointed. Hence our uneaſineſs when an intereſting ſtory is broke off in the middle, when a piece of muſic ends without a cloſe, or when a building or garden is left unfiniſhed. The ſame propenſity operates in making collections; ſuch as the whole works, good and bad, of any author. A certain perſon attempted to collect prints of all the capital paintings, and ſucceeded except as to a few. La Bruyere remarks, that an anxious ſearch was made for theſe; not for their value, but to complete the ſet.

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The final cause of the propensity is an additional proof of its existence. Human works are of no significancy till they be completed; and reason is not always a sufficient counterbalance to indolence: some principle over and above is necessary to excite our industry, and to prevent our stopping short in the middle of the course.

We need not lose time to describe the co-operation of the foregoing propensity with surprise, in producing the effect that follows any unusual resemblance or dissimilitude. Surprise first operates, and carries our opinion of the resemblance or dissimilitude beyond truth. The propensity we have been describing carries us still farther; for it forces upon the mind a conviction, that the resemblance or dissimilitude is complete. We need no better illustration, than the resemblance that is fancied in some pebbles to a tree or an insect; which resemblance, however faint in reality, is conceived to be wonderfully perfect. The tendency to complete a resemblance acting jointly with surprise, carries the mind sometimes so far, as even to presume upon future events. In the Greek tragedy entitled *Phineides*, those unhappy women seeing the place where it was intended they should be slain, cried out with anguish, "They now saw their cruel destiny had condemned them to die in that place, being the same where they had been exposed in their infancy."

Arist. Poet. cap. 17.

The propensity to advance every thing to its perfection, not only co-operates with surprise to deceive the mind, but of itself is able to produce that effect. Of this we see many instances where there is no place for surprise; and the first we shall give is of resemblance. *Unumquodque eodem modo dissolvitur quo colligatum est*, is a maxim in the Roman law that has no foundation in truth; for tying and loosing, building and demolishing, are acts opposite to each other, and are performed by opposite means: but when these acts are connected by their relation to the same subject, their connection leads us to imagine a sort of resemblance between them, which by the foregoing propensity is conceived to be as complete as possible. The next instance shall be of contrast. Addison observes, "That the palest features look the most agreeable in white; that a face which is overflushed appears to advantage in the deepest scarlet; and that a dark complexion is not a little alleviated by a black hood." The foregoing propensity serves to account for these appearances; to make this evident, one of the cases shall suffice. A complexion, however dark, never approaches to black: when these colours appear together, their opposition strike us; and the propensity we have to complete the opposition, makes the darkness of complexion vanish out of sight.

Spectator, nº 265.

The operation of this propensity, even where there is no ground for surprise, is not confined to opinion or conviction: so powerful it is, as to make us sometimes proceed to action, in order to complete a resemblance or dissimilitude. If this appear obscure, it will be made clear by the following instances. Upon what principle is the *lex talionis* founded, other than to make the punishment resemble the mischief? Reason dictates, that there ought to be a conformity or resemblance between a crime and its punishment; and the foregoing propensity impels us to make the resemblance as complete as possible. Titus Livius †, under the influence of that propensity, accounts for a certain punishment by a resemblance between it and the crime, too subtile for common apprehension. Speaking of Mettus Fuffetius, the Alban general, who, for treachery to the Romans his allies, was sentenced to be torn to pieces by horses, he puts the following speech in the mouth of Tullus Hostilius, who decreed the punishment. "*Mette Fuffeti, inquit, si ipse discere posses fidem ac fœdera servari, vivo tibi ea disciplina a me adhibita esset. Nunc, quoniam tuum insanabile ingenium est, at tu tuo supplicio doce humanum genus, ea sancta credere, quæ a te violata sunt. Ut igitur paulo ante animum inter Fidenatem Romanumque rem ancipitem gessisti, ita jam corpus passim distrahendum dabis* *." By the same influence, the sentence is often executed upon the very spot where the crime was committed. In the *Electra* of Sophocles, Egistheus is dragged from the theatre into an inner room of the supposed palace, to suffer death where he murdered Agamemnon. Shakespeare, whose knowledge of nature is not less profound than extensive, has not overlooked this propensity:

† Lib. 1. § 28.

"*Othello.* Get me some poison, Iago, this night; I'll not expostulate with her: lest her body and her beauty unprovide my mind again; this night, Iago."

"*Iago.* Do it not with poison; strangle her in her bed, even in the bed she hath contaminated."

"*Othello.* Good, good: the justice of it pleases: very good. *Othello*, act 4. sc. 5.

Persons in their last moments are generally seized with an anxiety to be buried with their relations. In the *Amynta* of Tasso, the lover, hearing that his mistress was torn to pieces by a wolf, expresses a desire to die the same death.

Upon the subject in general we have two remarks to add. The first concerns resemblance, which, when too entire, hath no effect, however different in kind the things compared may be. The remark is applicable to works of art only; for natural objects of different kinds, have scarce ever an entire resemblance. To give an example in a work of art: Marble is a sort of matter very different from what composes an animal; and marble cut into a human figure, produces great pleasure by the resemblance: but if a marble statue be coloured like a picture, the resemblance is so entire as at a distance to make the statue appear a real person: we discover the mistake when we approach; and no other emotion is raised, but surprise occasioned by the deception: the figure still appears a real person, rather than an imitation; and we must use reflection to correct the mistake. This cannot happen in a picture; for the resemblance can never be so entire as to disguise the imitation.

The other remark belongs to contrast. Emotions make the greatest figure when contrasted in succession; but then the succession ought neither to be rapid, nor immoderately slow: if too slow, the effect of contrast becomes faint by the distance of the emotions; and if rapid, no single emotion has room to expand itself to its full size, but is stifled, as it were, in the birth by a succeeding emotion. The funeral oration of the bishop of Meux upon the duchess of Orleans, is a perfect hodge-pode of cheerful and melancholy representations following each other in the quickest succession; op-

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opposite emotions are best felt in succession; but each emotion separately should be raised to its due pitch, before another be introduced.

What is above laid down, will enable us to determine a very important question concerning emotions raised by the fine arts, viz. Whether ought similar emotions to succeed each other, or dissimilar? The emotions raised by the fine arts are for the most part too nearly related to make a figure by resemblance; and for that reason, their succession ought to be regulated as much as possible by contrast. This holds confessedly in epic and dramatic compositions; and the best writers, led perhaps by taste more than by reasoning, have generally aimed at that beauty. It holds equally in music: in the same cantata, all the variety of emotions that are within the power of music, may not only be indulged, but, to make the greatest figure, ought to be contrasted. In gardening there is an additional reason for the rule: the emotions raised by that art, are at best so faint, that every artifice should be employed to give them their utmost vigour: a field may be laid out in grand, sweet, gay, neat, wild, melancholy scenes; and when these are viewed in succession, grandeur ought to be contrasted with neatness, regularity with wildness, and gaiety with melancholy, so as that each emotion may succeed its opposite: nay, it is an improvement to intermix in the succession rude uncultivated spots as well as unbounded views, which in themselves are disagreeable, but in succession heighten the feeling of the agreeable objects; and we have nature for our guide, which in her most beautiful landscapes often intermixes rugged rocks, dirty marshes, and barren stony heaths. The greatest masters of music have the same view in their compositions: the second part of an Italian song seldom conveys any sentiment; and, by its harshness, seems purposely contrived to give a greater relish for the interesting parts of the composition.

A small garden, comprehended under a single view, affords little opportunity for that embellishment. Dissimilar emotions require different tones of mind; and therefore in conjunction can never be pleasant: gaiety and sweetness may be combined, or wildness and gloominess; but a composition of gaiety and gloominess is distasteful. The rude uncultivated copartment of furze and broom in Richmond garden, hath a good effect in the succession of objects; but a spot of that nature would be insufferable in the midst of a polished parterre or flower-plot. A garden therefore, if not of great extent, admits not dissimilar emotions; and in ornamenting a small garden, the safest course is to confine it to a single expression. For the same reason, a landscape ought also to be confined to a single expression; and accordingly it is a rule in painting, that if the subject be gay, every figure ought to contribute to that emotion.

It follows from the foregoing train of reasoning, that a garden near a great city ought to have an air of solitude. The solitariness, again, of a waste country ought to be contrasted in forming a garden; no temples, no obscure walks; but *jets d'eau*, cascades, objects active, gay, and splendid. Nay, such a garden should in some measure avoid imitating nature, by taking on an extraordinary appearance of regularity and art, to show the busy hand of man, which in a waste country has a fine effect by contrast.

Wit and ridicule make not an agreeable mixture with grandeur. Dissimilar emotions have a fine effect in a slow succession; but in a rapid succession, which approaches to co-existence, they will not be relished. In the midst of a laboured and elevated description of battle, Virgil introduces a ludicrous image, which is certainly out of its place:

Obvius ambustum torrem Chorinæus ab ara
Corripit, et venienti Ebuso plagamque ferenti
Occupat os flammis: illi ingens barba reluxit,
Nidoremque ambusta dedit. *Æn.* xii. 298.

E qual tauro ferito, il suo dolore
Verso mugghiando e sospirando fuore.
Gierusal. cant. 4. st. 1.

It would however be too austere, to banish altogether ludicrous images from an epic poem. This poem doth not always soar above the clouds: it admits great variety; and upon occasion can descend even to the ground without sinking. In its more similar tones, a ludicrous scene may be introduced without impropriety. This is done by Virgil * in a foot-race: the circumstances of which, not excepting the ludicrous part, are copied from Homer †. After a fit of merriment, we are, it is true, the less disposed to the serious and sublime: but then, a ludicrous scene, by unbending the mind from severe application to more interesting subjects, may prevent fatigue, and preserve our relish entire.

* *Eneid*, lib. v.

† *Iliad*, xxiii. 839.

RESEN, (Moses); a town on the Tigris, built by Nimrod; thought to be the *Larissa* of Xenophon; which see. But as *Larissa* is a name in imitation of a Greek city; and as there were no Greek cities, consequently no *Larissa* in Assyria, before Alexander the Great; it is probable that the Greeks asking of what city those were the ruins they saw, the Assyrians might answer, *Laresen*, "Of *Resen*;" which word Xenophon expressed by *Larissa*, a more familiar sound to a Greek ear, (Wells).

RESERVATION, in law, an action or clause whereby something is reserved, or secured to one's self.

Mental Reservation, a proposition, which strictly taken, and according to the natural import of the terms, is false; but, if qualified by something concealed in the mind, becomes true.

Mental reservations are the great refuge of religious hypocrites, who use them to accommodate their consciences with their interests: the Jesuits are zealous advocates for mental reservations; yet are they real lies, as including an intention to deceive.

RESERVE, in law, the same with reservation. See the article Reservation.

Body of Reserve, or *Corps de* Reserve, in military affairs, the third or last line of an army, drawn up for battle; so called because they are reserved to sustain the rest as occasion requires, and not to engage but in case of necessity.

RESERVOIR, a place where water is collected and reserved, in order to be conveyed to distant places through pipes, or supply a fountain or jet d'eau.

RESET, in law, the receiving or harbouring an outlawed person. See Outlawry.

RESET *of Theft*, in Scots law. See LAW, N° clxxxvi. 29.

RESIDENCE, in the canon and common law, the abode of a perſon or incumbent upon his benefice; and his aſſiduity in attending on the ſame.

RESIDENT, a public miniſter, who manages the affairs of a kingdom or ſtate, at a foreign court.

They are a claſs of public miniſters inferior to ambaſſadors or envoys; but, like them, are under the protection of the law of nations.

RESIDUE, the remainder or balance of an account, debt, or obligation.

RESIGNATION, in general, ſignifies the implicit ſubmiſſion of ourſelves, or of ſomething we poſſeſs, to the will of another. In a religious ſenſe it ſignifies a perfect ſubmiſſion, without diſcontent, to the will of God. See MORAL *Philoſophy*, n° 119.

RESIN, in natural hiſtory, a viſcid juice oozing either ſpontaneouſly, or by inciſion, from ſeveral trees, as the pine, fir, &c.

RESINOUS ELECTRICITY, is that kind of electricity which is produced by exciting bodies of the reſinous kind, and which is generally negative. See ELECTRICITY *paſſim*.

RESISTANCE, or RESISTING *Force*, in philoſophy, denotes, in general, any power which acts in an oppoſite direction to another, ſo as to deſtroy or diminiſh its effect. See MECHANICS, HYDROSTATICS, and PNEUMATICS.

RESOLUTION *of* IDEAS. See LOGIC, n° 15, &c.

RESOLUTION, in muſic. To *reſolve* a diſcord or diſſonance, ſays Rouſſeau, is to carry it according to rule into a conſonance in the ſubſequent chord. There is for that purpoſe a procedure preſcribed, both for the fundamental baſs of the diſſonant chord, and for the part by which the diſſonance is formed.

There is no poſſible manner of reſolving a diſſonance which is not derived from an operation of cadence: it is then by the kind of cadence which we wiſh to form, that the motion of the fundamental baſs is determined, (ſee CADENCE). With reſpect to the part by which the diſſonance is formed, it ought neither to continue in its place, nor to move by disjointed gradations; but to riſe or deſcend diatonically, according to the nature of the diſſonance. Theoriſts ſay, that major diſſonances ought to riſe, and minor to deſcend; which is not however without exception, ſince, in particular chords of harmony, a ſeventh, although major, ought not to riſe, but to deſcend, unleſs in that chord which is, very incorrectly, called *the chord of the ſeventh redundant*. It is better then to ſay, that the ſeventh and all its derivative diſſonances ought to deſcend; and that the ſixth ſuperadded, and all its derivative diſſonances, ſhould riſe. This is a rule truly general and without any exception. It is the ſame caſe with the rule of reſolving diſſonances. There are ſome diſſonances which cannot be prepared; but there is by no means one which ought not to be reſolved.

With reſpect to the ſenſible note, improperly called a *major diſſonance*, if it ought to aſcend, this is leſs on account of the rule for reſolving diſſonances, than on account of that which preſcribes a diatonic procedure, and prefers the ſhorteſt road; and in reality, there are caſes, as that of the interrupted cadence, in which this ſenſible note does not aſcend.

In chords by ſuppoſition, one ſingle chord often produces two diſſonances; as the ſeventh and ninth, the ninth and fourth, &c. Then theſe two diſſonances ought to have been prepared, and both muſt likewiſe be reſolved; it is becauſe regard ſhould be paid to every thing which is diſcordant, not only in the fundamental, but even in the continued baſs.

RESOLUTION, in chemiſtry, the reduction of a mixed body into its component parts or firſt principles, as far as can be done by a proper analyſis.

RESOLUTION, in medicine, the diſappearing of any tumour without coming to ſuppuration or forming an abſceſs.

RESOLVENTS, in medicine, ſuch as are proper for diſſipating tumours, without allowing them to come to ſuppuration.

RESONANCE, RESOUNDING, in muſic, &c. a ſound returned by the air incloſed in the bodies of ſtringed inſtruments, ſuch as lutes, &c. or even in the bodies of wind-inſtruments, as flutes, &c.

RESPIRATION, the act of reſpiring or breathing the air.

Reſpiration conſtitutes one of thoſe functions which are properly termed *vital*, as being eſſential to life; for to live and to breathe are in fact ſynonimous terms. It conſiſts in an alternate contraction and dilatation of of the thorax, by firſt inſpiring air into the lungs, and then expelling it from them in exſpiration.

It will perhaps be eaſy to diſtinguiſh and point out the ſeveral phenomena of reſpiration; but to explain their phyſical cauſe will be attended with difficulty: for it will naturally be inquired, how the lungs, when emptied of their air, and contracted by exſpiration, become again inflated, they themſelves being perfectly paſſive?—How the ribs are elevated in oppoſition to their own natural ſituation? and why the diaphragm is contracted downwards towards the abdomen? Were we to aſſert, that the air, by forcing its way into the cavity of the lungs, dilated them, and conſequently elevated the ribs and preſſed down the diaphragm, we ſhould ſpeak erroneouſly. What induces the firſt inſpiration it is not eaſy to aſcertain; but after an animal has once reſpired, it would ſeem likely that the blood, after exſpiration, finding its paſſage through the lungs obſtructed, becomes a ſtimulus, which induces the intercoſtal muſcles and the diaphragm to contract, and enlarge the cavity of the thorax, in conſequence perhaps of a certain nervous influence, which we will not here attempt to explain. The air then ruſhes into the lungs; every branch of the bronchial tubes, and all the cellular ſpaces into which they open, become fully dilated; and the pulmonary veſſels being equally diſtended, the blood flows thro' them with eaſe. But as the ſtimulus which firſt occaſioned this dilatation ceaſes to operate, the muſcles gradually contract, the diaphragm riſes upwards again and diminiſhes the cavity of the cheſt, the ribs return to their former ſtate, and as the air paſſes out in exſpiration, the lungs gradually collapſe, and a reſiſtance to the paſſage of the blood again takes place. But the heart continuing to receive and expel the blood, the pulmonary artery begins again to be diſtended, the ſtimulus is renewed, and the ſame proceſs is repeated, and continues to be repeated, in a regular ſucceſſion during life: for though the muſcles of reſpiration, having a mixed motion, are (un-

Respiration. (unlike the heart) in some measure dependent on the will, yet no human being, after having once respired, can live many moments without it.—In an attempt to hold one's breath, the blood soon begins to distend the veins, which are unable to empty their contents into the heart, and we are able only during a very little time to resist the stimulus to inspiration. In drowning, the circulation seems to be stopped upon this principle; and in hanging, the pressure made on the jugular veins may co-operate with the stoppage of respiration in bringing on death.

Boerhaave takes the principal uses of respiration to be the further preparation of the chyle, its more accurate mixture with the blood, and its conversion into a nutritious juice proper to repair the decays of the body. Other authors take a great use of respiration to be, by the neighbourhood of the cold nitrous air, to cool the blood coming reeking hot out of the right ventricle of the heart through the lungs, and to act as a refrigeratory; others assert one grand use of respiration to be the throwing off the fuliginous vapours of the blood, along with the expelled air; and for inspiration they assert, that it conveys a nitro-aerial ferment to the blood, to which the animal-spirits and all muscular motion are owing. But Dr Thurston rejects all these as being the principal uses of respiration; and from the experiments of Dr Croon, Dr Hooke, and others, made before the Royal Society, he shows the principal use of respiration to be that of moving or passing the blood from the right to the left ventricle of the heart, and so to effect circulation; whence it is that persons hanged, drowned, or strangled, so suddenly die, *viz.* because the circulation of the blood is stopped; and for the same reason it is that animals die so speedily in the air-pump. This use of respiration Dr Drake not only confirms, but carries farther, making it the true cause of the diastole of the heart, which neither Borelli, Dr Lower, nor Mr Cowper, had well accounted for.

From experiments made on dogs and other animals, Dr Hales shows, that without respiration the blood would soon turn putrid and pestilential; and indeed the only animal exempted from the necessity of respiration is a fœtus.

With regard to the force of respiration, the last mentioned author observes, that though a man, by a peculiar action of his mouth and tongue, may suck mercury 22 inches, and some men 27 or 28 high; yet he found from experience, that by the bare inspiring action of the diaphragm and dilating thorax, he himself could scarcely raise the mercury two inches, at which time the diaphragm must act with a force equal to the weight of a cylinder of mercury, whose base is commensurate to the area of the diaphragm, and its height two inches, whereby the diaphragm must at the same time sustain a weight equal to many pounds; neither are its counteracting muscles, those the abdomen, able to exert a greater force.

With regard to the quantity of moisture carried off by respiration, the Doctor, from an experiment on wood-ashes, estimates that quantity to be equal to 17 grains in 50 exspirations; whence there will proportionably be 408 grains evaporated or breathed off in 1200 exspirations, being the number in an hour, and thence in 24 hours 9792 grains, or 1.39 pounds; which supposing the surface of the lungs to be 41,635 square inches, then the quantity evaporated from that inward surface will be $\frac{1}{1072}$th part of an inch deep. Respiration || Restitution.

From the violent and fatal effects of very noxious vapours on the respiration and life of animals, the Doctor shows how the respiration is proportionably incommoded when the air is loaded with lesser degrees of vapours, which vapours do in some measure clog and lower the air's elasticity, which it best regains by having these vapours dispelled by the ventilating motion of the free open air, that is best rendered wholesome by the agitation of winds; thus what we call a *close warm air*, such as has been long confined in a room, without having the vapours in it carried off by communicating with the open air, is apt to give us more or less uneasiness in proportion to the quantity of vapours which are floating in it. And thus many of those who have weak lungs, but can breathe very well in the fresh country air, are greatly incommoded in their breathing when they come into large cities, where the air is full of fuliginous vapours; and even the most robust and healthy, in changing from a city to a country air, find an exhilirating pleasure arising from a more free and kindly inspiration, whereby the lungs being less loaded with condensing air and vapours, and thereby the vesicles more dilated with a clearer and more elastic air, a freer course is thereby given to the blood, and probably a purer air mixed with it.

Dr Priestley has shown, that one of the great uses of respiration is to carry off the phlogistic or putrid particles from animal-bodies, by which they are prevented from putrefying while alive, to which, without respiration, they would be as liable as though they were dead. See AIR, nº 46; BLOOD, nº 29, *et seq.* and PUTREFACTION, *passim.*

RESPIRATION *of Fishes.* See FISH, nº 5 & 6.

RESPITE, in law, signifies a delay, forbearance, or prolongation of time, granted to any one for the payment of a debt or the like.

RESPONDENT, in the schools, one who maintains a thesis in any art or science; who is thus called from his being to answer all the objections proposed by the opponent.

RESPONDENTIA. See BOTTOMRY.

RESPONSE, an answer or reply. A word chiefly used in speaking of the answers made by the people to the priest, in the litany, the psalms, &c.

RESSORT, a French word, sometimes used by English authors to signify the jurisdiction of a court, and particularly one from which there is no appeal.—Thus it is said, that the house of lords judge *en dernier ressort*, or in the last ressort.

REST, the continuance of a body in the same place, or its continual application or contiguity to the same parts of the ambient or contiguous bodies; and therefore is opposed to motion. See the article MOTION.

REST, in poetry, is a short pause of the voice in reading, being the same with the cæsura, which, in Alexandrine verses, falls on the sixth syllable; but in verses of 10 or 11 syllables, on the fourth. See POETRY, Part III.

RESTAURATION, the act of re-establishing or setting a thing or person in its former good state.

RESTITUTION, in a moral and legal sense, is restoring a person to his right, or returning something un-

unjustly taken or detained from him.

RESTITUTION *of Medals*, or *Restituted Medals*, is a term used by antiquaries, for such medals as were struck by the emperors, to retrieve the memory of their predecessor.

Hence, in several medals, we find the letters REST. This practice was first begun by Claudius, by his striking afresh several medals of Augustus. Nero did the same; and Titus, after his father's example, struck restitutions of most of his predecessors. Gallienus struck a general restitution of all the preceding emperors, on two medals, the one bearing an altar, the other an eagle, without the REST.

RESTIVE, or RESTY, in the manege, a stubborn, unruly, ill-broken horse, that stops, or runs back, instead of advancing forward.

RESTORATION, the same with restauration. See RESTAURATION.

In England, the return of king Charles II. in 1660, is, by way of eminence, called the *Restoration*; and the 29th of May is kept as an anniversary festival, in commemoration of that event, by which the regal and episcopal government was restored.

RESTORATIVE, in medicine, a remedy proper for restoring and retrieving the strength and vigour both of the body and animal-spirits.

All under this class, says Quincy, are rather nutrimental than medicinal; and are more administered to repair the wastes of the constitution, than to alter and rectify its disorders.

RESTRICTION, among logicians, is limiting a term, so as to make it signify less than it usually does.

RESTRINGENT, in medicine, the same with astringent. See ASTRINGENTS.

RESULT, what is gathered from a conference, inquiry, meditation, or the like; or the conclusion and effect thereof.

RESURRECTION, in theology, rising again from the dead; or a person's returning to a second life, with new bodily organs adapted to the state of its new existence.

One of the greatest arguments for the truth of Christianity is drawn from the resurrection of our Saviour; the circumstances of which are handed down to us in so plain and distinct a manner by the Evangelists, as make the evidence of this important truth amount to a demonstration.

Christians generally believe, that at the day of judgment the very identical body they have now, with the same flesh, blood, and bones, will be raised from the dead. But, in opposition to this opinion, many texts of Scripture have been urged, particularly the account given of this important event by St Paul; besides several philosophical objections, the principal of which are these.

That the same substance may happen to be a part of two or more bodies: thus a fish feeding on a man, and another man afterwards feeding on the fish, part of the body of the first man becomes incorporated with the fish, and afterwards with the body of the last man. Again, instances have been known of one man's immediately feeding on the body of another; and among the cannibals in the West Indies, who devour their enemies, the practice is frequent. Now it is alleged, where the substance of one is thus converted into the substance of another, each cannot arise with his whole body; to which then shall the common part be allotted?

To this objection some answer, That as all matter is not capable of being assimilated to the body, and incorporated with it, human flesh may very probably be of this kind; and therefore what is thus eaten, may be again excreted and carried off.

But Mr Leibnitz observes, that all that is essential to the body, is the original stamen, which existed in the semen of the father: that this may be conceived as the most minute point imaginable, and therefore not to be separated, nor any part of it united to the stamen of any other man: that all this bulk we see in the body, is only an accretion to this original stamen; and therefore there is no reciprocation of the proper matter of the human body.

Another objection is, that we know, by the late discoveries in the animal œconomy, that the human body is continually changing, and that a man has not entirely the same body to-day as he had yesterday; and it is even computed, that in less than seven years time the whole body undergoes a change. Which of those many bodies, then, which the same person has in the course of his life, is it that shall rise? or does all the matter that has ever belonged to him rise again? or does only some particular system thereof? the body, for example, he had at 20, at 40, or at 60 years old? If only this or that body arise, how shall it be rewarded or punished for what was done by the other? and with what justice does one person suffer for another?

To this it has been answered, on the principles of Leibnitz, that notwithstanding these successive changes, this stamen, which is the only essential part of the body, has always remained the same; and that, on Mr Locke's principles, personal identity, or the sameness of a rational being, consists in self-consciousness, in the power of considering itself the same thing in different times and places. By this, every one is to himself what he calls self; without considering whether that self be continued in the same, or in several substances. It is the same self now it was then; and it was by the same self which now reflects on an action, that that action was performed. Now it is this personal identity that is the object of rewards and punishments, which it is observed may exist in different successions of matter; so that to render the rewards and punishments just and pertinent, we need only to rise again with such a body, as that we retain the consciousness of our past actions.

RESUSCITATION, the same with resurrection and revivification. See the preceding article.

The term *resuscitation*, however, is more particularly used by chemists, for the reproducing a mixed body from its ashes; an art to which many have pretended, as to reproduce plants, &c. from their ashes.

RETAIL, in commerce, is the selling of goods in small parcels, in opposition to wholesale. See COMMERCE.

RETAINER, a servant who does not continually dwell in the house of his master, but only attends upon special occasions.

RETAINING FEE, the first fee given to a serjeant or counsellor at law, in order to make him sure, and

and prevent his pleading on the contrary ſide.

RETALIATION, among civilians, the act of returning like for like.

RETARDATION, in phyſics, the act of diminiſhing the velocity of a moving body. See MECHANICS.

RETE MIRABILE, in anatomy, a ſmall plexus, or net-work of veſſels in the brain, ſurrounding the pituitary gland.

RETENTION, is defined by Mr Locke to be a faculty of the mind, whereby it keeps, or retains, thoſe ſimple ideas it has once received, by ſenſation or reflection. See METAPHYSICS, n° 40.—43.

RETENTION, is alſo uſed, in medicine, &c. for the ſtate of contraction in the ſolids or vaſcular parts of the body, which makes them hold faſt their proper contents. In this ſenſe, retention is oppoſed to evacuation and excretion.

RETICULAR BODY, *corpus reticulare*, in anatomy, a very fine membrane, perforated, in the manner of a net, with a multitude of foramina. It is placed immediately under the cuticle; and when that is ſeparated from the cutis, whether by art or acident, this adheres firmly to it, and is ſcarce poſſible to be parted from it, ſeeming rather to be its inner ſuperficies than a diſtinct ſubſtance. In regard to this, we are to obſerve, firſt, the places in which it is found, being all thoſe in which the ſenſe of feeling is moſt acute, as in the palms of the hands, the extremities of the fingers, and on the ſoles of the feet. The tongue, however, is the part where it is moſt accurately to be obſerved: it is more eaſily diſtinguiſhable there than any where elſe, and its nature and ſtructure are moſt evidently ſeen there.

Its colour in the Europeans is white; but in the Negroes, and other black nations, it is black; in the tawny, it is yellowiſh: the ſkin itſelf in both is white; and the blacknefs and yellownefs depend altogether on the colour of this membrane.

The uſes of the corpus reticulare are to preſerve the ſtructure of the other parts of the integuments and keep them in their determinate form and ſituation. Its apertures give paſſage to the hairs, and ſet thro' the papillæ and excretory ducts of the ſkin: it retains theſe in a certain and determinate order, that they cannot be removed out of their places, and has ſome ſhare in preſerving the ſoftneſs of the papillæ, which renders them fit for the ſenſe of feeling. See ANATOMY, n° 82.

RETINA, in anatomy, the expanſion of the optic nerves over the bottom of the eye, where the ſenſe of viſion is firſt received. See ANATOMY, n° 406, o. and OPTICS, n° 115 & *ſeq.*

RETINUE, the attendants or followers of a prince or perſon of quality, chiefly in a journey.

RETIRADE, in fortification, a kind of retrenchment made in the body of a baſtion, or other work, which is to be diſputed, inch by inch, after the defences are diſmantled. It uſually conſiſts of two faces, which make a re-entering angle. When a breach is made in a baſtion, the enemy may alſo make a retirade or new fortification behind it.

RETORT, in chemiſtry, an oblong or globular veſſel with its neck bent, proper for diſtillation. See CHEMISTRY, n° 77.

RETRACTS, among horſemen, pricks in a horſe's feet, ariſing from the fault of the farrier in driving nails that are weak, or in driving them ill-pointed, or otherwiſe amiſs.

RETREAT, in a military ſenſe. An army or body of men are ſaid to retreat when they turn their backs upon the enemy, or are retiring from the ground they occupied: hence, every march in withdrawing from the enemy is called a *retreat*.

That which is done in ſight of an active enemy, who purſues with a ſuperior force, makes our preſent ſubject; and is, with reaſon, looked upon as the glory of the profeſſion. It is a manœuvre the moſt delicate, and the propereſt to diſplay the prudence, genius, courage, and addreſs, of an officer who commands: the hiſtorians of all ages teſtify it; and hiſtorians have never been ſo laviſh of eulogiums as on the ſubject of the brilliant retreats of our heroes. If it is important, it is no leſs difficult to regulate, on account of the variety of circumſtances, each of which demands different principles, and an almoſt endleſs detail. Hence a good retreat is eſteemed, by experienced officers, the maſter-piece of a general. He ſhould therefore be well acquainted with the ſituation of the country through which he intends to make it, and careful that nothing is omitted to make it ſafe and honourable.

RETREAT, is alſo a beat of the drum, at the firing of the evening-gun; at which the drum-major, with all the drums of the battalion, except ſuch as are upon duty, beats from the camp-colours on the right to thoſe on the left, on the parade of encampment: the drums of all the guards beat alſo; the trumpets at the ſame time ſounding at the head of their reſpective troops. This is to warn the ſoldiers to forbear firing, and the centinels to challenge, till the break of day that the reveille is beat. The retreat is likewiſe called *ſetting the watch*.

RETRENCHMENT literally ſignifies ſomething cut off or taken from a thing; in which ſenſe it is the ſame with ſubtraction, diminution, &c.

RETRENCHMENT, in the art of war, any kind of work raiſed to cover a poſt, and fortify it againſt the enemy, ſuch as faſcines loaded with earth, gambions, barrels of earth, ſand-bags, and generally all things that can cover the men and ſtop the enemy. See FORTIFICATION and WAR.

RETRIBUTION, a handſome preſent, gratuity, or acknowledgment, given inſtead of a formal ſalary or hire, to perſons employed in affairs that do not ſo immediately fall under eſtimation, nor within the ordinary commerce in money.

RETROMINGENTS, in natural hiſtory, a claſs or diviſion of animals, whoſe characteriſtic is, that they ſtale or make water backwards, both male and female.

RETURN, (*returna*, or *retorna*), in law, is uſed in divers ſenſes. 1. Return of writs by ſheriffs and bailiffs is a certificate made by them to the court, of what they have done in relation to the execution of the writ directed to them. This is wrote on the back of the writ by the officer, who thus ſends the writ back to the court from whence it iſſued, in order that it may be filed. 2. Return of a commiſſion, is a certificate or anſwer ſent to the court from whence the com-

commiſſion iſſues, concerning what has been done by the commiſſioners. 3. Returns, or days in bank, are certain days in each term, appointed for the return of writs, &c. Thus Hillary term has four returns, viz. in the king's-bench, on the day next after the octave, or eighth day after Hillary day: on the day next after the fifteenth day from St Hillary, on the day after purification; and on the next after the octave of the purification. In the common pleas, in eight days of St Hillary: from the day of St Hillary, in fifteen days: on the day after the purificatio: in eight days of the purification. Eaſter term has five returns, viz. in the king's bench, on the day next after the fifteenth day from Eaſter: on the day next after the three weeks from Eaſter: on the day next after one month from Eaſter: on the day next after five weeks from Eaſter: and on the day next after the day following aſcenſion-day. In the common pleas, in fifteen days from the feaſt of Eaſter: in three weeks from the feaſt of Eaſter: in one month from Eaſter day: in five weeks from Eaſter day: on the day after the aſcenſion-day. Trinity term has four returns, viz. on the day following the ſecond day after Trinity: on the day following the eighth day after Trinity: on the day next after the fifteenth day from Trinity: on the day next after three weeks from Trinity. In the common pleas, on the day after Trinity: in eight days of Trinity: in fifteen days from Trinity: in three weeks from Trinity. Michaelmas term has ſix returns, viz. on the day next after three weeks from St Michael: on the day next after one month of St Michael: on the day following the ſecond day after All-ſouls: on the day next after the ſecond day after St Martin: on the day following the octave of St Martin: on the day next after fifteen days of St Martin. In the common pleas, in three weeks from St Michael: in one month from St Michael: on the day after All-ſouls: on the day after St Martin: on the octave of St Martin: in fifteen days from St Martin. It is to be obſerved, that, as in the king's-bench, all returns are to be made on ſome particular day of the week in each term, care muſt be taken not to make the writs out of that court returnable on a non-judicial day; ſuch as Sunday, and All-ſaints, in Michaelmas term, the purification in Hillary, the aſcenſion in Eaſter, and Midſummer-day, except it ſhould fall on the firſt day of Trinity term.

Returns, in a military ſenſe, are of various ſorts, but all tending to explain the ſtate of the army, regiment, or company; namely, how many capable of doing duty, on duty, ſick in quarters, barracks, infirmary, or hoſpital; priſoners, abſent with or without leave; total effective; wanting to complete the eſtabliſhment, &c.

RETZ (Cardinal de). See Gondi.

REUTLINGEN, a handſome, free, and imperial town of Germany, in the circle of Suabia and duchy of Wirtemberg; ſeated in a plain on the river Eſchez near the Neckar, adorned with handſome public buildings, and has a well frequented college. E. Long. 9. 10. N. Lat. 48. 31.

REVE, Reeve, or *Greve*, the bailiff of a franchiſe, or manor, thus called, eſpecially in the weſt of England. Hence ſhire-reeve, ſheriff, port-greve, &c. See the article Greve.

REVEILLE, a beat of drum about break of day, to give notice that it is time for the ſoldiers to ariſe, and that the centries are to forbear challenging.

REVEL, a port-town of Livonia, ſituated at the ſouth entrance of the gulph of Finland: E. Long. 24. N. Lat. 59.

REVELATION, the act of revealing, or making a thing public that was before unknown: it is alſo uſed for the diſcoveries made by God to his prophets, and by them to the world; and more particularly for the books of the Old and New Teſtament. See Bible, Chriſtianity, and Theology.

The principal teſts of the truth of any revelation are, its being worthy of God, and conſiſtent with his known attributes, its being agreeable to the clear dictates of unprejudiced reaſon, and its having a tendency to refine, purify, and exalt the mind of man to an imitation of the Deity in his moral perfections.

Mr Locke, in laying down the diſtinct provinces of reaſon and faith, obſerves, 1. That the ſame truths may be diſcovered by revelation which are diſcoverable to us by reaſon. 2. That no revelation can be admitted againſt the clear evidence of reaſon. 3. That there are many things of which we have but imperfect notions, or none at all; and others, of whoſe paſt, preſent, or future exiſtence, by the natural uſe of our faculties we cannot have the leaſt knowledge: and theſe, being beyond the diſcovery of our faculties, and above reaſon, when revealed, become the proper object of our faith. He then adds, that our reaſon is not injured or diſturbed, but aſſiſted and improved, by new diſcoveries of truth coming from the fountain of knowledge. Whatever God has revealed is certainly true; but whether it be a divine revelation or no, reaſon muſt judge, which can never permit the mind to reject a greater evidence to embrace what is leſs evident. There can be no evidence that any traditional revelation is of divine original, in the words we receive it, and the ſenſe we underſtand it, ſo clear and ſo certain as that of the principles of reaſon: and, therefore, nothing that is contrary to the clear and ſelf-evident dictates of reaſon, has a right to be urged or aſſented to as a matter of faith, wherein reaſon has nothing to do.

REVELATION *of* St John. See Apocalypse.

REVELS, entertainments of dancing, maſking, acting comedies, farces, &c. anciently very frequent in the inns of court and in noblemens houſes, but now much diſuſed. The officer who has the direction of the revels at court is called the *Maſter of the Revels*.

REVENUE, the annual income a perſon receives from the rent of his lands, houſes, intereſt of money in the ſtocks, &c.

Royal Revenue, that which the Britiſh conſtitution hath veſted in the royal perſon, in order to ſupport his dignity and maintain his power; being a portion which each ſubject contributes of his property, in order to ſecure the remainder. This revenue is either *ordinary* or *extraordinary*.

1. The king's *ordinary* revenue is ſuch as has either ſubſiſted time out of mind in the crown; or elſe has been granted by parliament, by way of purchaſe or exchange for ſuch of the king's inherent hereditary re-

Revenue. revenues, as were found inconvenient to the subject.— In saying that it has subsisted time out of mind in the crown, we do not mean that the king is at present in the actual possession of the whole of his revenue. Much (nay the greatest part) of it is at this day in the hands of subjects; to whom it has been granted out from time to time by the kings of England: which has rendered the crown in some measure dependant on the people for its ordinary support and subsistence. So that we must be obliged to recount, as part of the royal revenue, what lords of manors and other subjects frequently look upon to be their own absolute rights; because they are and have been vested in them and their ancestors for ages, though in reality originally derived from the grants of our ancient princes.

Backst. Comment.

1. The first of the king's ordinary revenues, which may be taken notice of, is of an ecclesiastical kind, (as are also the three succeeding ones), viz. the custody of the temporalties of bishops. See TEMPORALTIES.

2. The king is entitled to a CORODY, as the law calls it, out of every bishopric; that is, to send one of his chaplains to be maintained by the bishop, or to have a pension allowed him till the bishop promotes him to a benefice. This is also in the nature of an acknowledgement to the king, as founder of the see, since he had formerly the same corody or pension from every abbey or priory of royal foundation. It is supposed to be now fallen into total disuse; tho' Sir Matthew Hale says, that it is due of common right, and that no prescription will discharge it.

3. The king also is entitled to all the tithes arising in extraparochial places: though perhaps it may be doubted how far this article, as well as the last, can be properly reckoned a part of the king's own royal revenue; since a corody supports only his chaplains, and these extraparochial tithes are held under an implied trust that the king will distribute them for the good of the clergy in general.

4. The next branch consists in the first-fruits and tenths of all spiritual preferments in the kingdom. See TENTHS.

5. The next branch of the king's ordinary revenue (which, as well as the subsequent branches, is of a lay or temporal nature) consists in the rents and profits of the demesne lands of the crown. These demesne lands, *terræ dominicales regis*, being either the share reserved to the crown at the original distribution of landed property, or such as came to it afterwards by forfeitures or other means, were anciently very large and extensive; comprising divers manors, honours, and lordships; the tenants of which had very peculiar privileges, when we speak of the tenure in ancient demesne. At present they are contracted within a very narrow compass, having been almost entirely granted away to private subjects. This has occasioned the parliament frequently to interpose; and particularly after king William III. had greatly impoverished the crown, an act passed, whereby all future grants or leases from the crown for any longer term than 31 years or three lives, are declared to be void; except with regard to houses, which may be granted for 50 years. And no reversionary lease can be made, so as to exceed, together with the estate in being, the same term of three lives or 31 years; that is, when there is a subsisting lease, of which there are 20 years still to come, the king cannot grant a future interest, to commence after the expiration of the former, for any longer term than 11 years. The tenant must also be made liable to be punished for committing waste; and the usual rent must be reserved, or, where there has usually been no rent, one-third of the clear yearly value. The misfortune is, that this act was made too late, after almost every valuable possession of the crown had been granted away for ever, or else upon very long leases; but may be of benefit to posterity, when those leases come to expire. Revenue.

6. Hither might have been referred the advantages which were used to arise to the king from the profits of his military tenures, to which most lands in the kingdom were subject, till the statute 12 Car. II. c. 24. which in great measure abolished them all. Hither also might have been referred the profitable prerogative of purveyance and pre-emption: which was a right enjoyed by the crown of buying up provisions and other necessaries, by the intervention of the king's purveyors, for the use of his royal household, at an appraised valuation, in preference to all others, and even without consent of the owner: and also of forcibly impressing the carriages and horses of the subject, to do the king's business on the public roads, in the conveyance of timber, baggage, and the like, however inconvenient to the proprietor, upon paying him a settled price. A prerogative which prevailed pretty generally throughout Europe during the scarcity of gold and silver, and the high valuation of money consequential thereupon. In those early times the king's household (as well as those of inferior lords) were supported by specific renders of corn, and other victuals, from the tenants of the respective demesnes; and there was also a continual market kept at the palace-gate to furnish viands for the royal use. And this answered all purposes, in those ages of simplicity, so long as the king's court continued in any certain place. But when it removed from one part of the kingdom to another, (as was formerly very frequently done), it was found necessary to send purveyors beforehand, to get together a sufficient quantity of provisions and other necessaries for the household: and, lest the unusual demand should raise them to an exorbitant price, the powers beforementioned were vested in these purveyors; who in process of time very greatly abused their authority, and became a great oppression to the subject, though of little advantage to the crown; ready money in open market (when the royal residence was more permanent, and specie began to be plenty) being found upon experience to be the best proveditor of any. Wherefore, by degrees, the powers of purveyance have declined, in foreign countries as well as our own: and particularly were abolished in Sweden by Gustavus Adolphus, towards the beginning of the last century. And, with us in England, having fallen into disuse during the suspension of monarchy, king Charles at his restoration, consented, by the same statute, to resign entirely those branches of his revenue and power: and the parliament, in part of recompence, settled on him, his heirs, and successors, for ever, the hereditary excise of 15 d. per barrel on all beer and ale sold in the kingdom, and a proportionable sum for certain other liquors. So that this hereditary

Revenue. reditary excise, now forms the sixth branch of his majesty's ordinary revenue.

7. A seventh branch might also be computed to have arisen from wine-licenses; or the rents payable to the crown by such persons as are licensed to sell wine by retail throughout Britain, except in a few privileged places. These were first settled on the crown by the statute 12 Car. II. c. 25. and, together with the hereditary excise, made up the equivalent in value for the loss sustained by the prerogative in the abolition of the military tenures, and the right of preemption and purveyance: but this revenue was abolished by the statute 30 Geo. II. c. 19. and an annual sum of upwards of 7000 *l. per annum*, issuing out of the new stamp-duties imposed on wine-licences, was settled on the crown in its stead.

Blackst. Comment.

8. An eighth branch of the king's ordinary revenue is usually reckoned to consist in the profits arising from his forests. See FORESTS. These consist principally in the amercements or fines levied for offences against the forest-laws. But as few, if any, courts of this kind for levying amercements have been held since 1632, 8 Car. I. and as, from the accounts given of the proceedings in that court by our histories and law-books, nobody would wish to see them again revived, it is needless to pursue this inquiry any farther.

9. The profits arising from the king's ordinary courts of justice make a ninth branch of his revenue. And these consist not only in fines imposed upon offenders, forfeitures of recognizances, and amercements levied upon defaulters; but also in certain fees due to the crown in a variety of legal matters, as, for setting the great seal to charters, original writs, and other forensic proceedings, and for permitting fines to be levied of lands in order to bar entails, or otherwise to insure their title. As none of these can be done without the immediate intervention of the king, by himself or his officers, the law allows him certain perquisites and profits, as a recompence for the trouble he undertakes for the public. These, in process of time, have been almost all granted out to private persons, or else appropriated to certain particular uses: so that, tho' our law-proceedings are still loaded with their payment, very little of them is now returned into the king's exchequer; for a part of whose royal maintenance they were originally intended. All future grants of them, however, by the statute 1 Ann st. 2. c. 7. are to endure for no longer time than the prince's life who grants them.

10. A tenth branch of the king's ordinary revenue, said to be grounded on the consideration of his guarding and protecting the seas from pirates and robbers, is the right to *royal fish*, which are whale and sturgeon: and these, when either thrown ashore, or caught near the coasts, are the property of the king, on account of their superior excellence. Indeed, our ancestors seem to have entertained a very high notion of the importance of this right; it being the prerogative of the kings of Denmark and the dukes of Normandy; and from one of these it was probably derived to our princes.

11. Another maritime revenue, and founded partly upon the same reason, is that of SHIPWRECKS. See WRECKS.

12. A twelfth branch of the royal revenue, the right to mines, has its original from the king's prerogative of coinage, in order to supply him with materials; and therefore those mines which are properly royal, and to which the king is entitled when found, are only those of silver and gold. See MINE. Revenue.

13. To the same original may in part be referred the revenue of treasure-trove. See TREASURE-TROVE.

14. Waifs. See WAIFS.

15. Estrays. See ESTRAY.

Besides the particular reasons, given in the different articles, why the king should have the several revenues of royal fish, shipwrecks, treasure-trove, waifs, and estrays, there is also one general reason which holds for them all; and that is, because they are *bona vacantia*, or goods in which no one else can claim a property. And, therefore, by the law of nature, they belonged to the first occupant or finder; and so continued under the imperial law. But, in settling the modern constitutions of most of the governments in Europe, it was thought proper (to prevent that strife and contention, which the mere title of occupancy is apt to create and continue, and to provide for the support of public authority in a manner the least burdensome to individuals) that these rights should be annexed to the supreme power by the positive laws of the state. And so it came to pass, that, as Bracton expresses it, "hæc, quæ nullius in bonis sunt, et olim "fuerunt inventoris de jure naturali, jam efficiuntur "principis de jure gentium."

16. The next branch of the king's ordinary revenue consists in forfeitures of lands and goods for offences; *bona confiscata*, as they are called by the civilians, because they belonged to the *fiscus* or imperial treasury; or, as our lawyers term them, *forisfacta*, that is, such whereof the property is gone away or departed from the owner. The true reason and only substantial ground of any forfeiture for crimes, consist in this; that all property is derived from society, being one of those civil rights which are conferred upon individuals, in exchange for that degree of natural freedom which every man must sacrifice when he enters into social communities. If, therefore, a member of any national community violates the fundamental contract of his association, by transgressing the municipal law, he forfeits his right to such privileges as he claims by that contract; and the state may very justly resume that portion of property, or any part of it, which the laws have before assigned him. Hence, in every offence of an atrocious kind, the laws of England have exacted a total confiscation of the moveables or personal estate; and, in many cases a perpetual, in others only a temporary, loss of the offender's immoveables or landed property; and have vested them both in the king, who is the person supposed to be offended, being the one visible magistrate in whom the majesty of the public resides. See FORFEITURE and DEODAND.

17. Another branch of the king's ordinary revenue arises from escheats of lands, which happen upon the defect of heirs to succeed to the inheritance; whereupon they in general revert to and vest in the king, who is esteemed, in the eye of the law, the original proprietor of all lands in the kingdom.

18. The

Revenue. 18. The last branch of the king's ordinary revenue, consists in the custody of idiots, from whence we shall be naturally led to consider also the custody of lunatics. See IDIOT and LUNATIC.

This may suffice for a short view of the king's *ordinary* revenue, or the proper patrimony of the crown; which was very large formerly, and capable of being increased to a magnitude truly formidable: for there are very few estates in the kingdom that have not, at some period or other since the Norman conquest, been vested in the hands of the king, by forfeiture, escheat, or otherwise. But, fortunately for the liberty of the subject, this hereditary landed revenue, by a series of improvident management, is sunk almost to nothing; and the casual profits, arising from the other branches of the *census regalis*, are likewise almost all of them alienated from the crown. In order to supply the deficiencies of which, we are now obliged to have recourse to new methods of raising money, unknown to our early ancestors; which methods constitute,

II. The king's *extraordinary* revenue. For, the public patrimony being got into the hands of private subjects, it is but reasonable that private contributions should supply the public service. Which, though it may perhaps fall harder upon some individuals, whose ancestors have had no share in the general plunder, than upon others, yet, taking the nation throughout, it amounts to nearly the same; provided the gain by the extraordinary should appear to be no greater than the loss by the ordinary revenue. And perhaps, if every gentleman in the kingdom was to be stripped of such of his lands as were formerly the property of the crown, was to be again subject to the inconveniencies of purveyance and pre-emption, the oppression of forest-laws, and the slavery of feodal-tenures; and was to resign into the king's hands all his royal franchises of waifs, wrecks, estrays, treasure-trove, mines, deodands, forfeitures, and the like; he would find himself a greater loser than by paying his *quota* to such taxes as are necessary to the support of government. The thing, therefore, to be wished and aimed at in a land of liberty, is by no means the total abolition of taxes, which would draw after it very pernicious consequences, and the very supposition of which is the height of political absurdity. For as the true idea of government and magistracy will be found to consist in this, that some few men are deputed by many others to preside over public affairs, so that individuals may the better be enabled to attend their private concerns; it is necessary that those individuals should be bound to contribute a portion of their private gains, in order to support that government, and reward that magistracy, which protects them in the enjoyment of their respective properties. But the things to be aimed at are wisdom and moderation, not only in granting, but also in the method of raising, the necessary supplies; by contriving to do both in such a manner as may be most conducive to the national welfare, and at the same time most consistent with œconomy and the liberty of the subject; who, when properly taxed, contributes only, as was before observed, some part of his property in order to enjoy the rest.

These extraordinary grants are usually called by the synonimous names of *aids*, *subsidies*, and *supplies*; and are granted by the commons of Great Britain, in parliament assembled. See PARLIAMENT and TAX. Revenue.

The clear neat produce of the several branches of the revenue, after all charges of collecting and management paid, amounts at present annually to about seven millions and a quarter sterling; besides more than two millions and a quarter raised by the land and malt-tax. How these immense sums are appropriated, is next to be considered. And this is, first and principally, to the payment of the interest of the national debt. See NATIONAL *Debt*, and FUNDS.

The respective produces of the several taxes were originally separate and distinct funds; being securities for the sums advanced on each several tax, and for them only. But at last it became necessary, in order to avoid confusion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of these separate funds, by uniting and blending them together; superadding the faith of parliament for the general security of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account, the *aggregate* fund, and the *general* fund, so called from such union and addition; and the *South-Sea* fund, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the interest of such part of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants. Whereby the separate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual securities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay such interest or annuities as were formerly charged upon each distinct fund: the faith of the legislature being moreover engaged to supply any casual deficiencies.

The customs, excises, and other taxes, which are to support these funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and consumptions, must necessarily be of a very uncertain amount; but they have always been considerably more than was sufficient to answer the charge upon them. The surplusses, therefore, of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South-Sea funds, over and above the interest and annuities charged upon them, are directed by statute 3 Geo. I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the disposition of parliament; and are usually denominated the *sinking fund*, because originally destined to sink and lower the national debt. To this have been since added many other entire duties, granted in subsequent years; and the annual interest of the sums borrowed on their respective credits is charged on, and payable out of, the produce of the sinking fund. However, the neat surplusses and savings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very considerable sum. For as the interest on the national debt has been at several times reduced, (by the consent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their interest or be paid their principal), the savings from the appropriated revenues must needs be extremely large. This sinking fund is the last resort of the nation; its only domestic resource, on which must chiefly depend all the hopes we can entertain of ever discharging or moderating our incumbrances. And therefore the prudent and steady application of the large sums, now arising from this fund, is a point of the utmost importance, and well worthy the serious attention of parliament; which was thereby enabled, in the year 1765, to reduce above two millions ster-

Revenue || Reverend.

ling of the public debt; and several additional millions in several succeeding years.

But, before any part of the aggregate fund (the surplusses whereof are one of the chief ingredients that form the sinking fund) can be applied to diminish the principal of the public debt, it stands mortgaged by parliament to raise an annual sum for the maintenance of the king's houshold and the civil list. For this purpose, in the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the excise and customs, the post-office, the duty on wine-licenses, the revenues of the remaining crown-lands, the profits arising from courts of justice, (which articles include all the hereditary revenues of the crown), and also a clear annuity of 120,000l. in money, were settled on the king for life, for the support of his majesty's houshold, and the honour and dignity of the crown. And, as the amount of these several branches was uncertain, (though in the last reign they were computed to have sometimes raised almost a million), if they did not arise annually to 800,000l. the parliament engaged to make up the deficiency. But his present majesty having, soon after his accession, spontaneously signified his consent that his own hereditary revenues might be so disposed of as might best conduce to the utility and satisfaction of the public, and having graciously accepted a limited sum, the said hereditary and other revenues are now carried into, and made a part of, the aggregate fund; and the aggregate fund is charged with the payment of the whole annuity to the crown. The limited annuity accepted by his present majesty was at first 800,000l. but it has been since augmented to 900,000l. The expences themselves, being put under the same care and management as the other branches of the public patrimony, produce more, and are better collected than heretofore; and the public is a gainer of upwards of 100,000l. *per annum* by this disinterested bounty of his majesty. The civil list, thus liquidated, together with the four millions and an half interest of the national debt, and the two millions produced from the sinking fund, make up the seven millions and a quarter *per annum*, neat money, which were before stated to be the annual produce of our perpetual taxes; besides the immense, though uncertain, sums arising from the annual taxes on land and malt, but which, at an average, may be calculated at more than two millions and a quarter; and, added to the preceding sum, make the clear produce of the taxes, exclusive of the charge of collecting, which are raised yearly on the people of this country, amount to near ten millions sterling. See *Civil* LIST.

REVENUE, in hunting, a fleshy lump formed chiefly by a cluster of whitish worms on the head of the deer, supposed to occasion the casting of their horns by gnawing them at the root.

REVERBERATION, in physics, the act of a body repelling or reflecting another after its impinging thereon.

REVERBERATION, in chemistry, denotes a kind of circulation of the flame by means of a reverberatory furnace.

REVERBERATORY, or REVERBERATING *Furnace*. See CHEMISTRY, n° 98, *et seq.* and FURNACE.

REVEREND, a title of respect given to ecclesiastics.—The religious abroad are called *reverend fathers*; and abbesses, prioresses, &c. *reverend mothers*. With us, bishops are *right reverend*; and archbishops *most reverend*. In France, their bishops, archbishops, and abbots, are all alike *most reverend*.

Reverie, Reversal.

REVERIE, the same with delirium, raving, or distraction. It is used also for any ridiculous, extravagant imagination, action, or proposition, a chimera, or vision. But the most ordinary use of the word among English writers, is for a deep disorderly musing or meditation.

REVERSAL *of* JUDGMENT, in law. A judgment may be falsified, reversed, or voided, in the first place, *without a writ of error*, for matters foreign to or *dehors* the record, that is, not apparent upon the face of it; so that they cannot be assigned for error in the superior court, which can only judge from what appears in the record itself; and therefore, if the whole record be not certified, or not truly certified, by the inferior court, the party injured thereby (in both civil and criminal cases) may allege a diminution of the record, and cause it to be rectified. Thus, if any judgment whatever be given by persons who had no good commission to proceed against the person condemned, it is void; and may be falsified by shewing the special matter, without writ of error. As, where a commission issues to A and B, and twelve others, or any two of them, of which A or B shall be one, to take and try indictments; and any of the other twelve proceed without the interposition or presence of either A or B: in this case all proceedings, trials, convictions, and judgments, are void for want of a proper authority in the commissioners, and may be falsified upon bare inspection, without the trouble of a writ of error; it being a high misdemeanour in the judges so proceeding, and little (if any thing) short of murder in them all, in case the person so attainted be executed and suffer death. So likewise if a man purchases land of another; and afterwards the vendor is, either by outlawry, or his own confession, convicted and attainted of treason or felony previous to the sale or alienation; whereby such land becomes liable to forfeiture or escheat: now, upon any trial, the purchaser is at liberty, without bringing any writ of error, to falsify not only the time of the felony or treason supposed, but the very point of the felony or treason itself; and is not concluded by the confession or the outlawry of the vendor; though the vendor himself is concluded, and not suffered now to deny the fact, which he has by confession or flight acknowleged. But if such attainder of the vendor was by verdict, on the oath of his peers, the alienee cannot be received to falsify or contradict the *fact* of the crime committed; though he is at liberty to prove a mistake in *time*, or that the offence was committed after the alienation, and not before. *Blackst. Comment.*

Secondly, a judgment may be reversed, *by writ of error:* which lies from all inferior criminal jurisdictions to the court of king's-bench, and from the king's-bench to the house of peers; and may be brought for notorious mistakes in the judgment or other parts of the record: as where a man is found guilty of perjury, and receives the judgment of felony, or for other less palpable errors; such as any irregularity, omission, or want of form in the process of outlawry, or proclamations; the want of a proper addition to the defen-

Reversal || Reversion.

fendant's name, according to the ſtatute of additions; for not properly naming the ſheriff or other officer of the court, or not duly deſcribing where his county-court was held: for laying an offence, committed in the time of the late king, to be done againſt the peace of the preſent; and for many other ſimilar cauſes, which (though allowed out of tenderneſs to life and liberty) are not much to the credit or advancement of the national juſtice. Theſe writs of error, to reverſe judgments in caſe of miſdemeanours, are not to be allowed of courſe, but on ſufficient probable cauſe ſhown to the attorney-general; and then they are underſtood to be grantable of common right, and *ex debito juſtitiæ*. But writs of error to reverſe attainders in capital caſes are only allowed *ex gratia;* and not without expreſs warrant under the king's ſign-manual, or at leaſt by the conſent of the attorney-general. Theſe therefore can rarely be brought by the party himſelf, eſpecially where he is attainted for an offence againſt the ſtate: but they may be brought by his heir or executor after his death, in more favourable times; which may be ſome conſolation to his family. But the eaſier and more effectual way is,

Laſtly, to reverſe the attainder by act of parliament. This may be and hath been frequently done upon motives of compaſſion, or perhaps the zeal of the times, after a ſudden revolution in the government, without examining too cloſely into the truth or validity of the errors aſſigned. And ſometimes, though the crime be univerſally acknowledged and confeſſed, yet the merits of the criminal's family ſhall after his death obtain a reſtitution in blood, honours, and eſtate, or ſome or one of them, by act of parliment; which (ſo far as it extends) has all the effect of reverſing the attainder, without caſting any reflections upon the juſtice of the preceding ſentence. See ATTAINDER.

The effect of falſifying, or reverſing, an outlawry is, that the party ſhall be in the ſame plight as if he had appeared upon the *capias:* and, if it be before plea pleaded, he ſhall be put to plead to the indictment; if, after conviction, he ſhall receive the ſentence of the law: for all the other proceedings, except only the proceſs of outlawry for his non-appearance, remain good and effectual as before. But when judgment, pronounced upon conviction, is falſified or reverſed, all former proceedings are abſolutely ſet aſide, and the party ſtands as if he had never been at all accuſed; reſtored in his credit, his capacity, his blood, and his eſtates: with regard to which laſt, though they be granted away by the crown, yet the owner may enter upon the grantee, with as little ceremony as he might enter upon a diſſeiſor. But he ſtill remains liable to another proſecution for the ſame offence: for, the firſt being erroneous, he never was in jeopardy thereby.

REVERSE of a medal, coin, &c. denotes the ſecond or back ſide, in oppoſition to the head or principal figure.

REVERSION, in Scots law. See LAW, N° clxix. 1—3.

REVERSION, in the law of England, has two ſignifications; the one of which is an eſtate left, which continues during a particular eſtate in being; and the other is the returning of the land, &c. after the particular eſtate is ended; and it is further ſaid, to be an intereſt in lands, when the poſſeſſion of it fails, or where the eſtate which was for a time parted with, returns to the grantors, or their heirs. But, according to the uſual definition of a reverſion, it is the reſidue of an eſtate left in the grantor, after a particular eſtate granted away ceaſes, continuing in the grantor of ſuch an eſtate. Reverſion.

The difference between a remainder and a reverſion conſiſts in this, that the remainder may belong to any man except the grantor; whereas the reverſion returns to him who conveyed the lands, &c.

In order to render the doctrine of reverſions eaſy, we ſhall give the following table; which ſhows the preſent value of one pound, to be received at the end of any number of years not exceeding 40; diſcounting at the rate of 5, 4, and 3 *per cent.* compound intereſt.

Years	Value at 5 per cent.	Value at 4 per cent.	Value at 3 per cent.
1	.9524	.9615	.9709
2	.9070	.9245	.9426
3	.8638	.8898	.9151
4	.8227	.8548	.8885
5	.7835	.8219	.8626
6	.7462	.7903	.8375
7	.7107	.7599	.8131
8	.6768	.7307	.7894
9	.6446	.7026	.7664
10	.6139	.6756	.7441
11	.5847	.6496	.7224
12	.5568	.6246	.7014
13	.5303	.6006	.6809
14	.5051	.5775	.6611
15	.4810	.5553	.6419
16	.4581	.5339	.6232
17	.4363	.5134	.6050
18	.4155	.4936	.5874
19	.3957	.4746	.5703
20	.3769	.4564	.5537
21	.3589	.4388	.5375
22	.3418	.4219	.5219
23	.3255	.4057	.5067
24	.3100	.3901	.4919
25	.2953	.3757	.4776
26	.2812	.3607	.4637
27	.2678	.3468	.4502
28	.2551	.3335	.4371
29	.2429	.3206	.4243
30	.2314	.3003	.4120
31	.2204	.2965	.4000
32	.2099	.2851	.3883
33	.1999	.2741	.3770
34	.1903	.2636	.3660
35	.1813	.2534	.3554
36	.1726	.2437	.3450
37	.1644	.2343	.3350
38	.1566	.2253	.3252
39	.1491	.2166	.3158
40	.1420	.2083	.3066

The

The use of the preceding table.—To find the present value of any sum to be received at the end of a given term of years, discounting at the rate of 3, 4, or 5 *per cent.* compound interest. Find by the above table the present value of 1 l. to be received at the end of the given term; which multiply by the number of pounds proposed, (cutting off four fingers from the product on account of the decimals) then the result will be the value sought: For example, the present value of 10,000 l. to be received 10 years hence, and the rate of interest 5 *per cent.* is equal to .6139 × 10,000 = 6139.0000 l. or 6139 l. Again, the present value of 10,000 l. due in 10 years, the rate of interest being 3 *per cent.* is .7441 × 10,000 = 7441.

Reversion *of Series*, in algebra, a kind of reversed operation of an infinite series. See Series.

REVIVIFICATION, in chemistry, a term generally applied to the distillation of quickfilver from cinnabar.

REVIEW (commission of), is a commission sometimes granted, in extraordinary cases, to revise the sentence of the court of delegates, when it is apprehended they have been led into a material error. This commission the king may grant, although the statutes 24 and 25 Hen. VIII., declare the sentence of the delegates definitive: because the pope as supreme head by the canon law used to grant such commission of review; and such authority as the pope heretofore exerted is now annexed to the crown by statutes 26 Hen. VIII. c. 1. and 1 Eliz. c. 1. But it is not matter of right, which the subject may demand *ex debito justitiæ;* but merely a matter of favour, and which therefore is often denied.

Review, is the drawing out all or part of the army in line of battle, to be viewed by the king, or a general, that they may know the condition of the troops.

At all reviews, the officers should be properly armed, ready in their exercise, salute well, in good time, and with a good air; their uniform genteel, &c. The men should be clean and well dressed; their accoutrements well put on; very well sized in their ranks; the serjeants expert in their duty, drummers perfect in their beatings, and the fifers play correct. The manual exercise must be performed in good time, and with life; and the men carry their arms well; march, wheel, and form with exactness. All manœuvres must be performed with the utmost regularity, both in quick and slow time. The firings are generally 36 rounds; viz. by companies; by grand divisions; by sub-divisions; obliquely, advancing, retreating; by files; in the square; street firings, advancing and retreating; and lastly, a volley. The intention of a review is, to know the condition of the troops, to see that they are complete and perform their exercise and evolutions well.

REVOLUTION, in politics, signifies a grand change or turn in government. In this sense the revolution is used by way of eminence for the great turn of affairs in England in 1688, when king James II. abdicating the throne, the prince and princess of Orange were declared king and queen of England, &c.

In geometry, the revolution of any figure is its motion quite round a fixed line as an axis. The revolution of a planet or comet is nothing but its course from one point of its orbit till it returns to the same again.

REVULSION, in medicine, turning a flux of humours from one part to another by bleeding, cupping, friction, sinapisms, blisters, fomentations, bathings, issues, setons, strong purging of the bowels, &c.

REYN (Jan de), an eminent history and portrait painter, born at Dunkirk in 1610. He had the good fortune to be a disciple of Vandyck, was the best performer in his school, and was so attached to his master that he followed him to London, where it is thought he continued as long as he lived. In these kingdoms he is mostly known by the name of *Lang Jan.* He died in 1678: and it is imagined that the scarcity of his works is occasioned by so many of them being imputed to Vandyck; a circumstance which, if true, is beyond any thing that could be said in his praise.

REZAN, or Rezanskoi, an ancient town of Russia, and capital of a duchy of the same name, with an archbishop's see. It was formerly considerable for its extent and riches; but it was almost ruined by the Tartars in 1568. The country is populous, and was formerly governed by its own princes. E. Long. 42. 37. N. Lat. 54. 54.

RHADAMANTHUS, a severe judge, and king of Lydia; the poets make him one of the three judges of hell.

RHAGADES, in medicine, denotes chaps or clefts in any part of the body. If seated in the anus, and recent, the patient must sit still, and sit over the steam of warm water. The epulotic cerate may also be applied. If the lips of these fissures are callous, they must be cut or otherwise treated as to become new ulcerations.

RHAMNUS, the buckthorn; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. There are 20 species; of which the most remarkable are,

1. The catharticus, or common purging buckthorn, growing naturally in some parts of Britain. This grows to the height of 12 or 14 feet, with many irregular branches at the extremities. The leaves are oval-lanceolate, finely serrated on the edges, their nerves converging together. The flowers grow in clusters, one on each footstalk, white, and, in this species, divided into four segments: the fruit is a round black berry, containing four seeds. The juice of the berries is a strong purgative, and is made use of for making the common syrup of buckthorn kept in the shops. The bark is emetic: the juice of the unripe berries with alum dyes yellow, of the ripe ones green; the bark also dyes yellow.

2. The lotus, famous in the Odyssey of Homer for its enchanting property, by which those who eat of it forgot their country and relations. Dr Shaw, in his travels into Barbary, had frequent opportunities of examining this shrub. He says, "This shrub, which is very common in the Jereede, and other parts of Barbary, has the leaves, prickles, flowers, and fruit of the zizyphus or jubeb; only with this difference, that the fruit is here round, smaller, and more luscious, and at the same time the branches, like those of the paliurus, are neither so much jointed nor crooked. The fruit is in great repute, tastes something like gingerbread,

Rhamphastos || Rhegium.

bread, and is sold in the markets all over the southern districts of these kingdoms. The Arabs call it *aneb enta el seedra*, or *the juheb of the seedra;* which Olavus Celsius had so high an opinion of, that he has described it as the dudaim of the scriptures." It is proper, however, to distinguish between this shrub and an herb often mentioned by the ancients under the name of *lotus*, which Homer mentions as being fed upon by the horses of Achilles, and Virgil as proper to increase the milk of sheep.

RHAMPHASTOS, the TOUCAN, in ornithology. See RAMPHASTOS.

RHAPSODI, RHAPSODISTS, in antiquity, persons who made a business of singing pieces of Homer's poems. Cuper informs us, that the Rhapsodi were clothed in red when they sung the Iliad, and in blue when they sung the Odyssee. They performed on the theatres, and sometimes strove for prizes in contests of poetry, singing, &c. After the two antagonists had finished their parts, the two pieces or papers they were written in were joined together again: whence the name, viz. from ῥαπτω, *suo*, and ᾠδη, *canticum:* but there seem to have been other Rhapsodi of more antiquity than these people, who composed heroic poems or songs in praise of heroes and great men, and sung their own compositions from town to town for a livelihood; of which profession Homer himself is said to be. See BARD.

RHAPSODOMANCY, an ancient kind of divination performed by pitching on a passage of a poet at hazard, and reckoning on it as a prediction of what was to come to pass. There were various ways of practising this rhapsodomancy. Sometimes they wrote several papers or sentences of a poet on so many pieces of wood, paper, or the like, shook them together in an urn, and drew out one which was accounted the lot: sometimes they cast dice on a table whereon verses were written, and that whereon the die lodged contained the prediction. A third manner was by opening a book, and pitching on some verse at first sight. This method they particularly called the *sortes præneſtinæ;* and afterwards, according to the poet made use of, *sortes Homericæ*, *sortes Virgilianæ*, &c. See SORTES.

RHAPSODY, in antiquity, a discourse in verse sung or rehearsed by a rhapsodist. Others will have rhapsody to signify a collection of verses, especially those of Homer, which having been a long time dispersed in pieces and fragments, were at length, by Pisistratus's order, digested into books called *rhapsodies*, from ῥαπτω, *suo*, and ᾠδη, *canticum*. Hence, among moderns, rhapsody is also used for an assemblage of passages, thoughts, and authorities raked together from divers authors, to compose some new piece.

RHE, or REE, a little island in the bay of Biscay, near the coast of Aunis in France. It was taken during the last war with France in the expedition commanded by Hawke and Mordaunt.

RHEGIUM, (anc. geog.) so very ancient a city, as to be supposed to take its name from the violent bursting of the coast of Italy from Sicily; thought to have been formerly conjoined, (Mela, Virgil). A city of the Bruttii, a colony of Chalcidians from Eubœa: a strong barrier opposed to Sicily, (Strabo); mentioned by Luke; surnamed *Julium*, (Ptolemy), from a fresh supply of inhabitants sent thither by Augustus, after driving Sextus Pompeius out of Sicily, (Strabo); an I thus was in part a colony, retaining still the right of a municipium, Inscription. The city is now called *Reggio*, in the Farther Calabria.

Rheims || Rheum.

RHEIMS, a city of France in Champagne, and capital of Rheimois. It is one of the most ancient, celebrated, and largest places in the kingdom, with an archbishop's see, whose archbishop is duke and peer of France. It is about four miles in circumference, and contains several fine squares, well-built houses, and magnificent churches. It has a mint, an university, and five abbeys, the most famous of which is that of St Remy. There are also several triumphal arches and other monuments of the Romans. It is seated on the river Vesie, on a plain surrounded by hills, which produce excellent wine. E. Lon. 4. 8. N. Lat. 49. 14.

RHENISH WINE, that produced on the hills about Rheims. This wine is much used in medicine as a solvent of iron, for which it is well calculated on account of its acidity. Dr Percival observes, that it is the best solvent of the Peruvian bark; in which, however, he thinks its acidity has no share, because an addition of vinegar to water does not augment its solvent power.

RHETORIANS, a sect of heretics in Egypt, so denominated from Rhetorius their leader. The distinguishing tenets of this heresiarch, as represented by Philastrius, was, that he approved of all the heresies before him, and taught that they were all in the right.

RHETORIC, the art of speaking copiously on any subject, with all the advantages of beauty and force. See ORATORY.

RHEUM, a thin serous humour, occasionally oozing out of the glands about the mouth and throat.

RHEUM, *Rhubarb;* a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the enneandria class of plants. There are five species, viz. 1. The rhaponticum, or common rhubarb, hath a large, thick, fleshy, branching, deeply-striking root, yellowish within; crowned by very large, roundish, heart-shaped smooth leaves, on thick, slightly-furrowed foot-stalks: and an upright strong stem, two or three feet high, adorned with leaves singly, and terminated by thick close spikes of white flowers. It grows in Thrace and Scythia, but has been long in the English gardens. Its root affords a gentle purge. It is however of inferior quality to some of the following sorts; but the plant being astringent, its young stalks in spring, being cut and peeled, are used for tarts. 2. The palmatum, palmated-leaved true Chinese rhubarb; hath a thick fleshy root, yellow within; crowned with a very large palmated leaves, being deeply divided into acuminated segments, expanded like an open hand; upright stems, five or six feet high or more, terminated by large spikes of flowers *. This is now proved to be the true foreign rhubarb, the purgative quality of which is well known. 3. The compactum, or Tartarian rhubarb, hath a large, fleshy, branched root, yellow within; crowned by very large heart-shaped somewhat lobated, sharply indented, smooth leaves; and an upright large stem, five or six feet high, garnished with leaves singly, and branching above; having all the branches terminated by nodding panicles of white flowers. This has been supposed to be the true rhubarb; which, however, though of superior

* See *Botany*, p. 1299. and Pl. LXIV.

perior quality to some sorts, is accounted inferior to the rheum palmatum. 4. The undulatum, undulated or waved-leaved Chinese rhubarb, hath a thick, branchy, deep-striking root, yellow within; crowned with large oblong, undulate, somewhat hairy leaves, having equal foot-stalks, and an upright firm stem, four feet high; garnished with leaves singly, and terminated by long loose spikes of white flowers. 5. The Arabian ribes, or currant rhubarb of Mount Libanus, hath a thick fleshy root, very broad leaves, full of granulated protuberances, and with equal foot-stalks; and upright firm stems, three or four feet high, terminated by spikes of flowers, succeded by berry-like seeds, being surrounded by a purple pulp. All these plants are perennial in root, and the leaves and stalks are annual. The roots being thick, fleshy, generally divided, strike deep into the ground; of a brownish colour without, and yellow within: the leaves rise in the spring, generally come up in a large head folded together, gradually expanding themselves, having thick foot-stalks; and grow from one to two feet high, or more, in length and breadth, spreading all round: amidst them rise the flower-stems, which are garnished at each joint by one leaf, and are of strong and expeditious growth, attaining their full height in June, when they flower; and are succeeded by large triangular seeds, ripening in August. Some plants of each sort merit culture in gardens for variety; they will effect a singularity with their luxuriant foliage, spikes, and flowers. And as medical plants, they demand culture both for private and public use.

They are propagated by seeds sowed in autumn soon after they are ripe, or early in the spring, in any open bed of light deep earth; remarking, those intended for medical use should generally be sowed where they are to remain, that the roots, being not disturbed by removal, may grow large. Scatter the seeds thinly, either by broad-cast all over the surface, and raked well in; or in shallow drills a foot and half distance, covering them near an inch deep. The plants will rise in the spring, but not flower till the second or third year: when they, however, are come up two or three inches high, thin them to eight or ten inches, and clear out all weeds; though those designed always to stand should afterwards be hoed out to a foot and a half or two feet distance: observing, if any are required for the pleasure ground, &c. for variety, they should be transplanted where they are to remain in autumn, when their leaves decay, or early in spring before they shoot: the others remaining where sowed, must have the ground kept clean between them; and in autumn when the leaves and stalks decay, cut them down, and slightly dig the ground between the rows of plants, repeating the same work every year. The roots remaining, they increase in size annually: and in the second or third year many of them will shoot up stalks, flower, and perfect seeds; and in three or four years the roots will be arrived to a large size; though older roots are generally preferable for medical use.

Two sorts of rhubarb are met with in the shops. The first is imported from Turkey and Russia, in roundish pieces freed from the bark, with a hole thro' the middle of each: they are externally of a yellowish colour, and on cutting appear variegated with lively reddish streaks. The other, which is less esteemed, comes immediately from the East-Indies, in longish pieces, harder, heavier, and more compact than the foregoing. The first fort, unless kept very dry, is apt to grow mouldy and worm-eaten; the second is less subject to these inconveniences. Some of the more industrious artists are said to fill up the worm-holes with certain mixtures, and to colour the outside of the damaged pieces with powder of the finer sorts of rhubarb, and sometimes with cheaper materials: this is often so nicely done, as effectually to impose upon the buyer, unless he very carefully examines each piece. The marks of good rhubarb are, that it be firm and solid, but not flinty; that it be easily pulverable, and appear, when powdered, of a fine bright yellow colour; that, upon being chewed, it impart to the spittle a saffron tinge, without proving slimy or mucilaginous in the mouth. Its taste is subacrid, bitterish, and somewhat astringent; the smell lightly aromatic.

Rhubarb is a mild cathartic, which operates without violence or irritation, and may be given with safety even to pregnant women and children. Besides its purgative quality, it is celebrated for an astringent one, by which it strengthens the tone of the stomach and intestines, and proves useful in diarrhœas and disorders proceeding from a laxity of the fibres. Rhubarb in substance operates more powerfully as a catharic than any of the preparations of it. Watery tinctures purge more than the spirituous ones; whilst the latter contain in greater perfection the aromatic, astringent, and corroborating virtues of the rhubarb. The dose, when intended as a purgative, is from a scruple to a dram or more.

The Turkey rhubarb is, among us, universally preferred to the East-India sort, though this last is for some purposes at least equal to the other; it is manifestly more astringent, but has somewhat less of an aromatic flavour. Tinctures drawn from both with rectified spirit, have nearly the same taste; on distilling off the menstruum, the extract left from the tincture of the East-India rhubarb proved considerably the strongest.

Of late, rhubarb has been cultivated in this country with tolerable success, and is found not to be inferior for medical purposes to the foreign.

RHINE, a large river of Germany, famous both in ancient and modern history. It rises among the Alpes Lepontiæ, or Grisons; and first traversing the Lacus Acronius, divides the Rhæti and Vindelici from the Helvetii, and then the Germans from the Gauls and Belgæ; and running from south to north for the greatest part of its way, and at length bending its course west, it empties itself at several mouths, (Cæsar); at three mouths into the German ocean, (Pliny); viz. the western, or Helius; the northern, or Fleuvus; and the middle between both these, which retains the original name, *Rhenus*: and in this Ptolemy agrees. Mela and Tacitus mention two channels and as many mouths, the right and left; the former running by Germany, and the latter by Gallia Belgica: and thus also Asinius Pollio, and Virgil; the cut or trench of Drusus not being made in their time, whereby the middle channel was much drained and reduced, and therefore overlooked by Tacitus and Mela; and which Pliny calls the *Scanty*. To account for Cæsar's several

ral mouths, is a matter of no ſmall difficulty with the commentators; and they do it no otherwiſe, than by admitting that the Rhine naturally formed ſmall drains or rivulets from itſelf; the cut of Druſus being long poſterior to him; in whoſe time Aſinius Pollio, quoted by Strabo, who agrees with him therein, affirmed that there were but two mouths, finding fault with thoſe who made them more: and he muſt mean the larger mouths, which emitted larger ſtreams. The Romans, eſpecially the poets, uſed the term *Rhenus* for *Germany*, (Martial).—At preſent, the river, after entering the Netherlands at Schenkinhaus, is divided into ſeveral channels, the two largeſt of which obtain the names of the *Lech* and the *Wahel*, which running thro' the United Provinces, falls into the German ocean below Rotterdam.

RHINE, *Lower Circle of*, conſiſts of the palatinate of the Rhine, and the three eccleſiaſtical electorates, viz. thoſe of Cologn, Mentz, and Triers.

RHINE, *Upper Circle of*, conſiſted of the landgraviates of Alſace and Heſſe, comprehending the Wetterav: but now only Heſſe can be accounted a part of Germany, Alſace being long ago united to France.

RHINEBERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and diocese of Cologne. It was in the poſſeſſion of the French, but reſtored to the archbiſhop of Cologne by the treaty of Utrecht. It is ſeated on the Rhine, in E. Long. 6. 39. N. Lat. 51. 30.

RHINECK, a town of Germany, in the archbiſhopric of Cologne, ſeated on the Rhine, E. Long. 7. 53. N. Lat. 50. 27.—There is another town of the ſame name in Swiſſerland, capital of Rhinthal, ſeated on the Rhine, near the lake of Conſtance, with a good caſtle. E. Long. 9. 53. N. Lat. 47. 38.

RHINFELD, a ſmall but ſtrong town of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, and the beſt of the four foreſt-towns belonging to the houſe of Auſtria. It has been often taken and retaken in the German wars; and is ſeated on the Rhine, over which there is a handſome bridge. E. Long. 7. 53. N. Lat. 47. 40.

RHINFELS, a caſtle of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, in a county of the ſame name. It is looked upon as one of the moſt important places ſeated on the Rhine, as well in regard to its ſtrength as ſituation. It is near St Goar, and built on a craggy rock. This fortreſs commands the whole breadth of the Rhine, and thoſe who paſs are always obliged to pay a conſiderable toll. In the time of war it is of great importance to be maſters of this place. E. Long. 7. 43. N. Lat. 50. 3.

RHINLAND, a name given to a part of South Holland, which lies on both ſides the Rhine, and of which Leyden is the capital town.

VIII. RHINOCEROS, in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of belluæ. There is but one ſpecies, *viz.* the unicornis, with a ſingle horn, placed near the end of the noſe, ſometimes three feet and a half long, black and ſmooth: the upper lip long, hangs over the lower, ends in a point, is very pliable, and ſerves to collect its food, and deliver it into the mouth: the noſtrils are placed tranſverſely; the ears large, erect, pointed; eyes ſmall and dull: the ſkin is naked, rough, or tuberculated, lying about the neck in vaſt folds; there is another fold from the ſhoulders to the fore-legs; another from the hind-part of the back to the thighs: the ſkin is ſo thick and ſo ſtrong, as to turn the edge of a ſcymetar, and reſiſt a muſket-ball: the belly hangs low: the legs are ſhort, ſtrong, and thick: the hoofs divided into three parts, each pointing forward.

Rhinoceros.

Thoſe which have been brought to Europe have been young and ſmall: Bontius ſays, that in reſpect to bulk of body, they equal the elephant; but are lower on account of the ſhortneſs of their legs.

Inhabits Bengal, Siam, Cochin-China, Quangſi in China, the iſles of Java and Sumatra, Congo, Angola, Æthiopia, and the country as low as the Cape: loves ſhady foreſts, the neighbourhood of rivers and marſhy places: fond of wallowing in mire like the hog; is ſaid by that means to give ſhelter in the folds of its ſkins to ſcorpions, centipedes, and other inſects. Is a ſolitary animal; brings one young at a time, and is very ſolicitous about it. It is quiet and inoffenſive; but if provoked, furious, very ſwift, and very dangerous: Mr Pennant knew a gentleman who had his belly ripped up by one, but ſurvived the wound. Is dull of ſight; but has a moſt exquiſite ſcent: feeds on vegetables, particularly ſhrubs, broom, and thiſtles: grunts like a hog: is ſaid to confort with the tiger; a fable founded on their common attachment to the ſides of rivers, and on that account are ſometimes found near each other. Is ſaid, when it has ſlung down a man, to lick the fleſh quite from the bone with its rough tongue; this very doubtful; that which wounded the gentleman retired inſtantly after the ſtroke.

Its fleſh is eaten; Kolben ſays it is very good: the ſkin, the fleſh, hoofs, teeth, and very dung, are uſed in India medicinally. The horn is in great repute as an antidote againſt poiſon, eſpecially that of a virgin rhinoceros: but it is not every horn that has this virtue; ſome are held very cheap, while others take a vaſt price. Cups are made of them.—Found ſometimes with double horns: Hamilton, in his voyage to the Eaſt Indies, I. 8. ſays, that he ſaw brought from Natal, in Africa, three horns growing from one root; the longeſt 18, the next 12, and the third 8 inches long. Martial alludes to a variety of this kind by his *urſus cornu gemino*.

It is the unicorn of Holy Writ, and of the ancients; the oryx and Indian aſs of Ariſtotle, who ſays it has but one horn: his informers might well compare the clumſy ſhape of the rhinoceros to that of an aſs; ſo that the philoſopher might eaſily be induced to pronounce it a whole-footed animal. This was alſo the *bos unicornis* and *fera monoceros* of Pliny; both were of India, the ſame country with this animal; and in his account of the *monoceros*, he exactly deſcribes the great black horn and the hog-like tail. The unicorn of Holy Writ has all the properties of the rhinoceros, rage, untameableneſs, great ſwiftneſs, and great ſtrength.

It was known to the Romans in very early times: its figure is among the animals of the Prænneſtine pavement. Auguſtus introduced one into the ſhows, on his triumph over Cleopatra; and there is extant a coin of Domitian, with a double-horned rhinoceros on it. The combats between the elephant and rhinoceros, a fable derived from Pliny.

RHINOCEROS-*Bird*. See BUCEROS.

Rhizophora

RHIZOPHORA, the MANGROVE, or *Mangle;* a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the decandria claſs of plants. Theſe plants are natives of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, and often grow 40 or 50 feet high. They grow only in water and on the banks of rivers, where the tide flows up twice a-day. They preſerve the verdure of their leaves throughout the year. From the loweſt branches iſſue long roots, which hang down to the water, and penetrate into the earth. In this poſition they reſemble ſo many arcades, from five to ten feet high, which ſerve to ſupport the body of the tree, and even to advance it daily into the bed of the water. Theſe arcades are ſo cloſely intertwiſted one with another, that they form a kind of natural and tranſparent terrace, raiſed with ſuch ſolidity over the water, that one might walk upon them, were it not that the branches are too much encumbered with leaves. The moſt natural way of propagating theſe trees, is to ſuffer the ſeveral ſlender ſmall filaments which iſſue from the main branches, to take root in the earth. The moſt common method, however, is that of laying the ſmall lower branches in baſkets of mould or earth, till they have taken root.

The deſcription juſt given, pertains chiefly to a particular ſpecies of mangrove, termed by the Weſt Indians *black mangles*, on account of the brown duſky colour of the wood. The bark is very brown, ſmooth, pliant when green, and generally uſed in the Weſt India iſlands for tanning of leather. Below this bark lies a cuticle, or ſkin, which is lighter, thinner, and more tender. The wood is nearly of the ſame colour as the bark; hard, pliant, and very heavy. It is frequently uſed for fuel, for which purpoſe it is ſaid to be remarkably proper: the fires which are made of this wood, being both clearer, more ardent and durable than thoſe made of any other materials whatever.—The wood is compact; almoſt incorruptible; never ſpinters; is eaſily worked; and were it not for its enormous weight, would be commodiouſly employed in almoſt all kinds of work, as it poſſeſſes every property of good timber. To the roots and branches of mangroves that are immerſed in the water, oyſters frequently attach themſelves: ſo that wherever this curious plant is found growing on the ſea-ſhore, oyſter-fiſhing is very eaſy; as in ſuch caſes, theſe ſhell-fiſh may be literally ſaid to be gathered upon trees.

The red mangles, or mangrove, grows on the ſea-ſhore, and at the mouth of large rivers; but does not advance, like the former, into the water. It generally riſes to the height of 20 or 30 feet, with crooked, knotty branches, which proceed from all parts of the trunk. The bark is ſlender, of a brown colour, and, when young, is ſmooth, and adheres very cloſely to the wood; but when old, appears quite cracked, and is eaſily detached from it. Under this bark is a ſkin as thick as parchment, red, and adhering cloſely to the wood, from which it cannot be detached till the tree is felled and dry. The wood is hard, compact, heavy, of a deep red, with a very fine grain. The pith or heart of the wood being cut into ſmall pieces, and boiled in water, imparts a very beautiful red to the liquid, which communicates the ſame colour to wool and linen. The great weight and hardneſs of the wood prevents it from being generally uſed. From the fruit of this tree, which, when ripe, is of a violet colour, and reſembles ſome grapes in taſte, is prepared an agreeable liquor, much eſteemed by the inhabitants of the Caribbee iſlands.

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White mangle, ſo termed from the colour of its wood, grows like the two former, upon the banks of rivers, but is ſeldom found near the ſea. The bark is grey; the wood, as we have ſaid, white, and when green, ſupple; but dries as ſoon as cut down, and becomes very light and brittle. This ſpecies is generally called *rope-mangrove*, from the uſe to which the bark is applied by the inhabitants of the Weſt Indies. This bark, which, by reaſon of the great abundance of ſap, is eaſily detached, when green, from the wood, is beaten or bruiſed betwixt two ſtones, until the hard and woody part is totally ſeparated from that which is ſoft and tender. This laſt, which is the true cortical ſubſtance, is twiſted into ropes of all ſizes, which are exceedingly ſtrong, and not apt to rot in the water.

1 Ancient names and etymology.

RHODES, a celebrated iſland of the Archipelago, in very ancient times known by the names of *Ophiuſa*, *Aſteria*, *Æthræa*, *Trinacria*, *Corymbia*, *Poeſſa*, *Atabyria*, *Marcia*, *Oloeſſa*, *Stadia*, *Telchinis*, *Pelagia*, and *Rhodus*. In later ages, the name of *Rhodus*, or *Rhodes*, prevailed, from the Greek word *rhodon*, as is commonly ſuppoſed, ſignifying a "roſe;" the iſland abounding very much with theſe flowers. Others, however, give different etymologies, among which it is difficult to find one preferable to another. It is about 20 miles diſtant from the coaſts of Lycia and Caria; and about 120 miles in compaſs.

2 Firſt inhabitants.

The firſt inhabitants of Rhodes, according to Diodorus Siculus, were called the *Telchinæ*, who came originally from the iſland of Crete. Theſe, by their ſkill in aſtrology, perceiving that the iſland was ſoon to be drowned with water, left their habitations, and made room for the Heliades, or grandſons of Phœbus, who took poſſeſſion of the iſland after that god had cleared it from the water and mud with which it was overwhelmed. Theſe Heliades, it ſeems, excelled all other men in learning, and eſpecially in aſtrology; invented navigation, &c. In after ages, however, being infeſted with great ſerpents which bred in the iſland, they had recourſe to an oracle in Delos, which adviſed them to admit Phorbas, a Theſſalian, with his followers, into Rhodes. This was accordingly done; and Phorbas having deſtroyed the ſerpents, was, after his death, honoured as a demigod. Afterwards a colony of Cretans ſettled in ſome part of the iſland, and a little before the Trojan war, Tlepolinius the ſon of Hercules, who was made king of the whole iſland, and governed with great juſtice and moderation.

3 Driven out by the Dorians.

After the Trojan war, all the ancient inhabitants were driven out by the Dorians, who continued to be by the Dorians. maſters of the iſland for many ages. The government was at firſt monarchical; but a little before the expedition of Xerxes into Greece, a republican form of government was introduced; during which the Rhodians applied themſelves to navigation, and became very powerful by ſea, planting ſeveral colonies in diſtant countries. In the time of the Peloponneſian war, the republic of Rhodes was rent into two factions, one of which favoured the Athenians, and another the Spartans; but at length the latter prevailing, democracy was aboliſhed, and an ariſtocracy introduced. About 351 B. C. we find the Rhodians oppreſſed by Mauſolus

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lus king of Caria, and at laſt reduced by Artemiſia his widow. In this emergency, they applied to the Athenians; by whoſe aſſiſtance, probably, they regained their liberty.

4 Submit to Alexander, but revolt after his death.

From this time to that of Alexander the Great, the Rhodians enjoyed an uninterrupted tranquillity. To him they voluntarily ſubmitted, and were on that account highly favoured by him; but no ſooner did they hear of his death, than they drove out the Macedonian garriſons, and once more became a free people. About this time happened a dreadful inundation at Rhodes; which, being accompanied with violent ſtorms of rain, and hailſtones of an extraordinary bigneſs, beat down many houſes, and killed great numbers of the inhabitants. As the city was built in the form of an amphitheatre, and no care had been taken to clear the pipes and conduits which conveyed the water into the ſea, the lower parts of the city were in an inſtant laid under water, ſeveral houſes quite covered, and the inhabitants drowned before they could get to the higher places. As the deluge increaſed, and the violent ſhowers continued, ſome of the inhabitants made to their ſhips, and abandoned the place, while others miſerably periſhed in the waters. But while the city was thus threatened with utter deſtruction, the wall on a ſudden burſt aſunder, and the water diſcharging itſelf by a violent current into the ſea, unexpectedly delivered the inhabitants from all danger.

5 Violent inundation at Rhodes.

The Rhodians ſuffered greatly by this unexpected accident, but ſoon retrieved their loſſes by a cloſe application to trade. During the wars which took place among the ſucceſſors of Alexander, the Rhodians obſerved a ſtrict neutrality; by which means they enriched themſelves ſo much, that Rhodes became one of the moſt opulent ſtates of that age; inſomuch that, for the common good of Greece, they undertook the *piratic war*, and, at their own charge, cleared the ſeas of the pirates who had for many years infeſted the coaſts of Europe and Aſia. However, notwithſtanding the neutrality they profeſſed, as the moſt advantageous branches of their commerce were derived from Egypt, they were more attached to Ptolemy, king of that country, than to any of the neighbouring princes. When therefore Antigonus, having engaged in a war with Ptolemy about the iſland of Cyprus, demanded ſuccours of them, they earneſtly intreated him not to compel them to declare war againſt their ancient friend and ally. But this anſwer, prudent as it was, drew upon them the diſpleaſure of Antigonus, who immediately ordered one of his admirals to ſail with his fleet to Rhodes, and ſeize all the ſhips that came out of the harbour for Egypt. The Rhodians, finding their harbour blocked up by the fleet of Antigonus, equipped a good number of galleys, fell upon the enemy, and obliged him, with the loſs of many ſhips, to quit his ſtation. Hereupon Antigonus, charging them as aggreſſors, and beginners of an unjuſt war, threatened to beſiege their city with the ſtrength of his whole army. The Rhodians endeavoured by frequent embaſſies to appeaſe his wrath. But all their remonſtrances ſerved rather to provoke than allay his reſentment; and the only terms upon which he would hearken to any accommodation were, that the Rhodians ſhould declare war againſt Ptolemy, that they ſhould admit his fleet into their harbour, and that an hundred of the chief citizens ſhould be delivered up to him as hoſtages for the performance of theſe articles. The Rhodians ſent embaſſadors to all their allies, and to Ptolemy in particular, imploring their aſſiſtance, and repreſenting to the latter, that their attachment to his intereſt had drawn upon them the danger to which they were expoſed. The preparations on both ſides were immenſe. As Antigonus was near fourſcore years of age at that time, he committted the whole management of the war to his ſon Demetrius, who appeared before the city of Rhodes with 200 ſhips of war, 170 tranſports having on board 40,000 men, and 1000 other veſſels laden with proviſions and all ſorts of warlike engines. As Rhodes had enjoyed for many years a profound tranquillity, and been free from all devaſtations, the expectation of booty, in the plunder of ſo wealthy a city, allured multitudes of pirates and mercenaries to join Demetrius in this expedition; inſomuch that the whole ſea between the continent and the iſland was covered with ſhips; which ſtruck the Rhodians, who had a proſpect of this mighty armada from the walls, with great terror and conſternation.

6 Difference with Antigonus.

7 Rhodes beſieged by Demetrius.

Demetrius, having landed his troops without the reach of the enemy's machines, detached ſeveral ſmall bodies to lay waſte the country round the city, and cut down the trees and groves, employing the timber, and materials of the houſes without the walls, to fortify his camp with ſtrong ramparts and a treble paliſade; which work, as many hands were employed, was finiſhed in a few days. The Rhodians, on their part, prepared for a vigorous defence. Many great commanders, who had ſignalized themſelves on other occaſions, threw themſelves into the city, being deſirous to try their ſkill in military affairs againſt Demetrius, who was reputed one of the moſt experienced captains in the conduct of ſieges, that antiquity had produced. The beſieged began with diſmiſſing from the city all ſuch perſons as were uſeleſs; and then taking an account of thoſe who were capable of bearing arms, they found that the citizens amounted to 6000, and the foreigners to 1000. Liberty was promiſed to all the ſlaves who ſhould diſtinguiſh themſelves by any glorious action, and the public engaged to pay the maſters their full ranſom. A proclamation was likewiſe made, declaring, that whoever died in defence of their country ſhould be buried at the expence of the public; that his parents and children ſhould be maintained out of the treaſury; that fortunes ſhould be given to his daughters; and his ſons, when they were grown up, ſhould be crowned and preſented with a complete ſuit of armour at the great ſolemnity of Bacchus; which decree kindled an incredible ardour in all ranks of men.

8 The inhabitants prepare for a vigorous defence.

Demetrius, having planted all his engines, began to batter with incredible fury the walls on the ſide of the harbour; but was for eight days ſucceſſively repulſed by the beſieged, who ſet fire to moſt of his warlike engines, and thereby obliged him to allow them ſome reſpite, which they made good uſe of in repairing the breaches, and building new walls where the old ones were either weak or low. When Demetrius had repaired his engines, he ordered a general aſſault to be made, and cauſed his troops to advance with loud ſhouts, thinking by this means to ſtrike terror

9 Engines of Demetrius burnt.

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ror into the enemy. But the beſieged were ſo far from being intimidated, that they repulſed the aggreſſors with great ſlaughter, and performed the moſt aſtoniſhing feats of bravery. Demetrius returned to the aſſault next day; but was in the ſame manner forced to retire, after having loſt a great number of men, and ſome officers of diſtinction. He had ſeized, at his firſt landing, an eminence at a ſmall diſtance from the city; and, having fortified this advantageous poſt, he cauſed ſeveral batteries to be erected there, with engines, which inceſſantly diſcharged againſt the walls ſtones of 150 pounds weight. The towers, being thus furiouſly battered night and day, began to totter, and ſeveral breaches were opened in the walls: but the Rhodians, unexpectedly ſallying out, drove the enemy from their poſt, overturned their machines, and made a moſt dreadful havock; inſomuch that ſome of them retired on board their veſſels, and were with much ado prevailed upon to come aſhore again.

10 Several deſperate aſſaults without ſucceſs.

Demetrius now ordered a ſcalade by ſea and land at the ſame time; and ſo employed the beſieged, that they were at a loſs what place they ſhould chiefly defend. The attack was carried on with the utmoſt fury on all ſides, and the beſieged defended themſelves with the greateſt intrepidity. Such of the enemy as advanced firſt were thrown down from the ladders, and miſerably bruiſed. Several of the chief officers, having mounted the walls to encourage the ſoldiers by their example, were there either killed, or taken priſoners. After the combat had laſted many hours, with great ſlaughter on both ſides, Demetrius, notwithſtanding all his valour, thought it neceſſary to retire, in order to repair his engines and give his men ſome days reſt.

Demetrius being ſenſible that he could not reduce the city till he was maſter of the port, after having refreſhed his men, he returned with new vigour againſt the fortifications which defended the entry into the harbour. When he came within the caſt of a dart, he cauſed a vaſt quantity of burning torches and firebrands to be thrown into the Rhodian ſhips, which were riding there; and at the ſame time galled, with dreadful ſhowers of darts, arrows, and ſtones, ſuch as offered to extinguiſh the flames. However, in ſpite of their utmoſt efforts, the Rhodians put a ſtop to the fire; and, having with great expedition manned three of their ſtrongeſt ſhips, drove with ſuch violence againſt the veſſels on which the enemy's machines were planted, that they were ſhattered in pieces, and the engines diſmounted and thrown into the ſea. Exceſtus the Rhodian admiral, being encouraged by this ſucceſs, attacked the enemy's fleet with his three ſhips, and ſunk a great many veſſels; but was himſelf at laſt taken priſoner: the other two veſſels made their eſcape, and regained the port.

As unfortunate as this laſt attack had proved to Demetrius, he determined to undertake another; and, in order to ſucceed in his attempt, he ordered a machine of a new invention to be built, which was thrice the height and breadth of thoſe he had lately loſt. When the work was finiſhed, he cauſed the engine to be placed near the port, which he was reſolved, at all adventures, to force. But, as it was upon the point of entering the harbour, a dreadful ſtorm ariſing, drove it againſt the ſhore, with the veſſels on which it had been reared. The beſieged, who were attentive to improve all favourable conjunctures, while the tempeſt was ſtill raging made a ſally againſt thoſe who defended the eminence mentioned above; and, though repulſed ſeveral times, carried it at laſt, obliging the Demetrians, to the number of 400, to throw down their arms and ſubmit. After this victory gained by the Rhodians, there arrived to their aid 150 Gnoſſians, and 500 men ſent by Ptolemy from Egypt, moſt of them being natives of Rhodes, who had ſerved among the king's troops.

Demetrius being extremely mortified to ſee all his batteries againſt the harbour rendered ineffectual, reſolved to employ them by land, in hopes of carrying the city by aſſault, or at leaſt reducing it to the neceſſity of capitulating. With this view, having got together a vaſt quantity of timber and other materials, he framed the famous engine called *helepolis*, which was by many degrees larger than any that had ever been invented before. Its baſis was ſquare, each ſide being in length near 50 cubits, and made up of ſquare pieces of timber, bound together with plates of iron. In the middle part he placed thick planks, about a cubit diſtance from each other; and on theſe the men were to ſtand who forced the engine forward. The whole was moved upon eight ſtrong and large wheels, whoſe felloes were ſtrengthened with ſtrong iron plates. In order to facilitate and vary the movements of the helepolis, caſters were placed under it, whereby it was turned in an inſtant to what ſide the workmen and engineers pleaſed. From each of the four angles a large pillar of wood was carried to about the height of 100 cubits, and inclining to each other; the whole machine conſiſting of nine ſtories, whoſe dimenſions gradually leſſened in the aſcent. The firſt ſtory was ſupported by 43 beams, and the laſt by no more than nine. Three ſides of the machine were plated over with iron, to prevent its being damaged by the fire that might be thrown from the city. In the front of each ſtory were windows of the ſame ſize and ſhape as the engines that were to be diſcharged from thence. To each window were ſhutters, to draw up for the defence of thoſe who managed the machines, and to deaden the force of the ſtones thrown by the enemy, the ſhutters being covered with ſkins ſtuffed with wool. Every ſtory was furniſhed with two large ſtaircaſes, that whatever was neceſſary might be brought up by one, while others were going down by the other, and ſo every thing may be diſpatched without tumult or confuſion. This huge machine was moved forwards by 3000 of the ſtrongeſt men of the whole army; but the art with which it was built, greatly facilitated the motion. Demetrius cauſed likewiſe to be made ſeveral teſtudoes or pent-houſes, to cover his men while they advanced to fill up the trenches and ditches; and invented a new ſort of galleries, through which thoſe who were employed at the ſiege might paſs and repaſs at their pleaſure, without the leaſt danger. He employed all his ſeamen in levelling the ground over which the machines were to be brought up, to the ſpace of four furlongs. The number of workmen who were employed on this occaſion amounted to 30,000.

11 Demetrius frames a new machine called *helepoli*.

In the mean time the Rhodians, obſerving theſe formidable preparations, were buſy in raiſing a new wall

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wall within that which the enemy intended to batter with the helepolis. In order to accomplish this work, they pulled down the wall which surrounded the theatre, some neighbouring houses, and even some temples, after having solemnly promised to build more magnificent structures in honour of the gods, if the city were preserved. At the same time they sent out nine of their best ships to seize such of the enemy's vessels as they could meet with, and thereby distress them for want of provisions. As these ships were commanded by their bravest sea-officers, they soon returned with an immense booty, and a great many prisoners. Among other vessels, they took a galley richly laden, on board of which they found great variety of valuable furniture, and a royal robe, which Phila herself had wrought and sent as a present to her husband Demetrius, accompanied with a letter written with her own hand. The Rhodians sent the furniture, the royal robe, and even the letter, to Ptolemy; which exasperated Demetrius to a great degree.

72. The Rhodians raise a new wall.

While Demetrius was preparing to attack the city, the Rhodians having assembled the people and magistrates to consult about the measures they should take, some proposed in the assembly the pulling down of the statues of Antigonus and his son Demetrius, which till then had been held in the utmost veneration. But this proposal was generally rejected with indignation, and their prudent conduct greatly allayed the wrath both of Antigonus and Demetrius. However, the latter continued to carry on the siege with the utmost vigour, thinking it would reflect no small dishonour on him were he obliged to quit the place without making himself master of it. He caused the walls to be secretly undermined: but, when they were ready to fall, a deserter very opportunely gave notice of the whole to the townsmen; who, having with all expedition drawn a deep trench all along the wall, began to countermine, and, meeting the enemy under ground, obliged them to abandon the work. While both parties guarded the mines, one Athenagoras a Milesian, who had been sent to the assistance of the Rhodians by Ptolemy with a body of mercenaries, promised to betray the city to the Demetrians, and let them in thro' the mines in the night-time. But this was only in order to ensnare them; for Alexander, a noble Macedonian, whom Demetrius had sent with a choice body of troops to take possession of a post agreed on, no sooner appeared but he was taken prisoner by the Rhodians, who were waiting for him under arms. Athenagoras was crowned by the senate with a crown of gold, and presented with five talents of silver.

73. The walls undermined without success.

74. A general assault to no purpose.

Demetrius now gave over all thoughts of undermining the walls, and placed all his hopes of reducing the city in the battering-engines which he had contrived. Having therefore levelled the ground under the walls, he brought up his helepolis, with four testudoes on each side of it. Two other testudoes of an extraordinary size, bearing battering-rams, were likewise moved forwards by 1000 men. Each story of the helepolis was filled with all sorts of engines for discharging of stones, arrows, and darts. When all things were ready, Demetrius ordered the signal to be given; when his men, setting up a shout, assaulted the city on all sides, both by sea and land. But, in the heat of the attack, when the walls were ready to fall by the repeated strokes of the battering-rams, ambassadors arrived from Cnidus, earnestly soliciting Demetrius to suspend all further hostilities, and at the same time giving him hopes that they should prevail upon the Rhodians to submit to an honourable capitulation. A suspension of arms was accordingly agreed on, and ambassadors sent from both sides. But, the Rhodians refusing to capitulate on the conditions offered them, the attack was renewed with so much fury, and the machines played off in so brisk a manner, that a large tower built with square stones, and the wall that flanked it, were battered down. The besieged nevertheless fought in the breach with so much courage and resolution, that the enemy, after various unsuccessful attempts, were forced to abandon the enterprise, and retire.

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75. The besieged receive a large supply of provisions, and set the enemy's engines on fire.

In this conjuncture, a fleet which Ptolemy had freighted with 300,000 measures of corn, and different kinds of pulse for the use of the Rhodians, arrived very seasonably in the port, notwithstanding the vigilance of the enemy's ships, which cruised on the coasts of the island to surprise them. A few days after came in safe two other fleets, one sent by Cassander with 100,000 bushels of barley; the other by Lysimachus, with 400,000 bushels of corn, and as many of barley. This seasonable and plentiful supply arriving when the city began to suffer for want of provisions, inspired the besieged with new courage, and raised their drooping spirits. Being thus animated, they formed a design of setting the enemy's engines on fire; and with this view ordered a body of men to sally out the night ensuing, about the second watch, with torches and firebrands, having first placed on the walls an incredible number of engines, to discharge stones, arrows, darts, and fire-balls, against those who should attempt to oppose their detachment. The Rhodian troops, pursuant to their orders, all on a sudden sallied out, and advancing, in spite of all opposition, to the batteries, set them on fire, while the engines from the walls played incessantly on those who endeavoured to extinguish the flames. The Demetrians on this occasion fell in great numbers, being incapable, in the darkness of the night, either to see the engines that continually discharged showers of stones and arrows upon them, or to join in one body and repulse the enemy. The conflagration was so great, that, several plates of iron falling from the helepolis, that vast engine would have been entirely consumed, had not the troops that were stationed in it, with all possible speed quenched the fire with water, before prepared, and ready in the apartments of the engine against such accidents. Demetrius, fearing lest all his machines should be consumed, called together, by sound of trumpet, those whose province it was to move them; and, by their help, brought them off before they were entirely destroyed. When it was day, he commanded all the darts and arrows that had been shot by the Rhodians, to be carefully gathered, that he might from their number form some judgment of the number of machines in the city. Above 800 firebrands were found on the spot, and no fewer than 1500 darts, all discharged in a very small portion of the night. This struck the prince himself with no small terror; for he never imagined that they would have been able to bear the charges of such formidable

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preparations. However, after having caused the slain to be buried, and given directions for the curing of the wounded, he applied himself to the repairing of his machines which had been dismounted and rendered quite unserviceable.

16 They build a third wall.

In the mean time the besieged, improving the respite allowed them by the removal of the machines, built a third wall in the form of a crescent, which took in all that part that was most exposed to the enemy's batteries; and besides, drew a deep trench behind the breach, to prevent the enemy from entering the city that way. At the same time they detached a squadron of their best ships, under the command of Amyntas, who made over to the continent of Asia; and there meeting with some privateers who were commissioned by Demetrius, took both the ships and the men, among whom were Timocles the chief of the pirates, and several other officers of distinction belonging to the fleet of Demetrius. On their return they fell in with several vessels laden with corn for the enemy's camp, which they likewise took, and brought into the port. These were soon followed by a numerous fleet of small vessels loaded with corn and provisions sent them by Ptolemy, together with 1500 men, commanded by Antigonus a Macedonian of great experience in military affairs. Demetrius in the mean time having repaired his machines, brought them up anew to the walls; which he incessantly battered, till he opened a great breach, and threw down several towers. But when he came to the assault, the Rhodians, under the command of Aminias, defended themselves with such resolution and intrepidity, that he was in three successive attacks repulsed with great slaughter, and at last forced to retire. The Rhodians likewise, on this occasion, lost several officers; and amongst others, the brave Aminias their commander.

17 Demetrius makes a breach in the walls, but is still repulsed.

While the Rhodians were thus signalizing themselves in the defence of their country, a second embassy arrived at the camp of Demetrius from Athens and the other cities of Greece, soliciting Demetrius to compose matters and strike up a peace with the Rhodians. At the request of the ambassadors, who were in all above 50, a cessation of arms was agreed upon; but the terms offered by Demetrius being anew rejected by the Rhodians, the ambassadors returned home without being able to bring the contending parties to an agreement. Hostilities were therefore renewed; and Demetrius, whose imagination was fertile in expedients for succeeding in his projects, formed a detachment of 1500 of his best troops, under the conduct of Alcimus and Mancius, two officers of great resolution and experience, ordering them to enter the breach at midnight, and, forcing the entrenchment behind it, to possess themselves of the posts about the theatre, where it would be no difficult matter to maintain themselves against any efforts of the townsmen. In order to facilitate the execution of so important and dangerous an undertaking, and amuse the enemy with false attacks, he at the same time, upon a signal given, ordered the rest of the army to set up a shout, and attack the city on all sides both by sea and land. By this means he hoped, that, the besieged being alarmed in all parts, his detachment might find an opportunity of forcing the entrenchments which covered the breach, and afterwards of seizing the advantageous post about the theatre. This feint had all the success the prince could expect; for the troops having set up a shout from all quarters, as if they were advancing to a general assault, the detachment commanded by Alcimus and Mancius entered the breach, and fell upon those who defended the ditch and the wall that covered it, with such vigour, that, having slain the most part of them and put the rest in confusion, they advanced to the theatre, and seized on the post adjoining to it. This occasioned a general uproar in the city, as if it had been already taken: but the commanding officers dispatched orders to the soldiers on the ramparts not to quit their posts, nor stir from their respective stations. Having thus secured the walls, they put themselves at the head of a chosen body of their own troops, and of those who were lately come from Egypt, and with these charged the enemy's detachment. But the darkness of the night prevented them from dislodging the enemy and regaining the advantageous posts they had seized. Day, however, no sooner appeared than they renewed their attack with wonderful bravery. The Demetrians without the walls, with loud shouts endeavoured to animate those who had entered the place, and inspire them with resolution to maintain their ground till they were relieved with fresh troops. The Rhodians being sensible that their fortunes, liberties, and all that was dear to them in the world, lay at stake, fought like men in the utmost despair, the enemy defending their posts for several hours without giving ground in the least. At length the Rhodians, encouraging each other to exert themselves in defence of their country, and animated by the example of their leaders, made a last effort, and, breaking into the very heart of the enemy's battalion, there killed both their commanders. After their death the rest were easily put in disorder, and all to a man either killed or taken prisoners. The Rhodians likewise on this occasion lost many of their best commanders; and among the rest Damotetis, their chief magistrate, a man of extraordinary valour, who had signalized himself during the whole time of the siege.

18 His troops enter the breach.

19 But are all killed or taken.

Demetrius, not at all discouraged by this check, was making the necessary preparations for a new assault, when he received letters from his father Antigonus, enjoining him to conclude a peace with the Rhodians upon the best terms he could get, lest he should lose his whole army in the siege of a single town. From this time Demetrius wanted only some plausible pretence for breaking up the siege. The Rhodians likewise were now more inclined to come to an agreement than formerly; Ptolemy having acquainted them that he intended to send a great quantity of corn and 3000 men to their assistance, but that he would first have them try whether they could make up matters with Demetrius upon reasonable terms. At the same time ambassadors arrived from the Ætolian republic, soliciting the contending parties to put an end to a war which might involve all the east in endless calamities.

20 The helepolis rendered useless.

An accident which happened to Demetrius in this conjuncture, did not a little contribute towards the wished-for pacification. This prince was preparing to advance his helepolis against the city, when a Rhodian engineer found means to render it quite useless. He undermined the tract of ground over which the helepolis was to pass the next day in order to approach the walls. Demetrius, not suspecting any stratagem of this nature, caused

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caused the engine to be moved forward, which coming to the place that was undermined, sunk so deep into the ground that it was impossible to draw it out again. This misfortune, if we believe Vegetius and Vitruvius, determined Demetrius to hearken to the Ætolian ambassadors, and at last to strike up a peace upon the following conditions: That the republic of Rhodes should be maintained in the full enjoyment of their ancient rights, privileges, and liberties, without any foreign garrison; that they should renew their ancient alliance with Antigonus, and assist him in his wars against all states and princes except Ptolemy king of Egypt; and that, for the effectual performance of the articles stipulated between them, they should deliver 100 hostages, such as Demetrius should make choice of, except those who bore any public employment.

21 The siege raised.

Thus was the siege raised after it had continued a whole year; and the Rhodians amply rewarded all those who had distinguished themselves in the service of their country. They also set up statues to Ptolemy, Cassander, and Lysimachus; to all of whom they paid the highest honours, especially to the first, whom they worshipped as a god. Demetrius at his departure presented them with the helepolis and all the other machines which he had employed in battering the city; from the sale of which, with some additional sums of their own, they erected the famous colossus. After this they applied themselves entirely to trade and navigation; by which means they became quite masters of the sea, and much more opulent than any of the neighbouring nations. As far as lay in their power, they endeavoured to preserve a neutrality with regard to the jarring nations of the east. However, they could not avoid a war with the Byzantines, the occasion of which was as follows. The Byzantines being obliged to pay a yearly tribute of 80 talents to the Gauls, in order to raise this sum they came to a resolution of laying a toll on all ships that traded to the Pontic sea. This resolution provoked the Rhodians, who were a trading nation, above all the rest. For this reason they immediately dispatched ambassadors to the Byzantines, complaining of the new tax; but as the Byzantines had no other method of satisfying the Gauls, they persisted in their resolution. The Rhodians now declared war, and prevailed upon Prusias king of Bithynia, and Attalus king of Pergamus, to assist them; by which confederacy the Byzantines were so intimidated, that they agreed to exact no toll from ships trading to the Pontic sea, the demand which had been the occasion of the war.

22 War with the Byzantines.

23 A dreadful earthquake at Rhodes.

About this time happened a dreadful earthquake, which threw down the Colossus, the arsenal, and great part of the city-walls of Rhodes; which calamity the Rhodians improved to their advantage, sending ambassadors to all the Grecian princes and states, to whom their losses were so much exaggerated, that their countrymen obtained immense sums of money under pretence of repairing them. Hiero king of Syracuse presented them with 100 talents; and besides, exempted from all tolls and duties such as traded to Rhodes. Ptolemy king of Egypt gave them 100 talents, a million of measures of wheat, materials for building 20 quinquiremes and the like number of triremes; and, besides, sent them 100 architects, 300 workmen, and materials for repairing their public buildings, to a great value, paying them moreover 14 talents a-year for the maintenance of the workmen whom he sent them. Antigonus gave them 100 talents of silver, with 10,000 pieces timber, each piece being 16 cubits long; 7000 planks; 3000 pounds of iron, as many of pitch and resin, and 1000 measures of tar. Chrysesis, a woman of distinction, sent them 100,000 measures of wheat, and 3000 pounds of lead. Antiochus exempted from all taxes and duties the Rhodian ships trading to his dominions; presented them with 10 galleys, and 200,000 measures of corn, with many other things of great value. Prusias, Mithridates, and all the princes then reigning in Asia, made them proportionable presents: in short, all the Greek towns and nations, all the princes of Europe and Asia, contributed, according to their ability, to the relief of the Rhodians on that occasion; insomuch that their city not only soon rose from its ruins, but attained to an higher pitch of splendor than ever.

24 War with Philip of Macedon.

In the year 203 B.C. the Rhodians engaged in a war with Philip of Macedon. This monarch had invaded the territories of Attalus king of Pergamus; and, because the Rhodians seemed to favour their ancient friend, sent one Heraclides, by birth a Tarentine, to set fire to their fleet; at the same time that he dispatched ambassadors into Crete, in order to stir up the Cretans against the Rhodians, and prevent them from sending any assistance to Attalus. Upon this, war was immediately proclaimed. Philip at first gained an inconsiderable advantage in a naval engagement; but the next year was defeated with the loss of 11,000 men, while the Rhodians lost but 60 men, and Attalus 70. After this he carefully avoided coming to an engagement at sea either with Attalus or the Rhodians. The combined fleet, in the mean time, sailed towards the island of Ægina in hopes of intercepting him: but having failed in their purpose, they sailed to Athens, where they concluded a treaty with that people; and, on their return, drew all the Cyclades into a confederacy against Philip. But while the allies were thus wasting their time in negociations, Philip, having divided his forces into two bodies, sent one, under the command of Philocles, to ravage the Athenian territories; and put the other aboard his fleet, with orders to sail to Meronea, a city on the north side of Thrace. He then marched towards that city himself with a body of forces, took it by assault, and reduced a great many others; so that the confederates would, in all probability, have had little reason to boast of their successes, had not the Romans come to their assistance, by whose help the war was soon terminated to their advantage. In the war which took place between the Romans and Antiochus the Great king of Syria, the Rhodians were very useful allies to the former. The best part of their fleet was indeed destroyed by a treacherous contrivance of Polyxeniades the Syrian admiral: but they soon fitted out another, and defeated a Syrian squadron commanded by the celebrated Hannibal, the Carthaginian commander; after which, in conjunction with the Romans, they utterly defeated the whole Syrian fleet commanded by Polyxenides, which, together with the loss of the battle of Magnesia, so dispirited Antiochus, that he submitted to whatever conditions the Romans pleased.

25 The Rhodians assisted by the Romans.

For these services, the Rhodians were rewarded with the provinces of Lycia and Caria; but tyrannizing over

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over the people in a terrible manner, the Lycians applied to the Romans for protection. This was readily granted; but the Rhodians were so much displeased with their interfering in this matter, that they secretly favoured Perses in the war which broke out between him and the Roman republic. For this offence the two provinces abovementioned were taken from them; but the Rhodians, having banished or put to death those who had favoured Perses, were again admitted into favour, and greatly honoured by the senate. In the Mithridatic war, their alliance with Rome brought upon them the king of Pontus with all his force; but having lost the greatest part of his fleet before the city, he was obliged to raise the siege without performing any remarkable exploit. In the war which Pompey made on the Cilician pirates, the Rhodians assisted him with all their naval force, and had a great share in the victories which he gained. In the civil war between Cæsar and Pompey, they assisted the latter with a very numerous fleet. After his death they sided with Cæsar; which drew upon them the resentment of C. Cassius, who advanced to the island of Rhodes with a powerful fleet, after having reduced the greatest part of the continent. The Rhodians, terrified at his approach, sent ambassadors intreating him to make up matters in an amicable manner, and promising to stand neuter, and recal the ships which they had sent to the assistance of the triumviri. Cassius insisted upon their delivering up their fleet to him, and putting him in possession both of their harbour and city. This demand the Rhodians would by no means comply with, and therefore began to put themselves in a condition to stand a siege; but first sent Archelaus, who had taught Cassius the Greek tongue while he studied at Rhodes, to intercede with his disciple in their behalf. Archelaus could not, with all his authority, prevail upon him to moderate his demands; wherefore the Rhodians, having created one Alexander, a bold and enterprising man, their prætor or prytanis, equipped a fleet of 33 sail, and sent it out under the command of Mnaseus, an experienced sea-officer, to offer Cassius battle. Both fleets fought with incredible bravery, and the victory was long doubtful: but the Rhodians, being at length overpowered by numbers, were forced to return with their fleet to Rhodes; two of their ships being sunk, and the rest very much damaged by the heavy ships of the Romans. This was the first time, as our author observes, that the Rhodians were fairly overcome in a sea-fight.

26 Rhodes besieged by Mithridates without success.

27 The Rhodians defeated in two naval engagements by Cassius.

Cassius, who had beheld this fight from a neighbouring hill, having refitted his fleet, which had been no less damaged than that of the Rhodians, repaired to Loryma, a stronghold on the continent belonging to the Rhodians. This castle he took by assault; and from hence conveyed his land-forces, under the conduct of Fannius and Lentulus, over into the island. His fleet consisted of 80 ships of war, and above 200 transports. The Rhodians no sooner saw this mighty fleet appear, but they went out again to meet the enemy. The second engagement was far more bloody than the first; many ships were sunk, and great numbers of men killed, on both sides. But victory anew declared for the Romans; who immediately blocked up the city of Rhodes both by sea and land. As the Rhodians had not had time to furnish the city with sufficient store of provisions, some of the inhabitants, fearing that if it were taken either by assault or by famine, Cassius would put all the inhabitants to the sword, as Brutus had lately done at Xanthus, privately opened the gate to him, and put him in possession of the town, which he nevertheless treated as if it had been taken by assault. He commanded 50 of the chief citizens, who were suspected to favour the adverse party, to be brought before him, and sentenced them all to die; others, to the number of 25, who had commanded the fleet or army, because they did not appear when summoned, he proscribed. Having thus punished such as had either acted or spoken against him or his party, he commanded the Rhodians to deliver up to him all their ships, and whatever money they had in the public treasury. He then plundered the temples; stripping them of all their valuable furniture, vessels, and statues. He is said not to have left one statue in the whole city, except that of the sun; bragging at his departure, that he had stripped the Rhodians of all they had, leaving them nothing but the sun. As to private persons, he commanded them, under severe penalties, to bring to him all the gold and silver they had, promising, by a public crier, a tenth part to such as should discover any hidden treasures. The Rhodians at first concealed some part of their wealth, imagining that Cassius intended by this proclamation only to terrify them; but when they found he was in earnest, and saw several wealthy citizens put to death for concealing only a small portion of their riches, they desired that the time prefixed for the bringing in their gold and silver might be prolonged. Cassius willingly granted them their request; and then through fear, they dug up what they had hid under ground, and laid at his feet all they were worth in the world. By this means he extorted from private persons above 8000 talents. He then fined the city in 500 more; and leaving L. Varus there with a strong garrison to exact the fine without any abatement, he returned to the continent.

28 Who takes and cruelly pillages the city.

After the death of Cassius, Marc Antony restored the Rhodians to their ancient rights and privileges; bestowing upon them the islands of Andros, Naxos, Tenos, and the city of Myndus. But these the Rhodians so oppressed and loaded with taxes, that the same Antony, though a great friend to the Rhodian republic, was obliged to divest her of the sovereignty over those places, which he had a little before so liberally bestowed upon her. From this time to the reign of the emperor Claudius, we find no mention made of the Rhodians. That prince, as Dion informs us, deprived them of their liberty for having crucified some Roman citizens. However, he soon restored them to their former condition, as we read in Suetonius and Tacitus. The latter adds, that they had been as often deprived of, as restored to, their liberty, by way of punishment or reward for their different behaviour, as they had obliged the Romans with their assistance in foreign wars, or provoked them with their seditions at home. Pliny, who wrote in the beginning of Vespasian's reign, styles Rhodes a *beautiful and free town*. But this liberty they did not long enjoy, the island being soon after reduced by the same Vespasian to a Roman province, and obliged to pay a yearly tribute to their new masters. This province was called the *province of the islands*. The Roman pretor who governed it resided at Rhodes, as the chief

29 Rhodes reduced to a Roman province by Vespasian.

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chief city under his jurisdiction; and Rome, notwithstanding the eminent services rendered her by this republic, thenceforth treated the Rhodians not as allies, but vassals.

30 Expeditions of Villaret grand-master of the knights of Jerusalem against Rhodes.

The island of Rhodes continued subject to the Romans till the reign of the emperor Andronicus; when Villaret, grand-master of the knights of Jerusalem, then residing in Cyprus, finding himself much exposed to the attacks of the Saracens in that island, resolved to exchange it for that of Rhodes. This island too was almost entirely occupied by the Saracens; Andronicus the eastern emperor possessing little more in it than a castle. Nevertheless he refused to grant the investiture of the island to Villaret. The latter, without spending time in fruitless negotiations, sailed directly for Rhodes, where he landed his troops, provisions, and warlike stores, in spite of the opposition made by the Saracens, who then united against the common enemy. As Villaret foresaw that the capital must be taken before he could reduce the island, he instantly laid siege to it. The inhabitants defended themselves obstinately, upon which the grand-master thought proper to turn the siege into a blockade; but he soon found himself so closely surrounded by the Greeks and Saracens, that he could get no supply either of forage or provisions for his army. But, having at length obtained a supply of provisions by means of large sums borrowed of the Florentines, he came out of his trenches and attacked the Saracens, with a full resolution either to conquer or die. A bloody fight ensued, in which a great number of the bravest knights were killed: but at length the Saracens gave way, and fled to their ships; upon which the city was immediately assaulted and taken. The Greeks and other Christians had their lives and liberties given them, but the Saracens were all cut to pieces. The reduction of the capital was followed by that of all the other places of inferior strength throughout the island; and in four years after their landing, the whole was subjugated, and the conquerors took the title of the *knights of Rhodes*. For many years those knights continued the terror of the Saracens and Turks, and sustained a severe siege from Mohammed II. who was compelled to abandon the enterprize; but at length the Turkish sultan Solyman resolved at all events to drive them from it. Before he undertook the expedition, he sent a message commanding them to depart the island without delay, in which case he promised that neither they nor the inhabitants should suffer any injury, but threatened them with his utmost vengeance if they refused his offer. The knights, however, proving obstinate, Solyman attacked the city with a fleet of 400 sail and an army of 140,000 men.

31 He conquers the Saracens, and reduces the island.

32 The city besieged by Solyman.

The trenches were soon brought close to the counterscarp, and a strong battery raised against the town, which, however, did but little damage, till the sultan being informed by a spy of this particular, and that he was in danger of receiving some fatal shot from the tower of St John which overlooked his camp, he planted a battery against that tower, and quickly brought it down. Solyman, however, finding the whole place in some measure covered with strong fortifications of such height as to command all his batteries, ordered an immense quantity of stones and earth to be brought, in which so great a number of hands were employed night and day by turns, that they quickly raised a couple of hillocks high enough to overtop the city-walls. They plied them accordingly with such a continual fire, that the grand-master was obliged to cause them to be strongly propped within with earth and timber. All this while the besieged, who, from the top of the grand-master's palace, could discover how their batteries were planted, demolished them with their cannon almost as fast as they raised them.

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Here the enemy thought proper to alter their measures, and to plant a strong battery against the tower of St Nicholas, which, in the former siege by Mohammed, had resisted all the efforts of the then grand-vizier. This the bashaw of Romania caused to be battered with twelve large pieces of brass cannon, but had the mortification to see they all dismounted by those of the tower; to prevent which in future, he ordered them to be fired only in the night, and in the day had them covered with gabions and earth. This had such success, that, after 500 cannon-shot, the wall began to shake, and tumble into the ditch; but he was surprised to find another wall behind it, well terraced, and bordered with artillery, and himself obliged either to begin afresh, or give up the enterprise; and yet this last was what Solyman preferred, when he was told of its being built on a hard rock, incapable of being sapped, and how firmly it had held out against all the efforts of Mohammed's vizier. The next attack was therefore ordered by him to be made against the bastions of the town, and that with a vast number of the largest artillery, which continued firing during a whole month, so that the new wall of the bastion of England was quite demolished, though the old one stood proof against all their shot. That of Italy, which was battered by seventeen large pieces of cannon, was still worse damaged; upon which Martinengo the engineer advised the grand-master to cause a sally to be made on the trenches of the enemy, out of the breach, whilst he was making fresh entrenchments behind it. His advice succeeded; and the 200 men that sallied out sword in hand, having surprised the Turks in the trench, cut most of them in pieces. At the same time a new detachment, which was sent to repulse them, being obliged, as that engineer rightly judged, to pass by a spot which lay open to their artillery, were likewise mostly destroyed by the continual fire that came from it, whilst the assailants were employed in filling up several fathoms of the trench before they retired. By that time the breach had been repaired with such new works, that all the efforts to mount it by assault proved equally ineffectual and destructive.

33 Terribly battered.

34 The besieged want powder, but find means to supply the defect.

Unfortunately for the besieged, the continual fire they had made caused such a consumption of their powder, that they began to feel the want of it; the perfidious d'Amarald, whose province it had been to visit the magazines of it, having amused the council with a false report, that there was more than sufficient to maintain the siege, though it should last a whole twelvemonth. But here the grand-master found means to supply in some measure that unexpected defect, by the cautious provision he had made of a large quantity of saltpetre, which was immediately ground, and made into gunpowder, though he was at the same time obliged to order the engineers to be more sparing of it

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it for the future, and to make use of it only in the defence of such breaches as the enemy should make.

35 Desperate encounters in mines, &c.

All this while the Turks had not gained an inch of ground; and the breaches they had made were so suddenly either repaired or defended by new entrenchments, that the very rubbish of them must be mounted by assault. Solyman, therefore, thought it now advisable to set his numerous pioneers at work, in five different parts, in digging of mines, each of which led to the bastion opposite to it. Some of these were countermined by a new-invented method of Martinengo; who, by the help of braced skins, or drums, could discover where the miners were at work. Some of these he perceived, which he caused to be opened, and the miners to be driven out by hand grenadoes; others to be smothered, or burned, by setting fire to gunpowder. Yet did not this hinder two considerable ones to be sprung, which did a vast deal of damage to the bastion of England, by throwing down about six fathoms of the wall, and filling up the ditch with its rubbish: whereupon the Turks immediately climbed up sword in hand to the top of it, and planted seven of their standards upon the parapet; but, being stopped by a traverse, the knights, recovering from their surprise, fell upon them with such fury, that they were obliged to abandon it with great loss. The grand-master, who was then at church, quickly came to the place with his short pike in his hand, attended by his knights, encouraging all he met with, burghers, soldiers, and others, to fight bravely in defence of their religion and country, and arrived time enough to assist in the taking down their standards, and driving down the enemy by the way they came up. In vain did the vizier Mustapha endeavour to prevent their flight by killing some of the foremost with his sword, and driving the rest back; they were obliged to abandon the bastion, and, which was still worse, met with that death in their flight, which they had strove to shun from the fire-arms which were discharged upon them from the ramparts. Three sangiacs lost their lives in this attack, besides some thousands of the Turks; the grand-master, on his side, lost some of his bravest knights, particularly his standard-bearer.

The attacks were almost daily renewed with the same ill success and loss of men, every general striving to signalize himself in the sight of their emperor. At length the old general Peri, or Pyrrus, having harrassed the troops which guarded the bastion of Italy for several days successively without intermission, caused a strong detachment, which he had kept concealed behind a cavalier, to mount the place by break of day, on the 13th of September; where, finding them overcome with sleep and fatigue, they cut the throats of the sentinels, and, sliding through the breach, were just going to fall upon them. The Italians, however, quickly recovered themselves and their arms, and gave them an obstinate repulse. The contest was fierce and bloody on both sides; and the bashaw, still supplying his own with new reinforcements, would hardly have failed of overpowering the other, had not the grand-master, whom the alarm had quickly reached, timely intervened, and, by his presence, as well as example, revived his Rhodians, and thrown a sudden panic among the enemy. Pyrrus, desirous to do something to wipe off the disgrace of this repulse, tried his fortune next on an adjoining work, lately raised by the grand-master Carettii: but here his soldiers met with a still worse treatment, being almost overwhelmed with the hand-grenadoes, melted pitch, and boiling oil, which came pouring upon them, whilst the forces which were on the adjacent flanks made as great a slaughter of those that fled; insomuch that the janissaries began to resume their old murmuring tone, and cry out that they were brought thither only to be slaughtered.

The grand vizier Mustapha, afraid lest their complaints should reach his master, agreed at length, as the last resort, to make a fresh attempt on the bastion of England, whilst, to cause a diversion, the bashaw Ahmed sprung some fresh mines at an opposite part of the city. This was accordingly executed on the 17th of September; when the former, at the head of five battalions, resolutely mounted or rather crept up the breach, and, in spite of the fire of the English, advanced so far as to pitch some standards on the top; when, on a sudden, a crowd of English knights, commanded by one Bouk, or Burk, sallied out of their entrenchments, and, assisted by some other officers of distinction, obliged them to retire, though in good order. Mustapha, provoked at it, led them back, and killed several knights with his own hand; and had his men supported him as they ought, the place must have been yielded to him: but the fire which was made from the adjacent batteries and musquetry disconcerted them to such a degree, that neither threats nor entreaties could prevent their abandoning the enterprize, and dragging him away with them by main force. The Rhodians lost in that action several brave knights, both English and German; and, in particular, John Burk, their valiant commander: but the Turks lost above 3000 men, besides many officers of distinction. Much the same ill success having attended Ahmed with his mines, one of which had been opened, and the other only bringing some fathoms of the wall down, he was also obliged to retreat; his troops, though some of the very best, being forced to disperse themselves, after having borne the fire and fury of the Spanish and Auvergnian knights as long as they were able.

By this time Solyman, ashamed and exasperated at his ill success, called a general council; in which he made some stinging reflections on his vizier, for having represented the reduction of Rhodes as a very easy enterprize. To avoid the effects of the sultan's resentment, the subtle Mustapha declared, that hitherto they had fought the enemy as it were upon equal terms, as if they had been afraid of taking an ungenerous advantage of their superiority, by which, said he, we have given them an opportunity of opposing us with their united force wherever we attacked them. But let us now resolve upon a general assault on several sides of the town; and see what a poor defence their strength, thus divided, will be able to make against our united force. The advice was immediately approved by all, and the time appointed for the execution of it was on the 24th of that month, and every thing was ordered to be got ready against that day. Accordingly the town was actually assaulted at four different parts, after having suffered a continual fire for some time from their artillery in order to widen the breaches;

36 An assault in four different places at once.

breaches; by which the grand-master easily understood their design, and that the bastions of England and Spain, the port of Provence, and terrace of Italy, were pitched upon for the assault, and took his precautions accordingly.

The morning was no sooner come, than each party mounted their respective breach with an undaunted bravery, the young sultan, to animate them the more, having ordered his throne to be reared on an eminence, whence he could see all that was done. The Rhodians, on the other hand, were no less diligent in repulsing them with their cannon and other fire-arms, with their melted lead, boiling oil, stink-pots, and other usual expedients. The one side ascend the scaling ladders, fearless of all that opposed them; the other overturn their ladders and send them tumbling down headlong into the ditches, where they were overwhelmed with stones, or dispatched with darts and other missile weapons. The bastion of England proves the scene of the greatest slaughter and bloodshed; and the grand-master makes that his post of honour, and, by his presence and example, inspires his men with fresh vigour and bravery, whilst the continual thunder of his artillery makes such horrid work among the assailants, as chills all their courage, and forces them to give way: the lieutenant-general, who commands the attack, leads them back with fresh vigour, and mounts the breach at the head of all; immediately after comes a cannon-ball from the Spanish bastion, which overturns him dead into the ditch. This disaster, instead of fear and dread, fills them with a furious desire of revenging his death: but all their obstinacy cannot make the Rhodians go one step back, whilst the priests, monks, young men and old, and even women, of every rank and age, assist them with an uncommon ardour and firmness; some in overwhelming the enemy with stones; others in destroying them with melted lead, sulphur, and other combustibles; and a third sort in supplying the combatants with bread, wine, and other refreshments.

The assault was no less desperate and bloody on the bastion of Spain, where the knights, who guarded it, not expecting to be so soon attacked, and ashamed to stand idle, were assisting the bastion of Italy; which gave the Turks an opportunity to mount the breach, and penetrate as far as their intrenchments, where they planted no less than 30 of their standards on them. The grand-master was quickly apprised of it, and ordered the bastion of Auvergne to play against them; which was done with such diligence, and such continual fire, whilst the Rhodians enter the bastion by the help of their casemates, and, sword in hand, fall upon them with equal fury, that the Turks, alike beset by the fire of the artillery and the arms of the Rhodian knights, were forced to abandon the place with a considerable loss. The aga with great bravery rallies them afresh, and brings them back, by which time the grand-master likewise appeared. The fight was renewed with greater fierceness; and such slaughter was made on both sides, that the grand-master was obliged to draw 200 men out of St Nicholas tower to his assistance: these were commanded by some Roman knights, who led them on with such speed and bravery, that their very appearance on the bastion made the janissaries draw back; which Soliman observing from his eminence, caused a retreat to be sounded, to conceal the disgrace of their flight. In these attacks there fell about 15,000 of his best troops, besides several officers of distinction. The loss of the besieged was no less considerable, if we judge from the small number of their forces; but the greatest of all to them was that of some of their bravest and most distinguished knights and commanders, many of whom were killed, and scarce any escaped unwounded. But the most dreadful fate of all had like to have fallen on the favourite vizier Mustapha, who had proposed this general assault: the ill success of which had so enraged the proud sultan, that he condemned him to be shot with arrows at the head of his army; which dreadful sentence was just ready to be executed, when the old bashaw, by his intreaties, obtained a suspension of it, in hopes that, when his fury was abated, he should also obtain his pardon.

Solyman, however, was so discouraged by his ill successes, that he was on the point of raising the siege; and would have actually done so, had he not been diverted from it by the advice which he received from an Albanian deserter, some say by a letter from the traitor d'Amarald, that the far greater part of the knights were either killed or wounded, and those that remained altogether incapable of sustaining a fresh assault. This having determined him to try his fortune once more, the command of his forces was turned over to the bashaw Achmed; and, to show that he designed not to stir till he was master of the place, he ordered a house to be built on the adjacent mount Philermo for his winter-quarters. Achmed marched directly against the bastion of Spain, which had suffered the most; where, before he could open the trenches, his men fell thick and threefold by the constant fire both of small and great guns from the bastion of Auvergne. He lost still a much greater number in rearing a rampart of earth to cover the attack, and give him an opportunity of sapping the wall; and, as soon as he saw a large piece fall, ordered his men to mount the breach. They were no sooner come to the top, than they found a new work and entrenchments which Martinengo had reared; and there they were welcomed with such a brisk fire from the artillery, that they were glad to recover their trenches with the utmost precipitation after having lost the much greater part of their men. The attack was renewed, and a reciprocal fire continued with great obstinacy, till a musket-shot deprived that indefatigable engineer of one of his eyes, and the order of his assiduous services for some time. The grand-master, having ordered him to be carried to his palace, took his place, and kept it till he was quite cured, which was not till 34 days after; and continued all the time in the intrenchments with his handful of knights, scarcely allowing himself rest night or day, and ever ready to expose himself to the greatest dangers, with an ardour more becoming a junior officer than an old worn-out sovereign, which made his knights more lavish of their own lives than their paucity and present circumstances could well admit of.

Soon after this, the treason of D'Amarald was discovered, and he was condemned to death and executed; but by this time the city was reduced to the last extremity. The pope, emperor, and other crowned heads, had been long and often importuned by the grand-

Rhodes. grand-master for speedy assistance, without success; and, as an addition to all the other disasters, those succours which were sent to him from France and England perished at sea. The new supply which he had sent for of provisions from Candia had the same ill fate; so that the winds, seas, and every thing, seemed combined to bring on the destruction of that city and order. The only resource which could be thought of, under so dismal a situation, was, to send for the few remaining knights and forces which were left to guard the other islands, to come to the defence of their capital, in hopes that, if they could save this, the others might in time be recovered, in case the Turks should seize upon them. On the other hand, Solyman, grown impatient at the small ground his general had gained, gave him express orders to renew the attack with all imaginable speed and vigour, before the succours which he apprehended were coming from Europe, obliged him to raise the siege. Achmed instantly obeyed, raised a battery of 17 large cannon against the bastion of Italy, and quickly after made himself master of it, obliging the garrison to retire farther into the city. Here the grand master was forced to demolish two of the churches, to prevent the enemy's seizing on them; and, with their materials, caused some new works and entrenchments to be made to hinder their proceeding farther.

The Turks, however, gained ground every day, though they still lost vast numbers of their men: at length the 30th of November came, when the grand-master, and both the besiegers and besieged, thought the last assault was to be given. The bashaw Pyrrus, who commanded it, led his men directly to the entrenchments; upon which the bells of all the churches sounded the alarm. The grand-master, and his few knights, troops, and citizens, ran in crowds, and in a confused disorderly manner, to the entrenchments, each fighting in his own way, or rather as his fear directed him. This attack would have proved one of the most desperate that had yet been felt, had not a most vehement rain intervened, which carried away all the earth which the enemy had reared to serve them as a rampart against the artillery of the bastion of Auvergne; so that being now quite exposed to their continual fire, they fell in such great numbers, that the bashaw could no longer make them stand their ground, but all precipitately fled towards their camp. This last repulse threw the proud sultan into such a fury, that none of his officers dared to come near him; and the shame of his having now spent near six whole months with such a numerous army before the place, and having lost such myriads of his brave troops with so little advantage, had made him quite desperate, and they all dreaded the consequences of his resentment.

Pyrrus at length, having given it time to cool, ventured to approach him, and propose a new project to him, which, if approved, could hardly fail of success; which was, to offer the town a generous capitulation: and he observed, that in case the stubborn knights should reject it, yet being now reduced to so small a number, as well as their forces and fortifications almost destroyed, the citizens, who were most of them Greeks, and less ambitious of glory than solicitous for their own preservation, would undoubtedly accept of any composition that should secure to them their lives and effects. Rhodes.

This proposal being relished by the sultan, letters were immediately dispersed about the city in his name, exhorting them to submit to his government, and threatening them at the same time with the most dreadful effects of his resentment if they persisted in their obstinacy. Pyrrus likewise dispatched a Genoese to approach as near as he could to the bastion of Auvergne, and to intreat the knights to take pity of so many of their Christian brethren, and not expose them to the dreadful effects which must follow their refusal of a capitulation, so generously offered them at their last extremity. Other agents were likewise employed in other places, to all of whom the grand-master ordered some of his men to return this answer: That his order never treated with infidels but with sword in hand. An Albanian was sent next with a letter from the sultan to him, who met with the same repulse; after which, he ordered his men to fire upon any that should present themselves upon the same pretence, which was actually done. But this did not prevent the Rhodians from listening to the terms offered by the Turks, and holding frequent cabals upon that subject, in which the general massacre of a town taken by assault, the dreadful slavery of those that escaped, the rape of their wives and daughters, the destruction of their churches, the profanation of their holy relics and sacred utensils, and other dire consequences of an obstinate refusal, being duly weighed against the sultan's offers, quickly determined them which party to take. The grand-master, however, proving inexorable to all their intreaties, they applied to their Greek metropolitan, who readily went and represented all these things to him in the most pathetic terms: Yet he met with no better reception; but was told, that he and his knights were determined to be buried under the ruins of the city if their swords could no longer defend it, and he hoped their example would not permit them to show less courage on that occasion. This answer produced a quite contrary effect; and, as the citizens thought delays dangerous at such a juncture, they came in a body to him by the very next morning, and plainly told him, that, if he paid no greater regard to their preservation, they would not fail of taking the most proper measures to preserve the lives and chastity of their wives and children.

This resolution could not but greatly alarm the grand-master; who thereupon called a council of all the knights, and informed them himself of the condition of the place. These all agreed, particularly the engineer Martinengo, that it was no longer defensible, and no other resource left but to accept the sultan's offers; adding, at the same time, that though they were all ready, according to the obligations of their order, to fight to the last drop of their blood, yet it was no less their duty to provide for the safety of the inhabitants, who, not being bound by the same obligations, ought not to be made a sacrifice to their glory. It was therefore agreed, with the grand-master's consent, to accept of the next offers the sultan should make. He did not let them wait long: for the fear he was in of a fresh succour from Europe, the intrepidity of the knights, and the shame of being forced to raise the siege, prevailed upon him to hang out his pacific flag, which

which was quickly anſwered by another on the Rhodian ſide; upon which the Turks, coming out of their trenches, delivered up the ſultan's letter for the grand-maſter, to the grand-prior of St Giles, and the engineer Martinengo. The terms offered in it by Solyman appeared ſo advantageous, that they immediately exchanged hoſtages; and the knights that were ſent to him had the honour to be introduced to him, and to hear them confirmed by his own mouth, though not without threats of putting all to fire and ſword in caſe of refuſal or even delay. Two ambaſſadors were forthwith ſent to him, to demand a truce of three days to ſettle the capitulation and intereſts of the inhabitants, who were part Greeks and part Latins; but this was abſolutely refuſed by the impatient monarch, out of a ſuſpicion of the rumoured ſuccour being near, and that the truce was only to gain time till it was come.

He therefore ordered the hoſtilities to be renewed with freſh fury; in which the Rhodians made a moſt noble defence, conſidering their ſmall number, and that they had now only the barbican or falſe bray of the baſtion of Spain left to defend themſelves, and once more repulſed the enemy: at which the ſultan was ſo enraged, that he reſolved to overpower them by numbers on the next day; which was, after a ſtout defence, ſo effectually done, that they were forced to abandon that outwork, and retire into the city. In the mean while, the burghers, who had but a day or two before raiſed a freſh uproar againſt the grand-maſter, under pretence that he was going to give them up a prey to an infidel who regarded neither oaths nor ſolemn treaties, perceiving their own danger, came now to deſire him to renew the negotiations, and only begged the liberty of ſending one of their deputies along with his, to ſecure their intereſts in the capitulation. He readily conſented to it; but gave them a charge to ſhow the baſhaw Ahmed the treaty formerly concluded between Bajazet and his predeceſſor d'Aubuſſon, in which the former had entailed a dreadful curſe on any of his ſucceſſors that ſhould infringe it. This was done, in hopes that the ſhowing it to his maſter, who valued himſelf ſo much upon his ſtrict obſervance of his law, might produce ſome qualm in him which might lengthen the agreement, for they were ſtill as much in hopes of a ſuccour from Europe as he was in fear of it; but, to their great ſurpriſe, Ahmed had no ſooner peruſed than he tore it all in pieces, trampled it under his feet, and in a rage ordered them to be gone. The grand-maſter found no other reſource than to ſend them back to him the next day; when that miniſter, who knew his maſter's impatience to have the affair concluded, quickly agreed with them upon the terms, which were in ſubſtance as follows:

1. That the churches ſhould not be profaned. 2. That the inhabitants ſhould not be forced to part with their children to be made janiſſaries. 3. That they ſhould enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion. 4. That they ſhould be free from taxes during five years. 5. That thoſe who had a mind to leave the iſland, ſhould have free leave to do ſo. 6. That if the grand-maſter and his knights had not a ſufficient number of veſſels to tranſport themſelves and their effects into Candia, the ſultan ſhould ſupply that defect. 7. That they ſhould have 12 days allowed them, from the ſigning of the articles, to ſend all their effects on board. 8. That they ſhould have the liberty of carrying away their relics, chalices, and other ſacred utenſils belonging to the great church of St John, together with all their ornaments and other effects. 9. That they ſhould likewiſe carry with them all the artillery with which they were wont to arm the galleys of the order. 10. That the iſlands belonging to it, together with the caſtle of St Peter, ſhould be delivered up to the Turks. 11. That, for the more eaſy execution of theſe articles, the Turkiſh army ſhould be removed at ſome miles diſtance from the capital. 12. That the aga of the janiſſaries, at the head of 4000 of his men, ſhould be allowed to go and take poſſeſſion of the place.

From this time the iſland of Rhodes has been ſubject to the Turks; and, like other countries ſubject to that tyrannical yoke, has loſt its former importance. The air is good, and the ſoil fertile, but ill cultivated. The capital is ſurrounded with triple walls and double ditches, and is looked upon to be impregnable. It is inhabited by Turks and Jews; the Chriſtians being obliged to occupy the ſuburbs, as not being allowed to ſtay in the town during the night. The town is ſituated in E. Long. 28. 25. N. Lat. 36. 54.

RHODIOLA, ROSE-WORT; a genus of the enneandria order, belonging to the diœcia claſs of plants. There are two ſpecies, the roſea, and the minor; the firſt grows naturally in the clefts of the rocks and rugged mountains of Wales, Yorkſhire, and Weſtmoreland. It has a very thick fleſhy root, which, when cut or bruiſed, ſends out an odour like roſes. It has thick, ſucculent ſtalks, like thoſe of orpine, about nine inches long, cloſely garniſhed with thick ſucculent leaves, indented at the top. The ſtalk is terminated by a cluſter of yelloviſh herbaceous flowers, which have an agreeable ſcent, but are of ſhort continuance. The ſecond ſort is a native of the Alps, and has purpliſh flowers which come out later than the former; it is alſo of a ſmaller ſize. Both ſpecies are eaſily propagated by parting their roots; and require a ſhady ſituation, and dry undunged ſoil. The fragrance of the firſt ſpecies, however, is greatly diminiſhed by cultivation.

RHODODENDRON, DWARF ROSE-BAY; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the decandria claſs of plants. There are ſix ſpecies; the moſt remarkable of which are, 1. The hirſutum, with naked hairy leaves, grows naturally on the Alps and ſeveral mountains of Italy. It is a low ſhrub, which ſeldom riſes two feet high, ſending out many ligneous branches covered with a light-brown bark, garniſhed cloſely with oval ſpear-ſhaped leaves, ſitting pretty cloſe to the branches. They are entire, having a great number of fine iron-coloured hairs on their edges and under-ſide. The flowers are produced in bunches at the end of the branches, having one funnel-ſhaped petal cut into five obtuſe ſegments, and of a pale red colour. 2. The ferrugineum, with ſmooth leaves, hairy on their under-ſide, is a native of the Alps and Apennines. It riſes with a ſhrubby ſtalk near three feet high, ſending out many irregular branches covered with a purpliſh bark, and cloſely garniſhed with ſmooth ſpear-ſhaped entire leaves, whoſe borders are reflexed backward; the upper-ſide of a light lucid green, their

Rhododendron || Rhomboides.

under-side of an iron colour. The flowers are produced at the ends of the branches, are funnel-shaped, cut into five segments, and of a pale rose colour.—These plants are propagated by seeds; but, being natives of barren rocky soils and cold situations, they do not thrive in gardens, and for want of their usual covering of snow in the winter are often killed by frost in this country.

In Siberia, a species of this plant is used with great success in gouty and rheumatic affections, of which the following account is given in the 5th volume of the Medical Commentaries, p. 434, in a letter from Dr Guthrie of Petersburg to Dr Duncan of Edinburgh. "It is the rhododendrum chrysanthemum, nova species, belonging to the class of decandria, discovered by professor Pallas in his tour thro' Siberia. This Alpine shrub grows near the tops of the high mountains named *Sajanes*, in the neighbourhood of the river Jenise in Siberia; and delights in the skirts of the snow-covered summits, above the region that produces trees. When the inhabitants of that country mean to exhibit it in arthritic or rheumatic disorders, they take about two drams of the dried shrub, stalk and leaves, with nine or ten ounces of boiling water, and putting them into an earthen pot, they lute on the head, and place them in an oven during the night. This infusion, for it is not allowed to boil, the sick man drinks next morning for a dose. It occasions heat, together with a degree of intoxication, resembling the effects of spirituous liquors, and a singular kind of uneasy sensation in the parts affected, accompanied with a sort of vermiculatio, which is likewise confined to the diseased parts. The patient is not permitted to quench the thirst which this medicine occasions, as fluids, particularly cold water, produce vomiting, which lessens the power of the specific. In a few hours, however, all the disagreeable effects of the dose disappear, commonly with two or three stools. The patient then finds himself greatly relieved of his disorder, and has seldom occasion to repeat the medicine above two or three times to complete a cure. The inhabitants of Siberia call this shrub *chei*, or *tea*, from their drinking, in common, a weak infusion of it, as we do the Chinese plant of that name. This practice shows, that the plant, used in small quantities, must be innocent. Professor Pallas informs me, that he sent some time ago, some of this shrub dried to professor Koelpin at Stetin; and he showed me a letter from that gentleman, where he says, that he has given it with success in several cases, particularly in what he calls the *arthritica venerea*, with a tophus arthriticus on the carpus, and it produced a complete cure. It must be remarked, that the dose which these hardy Siberians take, who are also in the habit of drinking it as tea, would, in all probability, be too strong for our countrymen; however, it is a medicine which we may certainly give with safety, beginning with small doses."

RHŒADEÆ (*rhœas*, Linnæus's name after, Dioscorides, for the red poppy), the name of the 27th order in Linnæus's fragments of a natural method, consisting of poppy and a few genera which resemble it in habit and structure. See Botany, p. 1309.

RHOMBOIDES in geometry, a quadrilateral figure whose opposite sides and angles are equal, but is neither equilateral nor equiangular.

Rhomboides || Rhumb.

Rhomboides, in anatomy, a thin, broad, and obliquely square fleshly muscle, situated between the basis of the scapula and the spina dorsi; so called from its figure. Its general use is to draw backward and upward the subspinal portion of the basis scapulæ.

RHOMBUS, in geometry, an oblique angled parallelogram, or quadrilateral figure, whose sides are equal and parallel, but the angles unequal, two of the opposite ones being obtuse, and two acute.

RHONE, one of the largest rivers in France, which, rising among the Alps of Switzerland, passes through the lake of Geneva, visits that city, and then runs southwest to Lyons; where, joining the river Soane, it continues its course due south, passing by Orange, Avignon, and Arles, and falls into the Mediterranean a little above Marseilles.

RHUBARB. See Rheum.

In Mr Bell's travels we have an account of some curious particulars relating to the culture of rhubarb. He tells us that the best rhubarb grows in that part of Eastern Tartary called *Mongalia*, which now serves as a boundary between Russia and China. The marmots contribute greatly to the culture of the rhubarb. Where-ever you see ten or twenty plants growing, your are sure of finding several burrows under the shades of their broad-spreading leaves. Perhaps they may sometimes eat the leaves and roots of this plant: however, it is probable the manure they leave about the roots contributes not a little to its increase, and their casting up the earth makes it shoot out young buds and multiply. This plant does not run, and spread itself, like docks and others of the same species; but grows in tufts at uncertain distances, as if the seeds had been dropped with design. It appears that the Mongals never accounted it worth cultivating; but that the world is obliged to the marmots for the quantities scattered, at random, in many parts of this country: for whatever part of the ripe seed happens to be blown among the thick grass, can very seldom reach the ground, but must there wither and die; whereas, should it fall among the loose earth thrown up by the marmots, it immediately takes root, and produces a new plant.

After digging and gathering the rhubarb, the Mongals cut the large roots into small pieces, in order to make them dry more readily. In the middle of every piece they scoop a hole, through which a cord is drawn, in order to suspend them in any convenient place. They hang them for the most part about their tents, and sometimes on the horns of their sheep. This is a most pernicious custom, as it destroys some of the best part of the root: for all about the hole is rotten and useless; whereas, were people rightly informed how to dig and dry this plant, there would not be one pound of refuse in an hundred; which would save a great deal of trouble and expence, that much diminish the profits on this commodity. At present, the dealers in this article think these improvements not worthy of their attention, as their gains are more considerable on this than on any other branch of trade. Perhaps the government may hereafter think it proper to make some regulations with regard to this matter.

RHUMB, in navigation, a vertical circle of any given

Rhumb, Rhus.

given place, or intersection of such a circle with the horizon; in which last sense rhumb is the same with a point of the compass.

RHUMB-*Line* is also used for the line which a ship describes when sailing in the same collateral point of the compass, or oblique to the meridians.

RHUS, SUMACH; a genus of the trigynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. There are 16 species, of which the most remarkable are,

1. The coriaria, or elm-leaved sumach, grows naturally in Italy, Spain, and Turkey. The branches of this tree are used instead of oak-bark for tanning of leather, and it is said that the Turkey leather is all tanned with this shrub. This has a ligneous stalk, which divides at bottom into many irregular branches, rising to the height of eight or ten feet; the bark is hairy, of an herbaceous brown colour; the leaves are winged, composed of seven or eight pair of lobes, terminated by an odd one, bluntly sawed on their edges, hairy on their under side, of a yellowish-green colour, and placed alternately on the branches; the flowers grow in loose panicles on the end of the branches, which are of a whitish herbaceous colour, each panicle being composed of several spikes of flowers sitting close to the foot-stalks. The leaves and seeds of this sort are used in medicine, and are esteemed very restringent and stiptic.

2. The typhinum, or Virginian sumach, grows naturally in almost every part of North America. This hath a woody stem, with many irregular branches, which are generally crooked and deformed. The young branches are covered with a soft velvet-like down, resembling greatly that of a young stag's horn both in colour and texture, from whence the common people has given it the appellation of *stag's horn*; the leaves are winged, composed of six or seven pair of oblong heart-shaped lobes, terminated by an odd one, ending in acute points, hairy on their under side, as is also the midrib. The flowers are produced in close tufts at the end of the branches, and are succeeded by seeds, inclosed in purple woolly succulent covers; so that the bunches are of a beautiful purple colour in autumn; and the leaves, before they fall in autumn, change to a purplish colour at first, and, before they fall, to a feuillemort. This shrub is used for tanning of leather in America; and the roots are often prescribed in medicine in the countries where the plant grows naturally.

3. The glabrum, with winged leaves, grows naturally in many parts of North America; this is commonly titled by the gardeners *New-England sumach*. The stem of this is stronger and rises higher than that of the former; the branches spread more horizontally; they are not quite so downy as those of the last, and the down is of a brownish colour; the leaves are composed of many more pair of lobes, which are smooth on both sides; the flowers are disposed in loose panicles, which are of an herbaceous colour.

4. The Carolinianum, with sawed winged leaves, grows naturally in Carolina; the seeds of this were brought from thence by the late Mr Catesby, who has given a figure of the plant in his Natural History of Carolina. This is by the gardeners called the *scarlet Carolina sumach*; it rises commonly to the height of seven or eight feet, dividing into many irregular branches, which are smooth, of a purple colour, and pounced over with a greyish powder, as are also the foot-stalks of the leaves. The leaves are composed of seven or eight pair of lobes, terminated by an odd one; these are not always placed exactly opposite on the midrib, but are sometimes alternate. The upper side of the lobes are of a dark green, and their under hoary, but smooth. The flowers are produced at the end of the branches in very close panicles, which are large, and of a bright red colour.

5. The Canadense, with winged spear-shaped leaves, grows naturally in Canada, Maryland, and several other parts of North America. This hath smooth branches of a purple colour, covered with a gray pounce. The leaves are composed of seven or eight pair of lobes, terminated by an odd one; the lobes are spear-shaped, sawed on their edges, of a lucid green on their upper surface, but hoary on their under, and are smooth. The flowers are produced at the end of the branches in large panicles, which are composed of several smaller, each standing upon separate footstalks; they are of a deep red colour, and the whole panicle is covered with a gray pounce, as if it had been scattered over them.

6. The copallinum, or narrow-leaved sumach, grows naturally in most parts of North America, where it is known by the title of *beach sumach*, probably from the place where it grows. This is of humbler growth than either of the former, seldom rising more than four or five feet high in Britain, dividing into many spreading branches, which are smooth, of a light brown colour, closely garnished with winged leaves, composed of four or five pair of narrow lobes, terminated by an odd one; they are of a light green on both sides, and in autumn change purplish. The midrid, which sustains the lobes, has on each side a winged or leafy border, which runs from one pair of lobes to another, ending in joints at each pair, by which it is easily distinguished from the other sorts. The flowers are produced in loose panicles at the end of the branches, of a yellowish herbaceous colour.

These six sorts are hardy plants, and will thrive in the open air here. The first and fourth sorts are not quite so hardy as the others, so must have a better situation, otherwise their branches will be injured by severe frost in the winter. They are easily propagated by seeds, which, if sown in autumn, the plants will come up the following spring; but if they are sown in spring, they will not come up till the next spring: they may be either sown in pots, or the full ground. If they are sown in pots in autumn, the pots should be placed under a common frame in winter, where the seeds may be protected from hard frost; and in the spring, if the pots are plunged into a very moderate hot-bed, the plants will soon rise, and have thereby more time to get strength before winter. When the plants come up, they must be gradually hardened to bear the open air, into which they should be removed as soon as the weather is favourable, placing them where they may have the morning sun; in the summer, they must be kept clean from weeds, and in dry weather watered. Toward autumn it will be proper to stint their growth by keeping them dry, that the extremity of their shoots may harden; for if they are replete with moisture, the early frosts in autumn will

Rhus. will pinch them, which will cause their shoots to decay almost to the bottom if the plants are not screened from them. If the pots are put under a common frame in autumn, it will secure the plants from injury: for while they are young and the shoots soft, they will be in danger of suffering, if the winter proves very severe; but in mild weather they must always enjoy the open air, therefore should never be covered but in frost. The spring following, just before the plants begin to shoot, they should be shaken out of the pots, and carefully separated, so as not to tear the roots; and transplanted into a nursery, in rows three feet asunder, and one foot distance in the rows. In this nursery they may stand two years to get strength, and then may be transplanted where they are to remain.

7. Besides these Linnæus has included in this genus the toxicodendron or poison-tree, under the name of *rhus vernix* or *poison-ash*. This grows naturally in Virginia, Pensylvania, New-England, Carolina, and Japan, rising with a strong woody stalk to the height of 20 feet and upwards; though in this country it is seldom seen above 12, by reason of the plants being extremely tender. The bark is brown, inclining to gray; the branches are garnished with winged leaves composed of three or four pair of lobes terminated by an odd one. The lobes vary greatly in their shape, but for the most part they are oval and spear-shaped. The footstalks become of a bright purple towards the latter part of summer, and in autumn all the leaves are of a beautiful purple before they fall off.

All the species of sumach abound with an acrid milky juice, which is reckoned poisonous, but this property is most remarkable in the vernix. The most distinct account of it is to be found in professor Kalm's travels in North America. "An incision (says he) being made into the tree, a whitish yellow juice, which has a nauseous smell, comes out between the bark and the wood. This tree is not known for its good qualities, but greatly so for the effect of its poison; which, though it is noxious to some people, yet does not in the least affect others. And therefore, one person can handle the tree as he pleases, cut it, peel off its bark, rub it or the wood upon his hands, smell at it, spread the juice upon his skin, and make more experiments, with no inconvenience to himself: another person, on the contrary, dares not meddle with the tree, while its wood is fresh; nor can he venture to touch a hand which has handled it, nor even to expose himself to the smoke of a fire which is made with this wood, without soon feeling its bad effects; for the face, the hands, and frequently the whole body swells excessively, and is affected with a very acute pain. Sometimes bladders or blisters arise in great plenty, and make the sick person look as if he was infected by a leprosy. In some people the external thin skin, or cuticle, peels off in a few days, as is the case when a person has scalded or burnt any part of his body. Nay, the nature of some persons will not even allow them to approach the place where the tree grows, or to expose themselves to the wind when it carries the effluvia or exhalations of this tree with it, without letting them feel the inconvenience of the swelling, which I have just now described. Their eyes are sometimes shut up for one, or two, or more days together, by the swelling. I know two brothers, one of whom could without danger handle this tree in what manner he pleased, whereas the other could not come near it without swelling. A person sometimes does not know that he has touched this poisonous plant, or that he has been near it, before his face and hands show it by their swelling. I have known old people who were more afraid of this tree than of a viper; and I was acquainted with a person who merely by the noxious exhalations of it was swelled to such a degree, that he was as stiff as a log of wood, and could only be turned about in sheets. Rhus.

"I have tried experiments of every kind with the poison-tree on myself. I have spread its juice upon my hands, cut and broke its branches, peeled off its bark, and rubbed my hands with it, smelt at it, carried pieces of it in my bare hands, and repeated all this frequently, without feeling the baneful effects so commonly annexed to it; but I however once experienced that the poison of the sumach was not entirely without effect upon me. On a hot day in summer, as I was in some degree of perspiration, I cut a branch of the tree, and carried it in my hand for about half an hour together, and smelt at it now and then. I felt no effects from it, till in the evening. But next morning I awoke with a violent itching of my eye-lids and the parts thereabouts; and this was so painful, that I could hardly keep my hands from it. It ceased after I had washed my eyes for a while with very cold water. But my eye-lids were very stiff all that day. At night the itching returned; and in the morning when I awoke, I felt it as ill as the morning before, and I used the same remedy against it. However, it continued almost for a whole week together; and my eyes were very red, and my eye-lids were with difficulty moved during all that time. My pain ceased entirely afterwards. About the same time, I had spread the juice of the tree very thick upon my hand. Three days after, they occasioned blisters, which soon went off without affecting me much. I have not experienced any thing more of the effects of this plant, nor had I any desire so to do. However, I found that it could not exert its power upon me when I was not perspiring.

"I have never heard that the poison of this sumach has been mortal, but the pain ceases after a few days duration. The natives formerly made their flutes of this tree, because it has a great deal of pith. Some people assured me, that a person suffering from its noisome exhalations, would easily recover by spreading a mixture of the wood burnt to charcoal, and hog's lard, upon the swelled parts. Some asserted, that they had really tried this remedy. In some places this tree is rooted out on purpose that its poison may not affect the workmen."

The natives are said to distinguish this tree in the dark, by its extreme coldness to the touch. The juice of some kinds of sumach, when exposed to the heat of the sun, becomes so thick and clammy, that it is used for birdlime, and the inspissated juice of the poison-ash is said to be the fine varnish of Japan *. A cataplasm made with the fresh juice of the poison-ash, applied to the feet, is said by Hughes, in his Natural History of Barbadoes, to kill the vermin called by the West Indians

* See *Varnish*.

Fig. 3.

Motion of RIVERS.

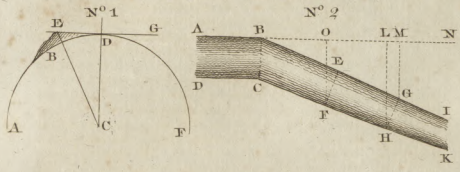
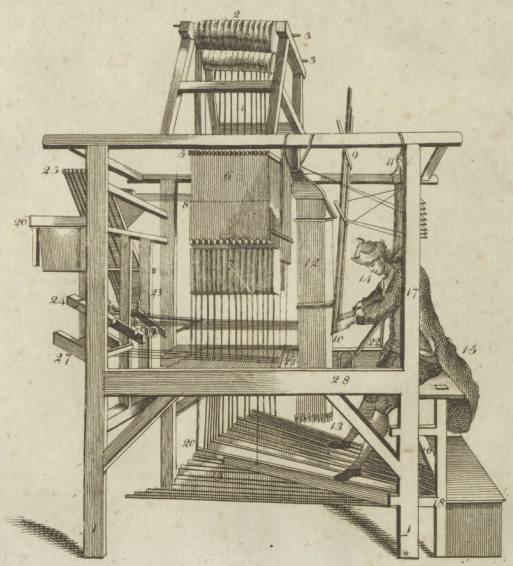


Fig. 1.

RHINOCEROS.

Fig. 2.

RIBBON-LOOM.



A Bell Sculp.

dians *chigers*. Very good vinegar is made from an infusion of the fruit of an American sumach, which for that reason is called the *vinegar-tree*.

RHYME, RHIME, *Ryme*, or *Rime*, in poetry, the similar sound, or cadence and termination of two words which end two verses, &c. Or rhyme is a similitude of sound between the last syllable or syllables of a verse, succeeding either immediately or at a distance of two or three lines. See POETRY, p. 6336—6344.

RHYTHM, in music, the variety in the movement, as to the quickness or slowness, length or shortness of the notes. Or it may be defined more generally, the proportion which the parts of the motion have to each other.

RIAL, or RYAL, a Spanish coin. See MONEY-*Table*.

RIAL, or *Royal*, is also the name of a piece of gold anciently current among us for 10s.

RIBANDS, (from *rib* and *bend*), in naval architecture, long narrow flexible pieces of timber, nailed upon the outside of the ribs, from the stem to the sternpost, so as to envelope the ship lengthwise, and appear on her side and bottom like the meridians on the surface of the globe. The ribands being judiciously arranged with regard to their height and distance from each other, and forming regular sweeps about the ship's body, will compose a kind of frame, whose interior surface will determine the curve of all the intermediate or filling-timbers which are stationed between the principal ones. As the figure of the ship's bottom approaches to that of a conoid, and the ribands having a limited breadth, it is apparent that they cannot be applied to this convex surface without forming a double curve, which will be partly vertical and partly horizontal; so that the vertical curve will increase by approaching the stem, and still more by drawing near the stern-post. It is also evident, that by deviating from the middle line of the ship's length, as they approach the extreme breadth at the midship-frame, the ribands will also form an horizontal curve. The lowest of these, which is terminated upon the stem and stern-post, at the height of the rising-line of the floor, and answers to the upper part of the floor-timber upon the midship-frame, is called the *floor-riband*. That which coincides with the wing-transom, at the height of the lower-deck upon the midship-frame, is termed the *breadth-riband;* all the rest, which are placed between these two, are called *intermediate ribands*.

RIBAN, or RIBBAN, in heraldry, the eighth part of a bend. See HERALDRY, p. 3589, art. iii.

RIBAND, or RIBBON, a narrow sort of silk, chiefly used for head-ornaments, badges of chivalry, &c.

In order to give our readers an idea of the manner in which this curious and valuable branch of manufactures is managed, a view of the ribbon-weaver at his loom is represented in plate CCLVIII. fig. 2. where, 1, Is the frame of the loom. 2, The castle, containing 48 pulleys. 3. The branches, on which the pulleys turn. 4. The tires, or the riding-cords, which run on the pulleys, and pull up the high-lisses. 5, The lift-sticks, to which the high-lisses are tied. 6, The high-lisses, or lifts, are a number of long threads, with platines, or plate-leads, at the bottom; and ringlets, or loops, about their middle, through which the cords or cross-threads of the ground-harness ride. 7, The plate-leads, or platines, are flat pieces of lead, of about six inches long, and three or four inches broad at the top, but round at the bottom; some use black slates instead of them: their use is to pull down those lisses which the workman had raised by the treddle, after his foot is taken off. 8, The branches or cords of the ground-harness, which go through the loops in the middle of the high-lisses: on the well-ordering of these cords chiefly depends the art of ribbon-weaving, because it is by means of this contrivance that the weaver draws in the thread or silk that makes the flower, and rejects or excludes the rest. 9, The batton; this is the wooden frame that holds the reed, or shuttle, and beats or closes the work: where observe, that the ribbon-weaver does not beat his work; but as soon as the shuttle is passed, and his hand is taken away, the batton is forced, by a spring from the top, to beat the work close. 10, The shuttle, or reed. 11, The spring of the botton, by which it is made to close the work. 12, The long-harness are the front-reeds, by which the figure is raised. 13, The linguas are the long pieces of round or square lead, tied to the end of each thread of the long-harness to keep them tight. 14, The broad piece of wood, about a foot square, leaning somewhat forward, intended to ease the weaver as he stoops to his shuttle; it is fixed in the middle of the breast-beam. Some weavers, instead of this, have a contrivance of a cord or rope that is fastened to the front-frame, and comes across his breast; this is called a *slopfall*. 15, The seat-bench; this leans forward very much. 16, The foot-step to the treddles. 17, The breast beam, being a cross bar that passes from one of the standards to the other, so as to front the workman's breast: to this breast-bar is fixed a roll, upon which the ribbon passes in its way to be rolled upon the roller, that turns a little below. 18, The clamps, or pieces of wood, in which the broaches that confine the treddles rest. 19, The treddles are long narrow pieces of wood, to the ends of which the cords that move the lisses are fastened. 20, The treddle-cords are only distinguished from the riding-cords by a board full of holes, which divide them, in order to prevent the plate-leads, which are tied to the high-lisses, from pulling them too high when the workman's foot is off the the treddle: which stop is made by a knot in the treddle-cord, too big to be forced through that hole in the board. 21, The lames are two pieces of thin narrow boards, only used in plain works, and then to supply the place of the long-harness. 22, The knee-roll, by which the weaver rolls up his ribbon as he sees proper, or by bit and bit as it is finished. 23, The back-rolls, on which the warp is rolled. It is to be observed, that there is always as many rolls as colours in the work to be wove. 24, The clamps, which support the rollers. 25, The returning-sticks, or, as others call them, the *returns*, or the *tumblers*, or *pulleys*, to which the tires are tied, to clear the course of cords through the high-lisses. 26, The catch-board for the tumblers. 27, The tire-board. 28, The buttons for the knee-rolls and treddle-board, described in number 20.

Ribbons of all sorts are prohibited from being imported.

RIBES, the CURRANT and GOOSEBERRY-BUSH; a genus

genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants.

The currant and the gooseberry were long considered each as a separate genus: *ribes* the currant, and *grossularia* the gooseberry: but they are now joined together, the grossularia being made a species of *ribes;* all the currant kinds having inermous or thornless branches, and racemous clusters of flowers and fruit; and the gooseberry have spinous branches, and flowers and fruit for the most part singly.

There are three species of the currant-tree, two of which, and their varieties, merit culture for their fruit; the other as a plant of variety or observation: all of which are inermous or unarmed, having no thorns on the branches.

1. Rubrum, common red-currant tree, &c. hath a shrubby stem, dividing low into many branches, forming a bushy head, five or six feet high or more, without thorns; broad trilobate leaves, and smooth pendulous clusters of plane greenish flowers, succeeded by small clusters of berries. It grows naturally in woods and the hedges in most parts of Europe, and comprises all sorts of red and white currants; as, common small red currant—large-bunched red currant—Champaigne pale-red currant—common small white currant—large white Dutch currant—yellow blotched-leaved currant—silver striped leaved—gold striped leaved—gooseberry-leaved. All these sorts are varieties of one species, *ribes rubrum*, or common red currant; it being the parent from which all the others were first obtained from the seed, and improved by culture. They all flower in the spring, and the fruit ripens in June and July; and by having the trees in different situations and modes of training, such as plantations of standards in the open quarters for the general supply, others trained against walls or pales of different aspect, the fruit may be continued ripe in good perfection from about the middle of June until November, provided the later crops are defended with mats or nets from the birds.

2. The nigrum, or black currant tree, hath a shrubby stem, dividing low into many branches, forming a bushy head five or six feet high; broad trilobate leaves of a rank odour, and having racemous clusters of oblong greenish flowers, succeeded by thin clusters of black berries. The fruit of this species being of a strong flavour and somewhat physical relish, is not generally liked; it, however, is accounted very wholesome: there is also made of it a syrup of high estimation for sore throats and quinsies; hence the fruit is often called *squinancy berries.* There is a variety called the *Pensylvanian black currant*, having smaller shoots and leaves, not strong scented, and small fruit but of little value; so the shrub is esteemed only for variety and shrubberies. The mode of bearing of all the varieties of currants is both in the old and young wood, all along the sides of the branches and shoots, often upon a sort of small sprigs and snags, producing the fruit in numerous long pendulous clusters.

3. The grossularia, or common gooseberry bush, rises with a low shrubby stem, dividing low into a very branchy bushy head, armed with spines; trilobate smallish leaves, having hairy ciliated footstalks; and small greenish flowers, succeeded by hairy berries. It consists of many varieties, of different sizes and colours.

4. The reclinatum, or reclinated broad-leaved gooseberry-bush, rises with a low shrubby stem, and reclinated somewhat prickly branches, trilobate broadish leaves, and small greenish flowers, having the pedunculi furnished with triphyllous bractea.

5. The oxyacanthoides, or oxyacantha-leaved gooseberry, hath a shrubby stem, and branches armed on all sides with spines, and largish trilobate hawthorn leaves.

6. The uva crispa, or smooth gooseberry, hath a shrubby stem, and branches armed with spines; trilobate leaves; pedicles having monophyllous bractea; and smooth fruit.

7. The cynosbati, or prickly-fruited gooseberry bush, hath a shrubby stem and branches, armed with spines mostly at the axillas, and prickly fruit in clusters.

All the above seven species of ribes, both currants and gooseberry kinds, and their respective varieties, are very hardy shrubs, that prosper almost any where, both in open and shady situations, and in any common soil; bearing plentifully in any exposure, tho' in open sunny situations they produce the largest and fairest fruit, ripening to a richer vinous flavour; but it is eligible to plant them in different situations and aspects, in order to have the fruit as early and late as possible.

They are commonly planted in the kitchen-garden, mostly as dwarf standards, in the open quarters, for the general supply; being disposed sometimes in continued plantations in rows, eight or ten feet by six asunder, where great quantities of the fruit are required for market or other large supplies; and are sometimes disposed in single ranges round the outward edge of the quarters, eight feet asunder; frequently in single cross rows, in order to divide the ground into separate wide plats or breaks, of from 20 to 30 or 40 feet wide, which also serves to shelter the ground a little in winter; in all of which methods of planting them as standards, they should be generally trained up to a single stem about a foot high, then suffered to branch out every way all around into bushy heads, keeping the middle however open, and the branches moderately thin, to admit the sun and free air; tho' if some are fanned, that is, trimmed on two sides oppositely, so as to make the other branches range in a line like an espalier, they will take up much less of the ground, and, by admitting the sun and air more freely, they will produce large fair fruit. They are likewise trained against walls or palings, like other wall-trees, but principally some of the large red and white Dutch currants, in which they will produce fine large fruit, and those against any south fence will ripen early and be high flavoured; but it is proper to plant a few both against south, north, east, and west walls, in order to obtain the fruit ripe both early and late, in a long succession. It is also proper to plant a few of the finest sorts of gooseberries against a warm fence, both to have early green gooseberries for tarts, &c. as well as to ripen early; and they will grow very large and fine. Sometimes both currants and gooseberries are also trained in low espaliers for variety, and they produce very fine fruit.

The fruits both of the currant and gooseberry are of an acid and cooling nature, and as such are sometimes used in medicine, especially the juice reduced to large

Ricaut || Richardson

a gelly by boiling with ſugar. From the juice of currants alſo a very agreeable wine is made.

RICAUT, or RYCAUT, (Sir Paul), an eminent Engliſh traveller, of the time of whoſe birth we find no account; but in 1661, he was appointed ſecretary to the earl of Winchelſea, who was ſent ambaſſador extraordinary to the Ottoman Porte. During his continuance in that ſtation, he wrote, "The preſent ſtate of the Ottoman empire, in three books, containing the maxims of the Turkiſh policy, their religion, and military diſcipline," London, folio, 1670. He afterwards reſided 11 years as conſul at Smyrna, where at the command of Charles II. he compoſed "The preſent ſtate of the Greek and Armenian churches, anno Chriſti 1678." On his return, lord Clarendon, being appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland, made him his principal ſecretary for Leinſter and Connaught: king James II. knighted him; and made him one of the privy council in Ireland, and judge of the court of admiralty; all which he held to the revolution. He was employed by king William as reſident at the Hanſe-towns in Lower Saxony, where he continued for ten years; but being worn out with age and infirmities, he obtained leave to return in 1700, and died the ſame year. Ricaut continued *Knolles's Hiſtory of the Turks*, and *Platina's Lives of the Popes*; beſides which there are ſome other productions under his name.

RICHARD I. II. and III. kings of England. See *Hiſtory of* ENGLAND.

RICHARDSON (Samuel), a celebrated Engliſh ſentimental novel-writer, born in 1688, was bred to the buſineſs of a printer, which he exerciſed all his life with eminence. Though he is ſaid to have underſtood no language but his own, yet he acquired great reputation by his three epiſtolary novels, intitled *Pamela*, *Clariſſa*, and *Sir Charles Grandiſon*; which ſhow an uncommon knowledge of human nature. His purpoſe being to promote virtue, his pictures of moral excellence are by much too highly coloured; and he has deſcribed his favourite characters ſuch rather as we might wiſh them to be, than as they are to be found in reality. It is alſo objected by ſome, that his writings have not always the good effect intended: for that, inſtead of improving natural characters, they have faſhioned many artificial ones; and have taught delicate and refined ladies and gentlemen to deſpiſe every one but their own ſelf-exalted perſons. But after all that can be urged of the ill-effects of Mr Richardſon's novels on weak minds, eager to adopt characters they can only burleſque; a ſenſible reader will improve more by ſtudying ſuch models of perfection, than of thoſe nearer to the natural ſtandard of human frailty, and where thoſe frailties are artfully exaggerated ſo as to fix and miſemploy the attention on them. A ſtroke of the palſy carried off Mr Richardſon, after a few days illneſs, upon the 4th of July 1761. He was a man of fine parts, and a lover of virtue; which, for aught we have ever heard to the contrary, he ſhowed in his life and converſation as well as in his writings. Beſides the works abovementioned, he is the author of an Æſop's Fables, a Tour through Britain, 4 vols, and a volume of Familiar Letters upon buſineſs and other ſubjects. He is ſaid from his childhood to have delighted in letter-writing; and therefore was the more eaſily led to throw his romances into that form; which, if it enlivens the hiſtory in ſome reſpects, yet lengthens it with unintereſting prate, and formalities that mean nothing, and on that account is ſometimes found a little tedious and fatiguing.

Richelet, Richlieu.

RICHELET (Cæſar Peter), a French writer, born in 1631 at Chemin in Champagne. He was the friend of Patru and Ablancourt; and like them applied himſelf to the ſtudy of the French language with ſucceſs. He compiled a dictionary of that language, full of new and uſeful remarks; but exceptionable, as containing many ſatirical reflections and obſcenities. The beſt edition is that of Lyons, 3 vols folio, 1728. He alſo collected a ſmall dictionary of rhymes, and compoſed ſome other pieces in the grammatical and critical way. He died in 1698.

RICHLIEU (John Armand du Pleſſis de), cardinal of Richlieu and Fronſac, biſhop of Lucon, &c. was born at Paris in 1585. He was of excellent parts; and at the age of 22 had the addreſs to obtain a diſpenſation to enjoy the biſhopric of Lucon in 1607. Returning into France, he applied himſelf in a particular manner to the function of preaching; and his reputation this way procured him the office of almoner to the queen Mary de Medicis. His abilities in the management of affairs advanced him to be ſecretary of ſtate in 1616; and the king ſoon gave him the preference to all his other ſecretaries. The death of the marquis d'Ancre having produced a revolution in ſtate-affairs, Richlieu retired to Avignon; where he employed himſelf in compoſing books of controverſy and piety. The king having recalled him to court, he was made a cardinal in 1622; and, two years after, firſt miniſter of ſtate, and grand maſter of the navigation. In 1626, the iſle of Rhée was preſerved by his care, and Rochelle taken, having ſtopped up the haven by that famous dyke which he ordered to be made there. He accompanied the king to the ſiege of Cazal, and contributed not a little to the raiſing of it in 1629. He alſo obliged the Huguenots to the peace at Alets, which proved the ruin of that party; he took Pamerol, and ſuccoured Cazal beſieged by Spinola. In the mean time the nobles found fault with his conduct, and perſuaded the king to diſcard him. The cardinal, for his part, was unmoved with it; and by his reaſonings overthrew what was thought to be determined againſt him; ſo that, inſtead of being diſgraced, he from that moment became more powerful than ever. He puniſhed all his enemies in the ſame manner as they would have had him ſuffer; and the day which produced this event, ſo glorious to cardinal Richlieu, was called the *day of dupes*. This able miniſter had from thenceforwards an aſcendency over the king's mind; and he now reſolved to humble the exceſſive pride of the houſe of Auſtria. For that purpoſe he concluded a treaty with Guſtavus Adolphus king of Sweden, for carrying the war into the heart of Germany. He alſo entered into a league with the duke of Bavaria; ſecured Lorrain; raiſed a part of the princes of the empire againſt the emperor; treated with the Dutch to continue the war againſt Spain; favoured the Catalans and Portugueſe till they ſhook off the Spaniſh yoke; and, in ſhort, took ſo many different meaſures, that he accompliſhed his deſign; and after having carried on the war with ſucceſs, was thinking of concluding it by a peace, when he

Ricinus || Ridicule.

he died at Paris on the 4th of December 1642, aged 58. He was interred in the Sorbonne, where a magnificent mauſoleum is erected to his memory. This great politician made the arts and ſciences flouriſh; formed the botanical garden at Paris, called the *king's garden;* founded the French academy; eſtabliſhed the royal printing-houſe; erected the palace now called *Le Palais Royal,* which he preſented to the king; and rebuilt the Sorbonne with a magnificence that appears truly royal. Beſides his books of controverſy and piety, there go under the name of this miniſter, A Journal, in 2 vols 12mo; and a Political Teſtament, in 12mo; all treating of politics and ſtate-affairs. Cardinal Mazarine purſued Richlieu's plan, and completed many of the ſchemes which he had begun but left unfiniſhed.

RICINUS, or PALMA CHRISTI, in botany; a genus of the monadelphia order, belonging to the monoecia claſs of plants. There are three ſpecies, of which the moſt remarkable is the communis, or common palma Chriſti. This riſes with an upright, ſtrong, herbaceous, jointed ſtem, eight or ten feet high; having ſub-palmated peltated ſawed leaves, and at the axillas long ſpikes of whitiſh green flowers, ſucceeded by ripe ſeeds in autumn. Of this there are a great many varieties; all of them fine majeſtic plants, annual, or at moſt biennial, in this country; but in their native ſoil they are ſaid to be perennial both in root and ſtem. They are propagated by ſeeds ſown on a hot-bed, and require the ſame treatment as other tender exotics. From the ſeeds of this plant is expreſſed an oil which in ſome caſes is uſeful purgative.

RICKETS, in medicine. See there, n° 216.

RICOCHET, in gunnery, is when guns, howitzers, or mortars, are loaded with ſmall charges, and elevated from 5 to 12 degrees, ſo as to fire over the parapet, and the ſhot or ſhell rolls along the oppoſite rampart: it is called *ricochet-firing,* and the batteries are likewiſe called *ricochet-batteries.* This method of firing was firſt invented by M. Belidor, and firſt uſed at the ſiege of Ath in 1697. This method of firing out of mortars, was firſt tried in 1723 at the military ſchool at Straſbourg, and with ſucceſs. At the battle of Roſbach, in 1757, the king of Pruſſia had ſeveral 6-inch mortars made with trunnions, and mounted on travelling-carriages, which fired obliquely on the enemy's lines, and amongſt their horſe, loaded with 8 ounces of powder, and at an elevation of one degree 15 minutes, which did great execution; for the ſhells rolling along the lines, with burning fuzes, made the ſtouteſt of the enemy not wait for their burſting.

RIDGE, in agriculture, a long piece of riſing land between two furrows. See AGRICULTURE, n° 101.

RIDGLING, or RIDGEL, among farriers, &c. the male of any beaſt that has been but half-gelt.

RIDICULE, in matters of literature, is that ſpecies of writing which excites contempt with laughter.

The *ridiculous,* however, differs from the *riſible,* (ſee RISIBLE.) A riſible object produceth an emotion of laughter merely: a ridiculous object is improper as well as riſible; and produceth a mixed emotion, which is vented by a laugh of deriſion or ſcorn.

Burleſque, though a great engine of ridicule, is not confined to that ſubject; for it is clearly diſtinguiſhable into burleſque that excites laughter merely, and burleſque that provokes deriſion or ridicule. A grave ſubject in which there is no impropriety, may be brought down by a certain colouring ſo as to be riſible; which is the caſe of *Virgil Traveſtie,* and alſo the caſe of the *Secchia Repita:* the authors laugh firſt, in order to make their readers laugh. The *Lutrin* is a burleſque poem of the other ſort, laying hold of a low and trifling incident, to expoſe the luxury, indolence, and contentious ſpirit of a ſet of monks. Boileau, the author, gives a ridiculous air to the ſubject, by dreſſing it in the heroic ſtyle, and affecting to conſider it as of the utmoſt dignity and importance. In a compoſition of this kind, no image profeſſedly ludicrous ought to find quarter, becauſe ſuch images deſtroy the contraſt; and accordingly the author ſhows always the grave face, and never once betrays a ſmile. Ridicule. *Elements of Criticiſm.*

Though the burleſque that aims at ridicule produces its effects by elevating the ſtyle far above the ſubject, yet it has limits beyond which the elevation ought not to be carried: the poet, conſulting the imagination of his readers, ought to confine himſelf to ſuch images as are lively and readily apprehended: a ſtrained elevation, ſoaring above an ordinary reach of fancy, makes not a pleaſant impreſſion: the reader, fatigued with being always upon the ſtretch, is ſoon diſguſted; and, if he perſevere, becomes thoughtleſs and indifferent. Further, a fiction gives no pleaſure unleſs it be painted in colours ſo lively as to produce ſome perception of reality; which never can be done effectually where the images are formed with labour or difficulty. For theſe reaſons, we cannot avoid condemning the *Batrachomuomachia,* faid to be the compoſition of Homer: it is beyond the power of imagination to form a clear and lively image of frogs and mice, acting with the dignity of the higheſt of our ſpecies; nor can we form a conception of the reality of ſuch an action, in any manner ſo diſtinct as to intereſt our affections even in the ſlighteſt degree.

The *Rape of the Lock* is of a character clearly diſtinguiſhable from thoſe now mentioned; it is not properly a burleſque performance, but what may rather be termed *an heroi-comical poem:* it treats a gay and familiar ſubject with pleaſantry, and with a moderate degree of dignity: the author puts not on a maſk like Boileau, nor profeſſes to make us laugh like Taſſoni. The *Rape of the Lock* is a genteel ſpecies of writing, leſs ſtrained than thoſe mentioned; and is pleaſant or ludicrous without having ridicule for its chief aim; giving way however to ridicule where it ariſes naturally from a particular character, ſuch as that of Sir Plume. Addiſon's *Spectator* * upon the exerciſe of the fan is extremely gay and ludicrous, reſembling in its ſubject the *Rape of the Lock.* * N° 102.

There remains to ſhow, by examples, the manner of treating ſubjects ſo as to give them a ridiculous appearance.

Il ne dit jamais, je vous donne, mais, je vous prete le bon jour. *Moliere.*

Orleans. I know him to be valiant.

Conſtable. I was told that by one that knows him better than you.

Orleans. What's he?

Conſtable. Marry, he told me ſo himſelf; and he ſaid, he car'd not who knew it. *Henry V. Shakeſpear.*

He

Ridicule. He never broke any man's head but his own, and that was against a post when he was drunk. *Ibid.*

Millamant. Sententious Mirabel! prithee don't look with that violent and inflexible wise face, like Solomon at the dividing of the child in an old tapestry-hanging. *Way of the World.*

A true critic, in the perusal of a book, is like a dog at a feast, whose thoughts and stomach are wholly set upon what the guests fling away, and consequently is apt to snarl most when there are the fewest bones. *Tale of a Tub.*

In the following instances, the ridicule arises from absurd conceptions in the persons introduced.

Moscarille. Te souvient-il, vicomte, de cette demilune, que nous emportâmes sur les ennemis au siege d'Arras?

Jodelet. Que veux-tu dire avec ta demi-lune? c'etoit bien une lune tout entiere.

Moliere, les Precieuses Ridicules, sc. 11.

Slender. I came yonder at Eaton to marry Mrs Anne Page; and she's a great lubberly boy.

Page. Upon my life then you took the wrong.

Slender. What need you tell me that? I think so when I took a boy for a girl: if I had been marry'd to him, for all he was in woman's apparel, I would not have had him. *Merry Wives of Windsor.*

Valentine. Your blessing, Sir.

Sir Sampson. You've had it already, Sir: I think I sent it you to-day in a bill for four thousand pound; a great deal of money, Brother Foresight.

Foresight. Ay indeed, Sir Sampson, a great deal of money for a young man; I wonder what can he do with it. *Love for Love,* act 2. sc. 7.

Millamant. I nauseate walking; 'tis a country diversion; I lothe the country, and every thing that relates to it.

Sir Wilful. Indeed? hah! look ye, look ye, you do? nay, 'tis like you may——here are choice of pastimes here in town, as plays and the like; that must be confess'd indeed.

Millamant. Ah l'etourdie! I hate the town too.

Sir Wilful. Dear heart, that's much——hah! that you should hate 'em both! hah! 'tis like you may; there are some can't relish the town, and others can't away with the country——'tis like you may be one of these, Cousin. *Way of the World,* act. 4. sc. 4.

Lord Froth. I assure you, Sir Paul, I laugh at nobody's jests but my own, or a lady's: I assure you, Sir Paul.

Brisk. How? how, my Lord? what, affront my wit? Let me perish, do I never say any thing worthy to be laugh'd at?

Lord Froth. O foy, don't misapprehend me, I don't say so, for I often smile at your conceptions. But there is nothing more unbecoming a man of quality, than to laugh; 'tis such a vulgar expression of the passion! every body can laugh. Then especially to laugh at the jest of an inferior person, or when any body else of the same quality does not laugh with one; ridiculous! To be pleas'd with what pleases the crowd! Now, when I laugh I always laugh alone.

Double Dealer, act. 1. sc. 4.

So sharp-sighted is pride in blemishes, and so willing to be gratified, that it takes up with the very slightest improprieties; such as a blunder by a foreigner in speaking our language, especially if the blunder can bear a sense that reflects on the speaker: Ridicule.

Quickly. The young man is an honest man.

Caius. What shall de honest man do in my closet? dere is no honest man dat shall come in my closet. *Merry Wives of Windsor.*

Love-speeches are finely ridiculed in the following passage.

Quoth he, My faith as adamantine,
As chains of destiny, I'll maintain;
True as Apollo ever spoke,
Or oracle from heart of oak;
And if you'll give my flame but vent,
Now in close hugger mugger pent,
And shine upon me but benignly,
With that one and that other pigsney,
The sun and day shall sooner part,
Than love, or you, shake off my heart;
The sun, that shall no more dispense
His own, but your bright influence:
I'll carve your name on barks of trees,
With true love-knots and flourishes;
That shall infuse eternal spring,
And everlasting flourishing:
Drink ev'ry letter on't in stum,
And make it brisk champaign become.
Where-e'er you tread, your foot shall set
The primrose and the violet;
All spices, perfumes, and sweet powders,
Shall borrow from your breath their odours;
Nature her charter shall renew
And take all lives of things from you;
The world depend upon your eye,
And, when you frown upon it, die.
Only our loves shall still survive,
New worlds and natures to out-live;
And, like to herald's moons, remain
All crescents, without change or wane.

Hudibras, part 2. *canto* 1.

Those who have a talent for ridicule, which is seldom united with a taste for delicate and refined beauties, are quick-sighted in improprieties; and these they eagerly grasp, in order to gratify their favourite propensity. Persons galled are provoked to maintain, that ridicule is improper for grave subjects. Subjects really grave, are by no means fit for ridicule; but then it is urged against them, that, when called in question whether a certain subject be really grave, ridicule is the only means of determining the controversy. Hence a celebrated question, Whether ridicule be or be not a test of truth?

On one side, it is observed, that the objects of ridicule are falsehood, incongruity, impropriety, or turpitude of certain kinds: but as the object of every excited passion must be examined by reason, before we can determine whether it be proper or improper; so ridicule must, apparently at least, establish the truth of the improprieties designed to excite the passion of contempt. Hence, it comes in to the aid of argument and reason, when its impressions on the imagination are consistent with the nature of things; but when it strikes the fancy and affections with

Ridicule, Riding.

with fictitious images, it becomes the instrument of deceit. But however ridicule may impress the idea of apparent turpitude, or falsehood, in the imagination, yet still reason remains the supreme judge; and thus ridicule can never be the final test or touchstone of truth and falsehood.

On the other side, it is contended that ridicule is not a subject of reasoning, but of sense or taste; (see and compare the articles RISIBLE and CONGRUITY *and Propriety*). Stating the question, then, in more accurate terms, Whether the sense of ridicule be the proper test for distinguishing ridiculous objects from what are not so? they proceed thus. No person doubts that our sense of beauty is the true test of what is beautiful; and our sense of grandeur, of what is great or sublime. Is it more doubtful whether our sense of ridicule be the true test of what is ridiculous? It is not only the true test, but indeed the only test; for this subject comes not, more than beauty or grandeur, under the province of reason. If any subject, by the influence of fashion or custom, have acquired a degree of veneration to which naturally it is not entitled, what are the proper means for wiping off the artificial colouring, and displaying the subject in its true light? A man of true taste sees the subject without disguise; but if he hesitate, let him apply the test of ridicule, which separates it from its artificial connections, and exposes it naked with all its native improprieties.—But it is urged, that the gravest and most serious matters may be set in a ridiculous light. Hardly so; for where an object is neither risible nor improper, it lies not open in any quarter to an attack from ridicule.

RIDING, in general, signifies the being carried along on any vehicle.

RIDING on horseback. See HORSEMANSHIP.

RIDING, in medicine. During this exercise all the viscera are shaken, and pressed against each other; at the same time the pure air acts with a greater force on the lungs. Weakly persons, or those whose stomachs are infirm, should, however, be cautious of riding before their meals are somewhat digested.

RIDING, in naval affairs, is the state of a ship's being retained in a particular station, by means of one or more cables with their anchors, which are for this purpose sunk into the bottom of the sea, &c. in order to prevent the vessel from being driven at the mercy of the wind or current.—A rope is said to *ride*, when one of the turns by which it is wound about the capstern or windlass lies over another, so as to interrupt the operation of heaving.

RIDING *Athwart*, the position of a ship which lies across the direction of the wind and tide, when the former is so strong as to prevent her from falling into the current of the latter.

RIDING *between the Wind and Tide*, the situation of a vessel at anchor, when the wind and tide act upon her in direct opposition, in such a manner as to destroy the effort of each other upon her hull; so that she is in a manner balanced between their reciprocal force, and rides without the least strain on her cables. When a ship does not labour heavily, or feel a great strain when anchored in an open road or bay, she is said to ride easy. On the contrary, when she pitches violently into the sea, so as to strain her cables, masts, or hull, it is called *riding hard*, and the vessel is termed a *bad roader*. A ship is rarely said to *ride* when she is fastened at both the ends, as in a harbour or river, that situation being comprehended in the article MOORING.

Riding.

RIDING, a district visited by an officer.—Yorkshire is divided into three ridings, viz. the east, west, and north ridings. In all indictments in that county, both the town and riding must be expressed.

RIDING, as connected with gardening, and susceptible of embellishment. See GARDENING, n° 62.

A riding, though in extent differing so widely from a garden, yet agrees with it in many particulars: for, exclusive of that community of character which results from their being both improvements, and both destined to pleasure, a closer relation arises from the property of a riding, *to extend the idea of a seat*, and appropriate a whole country to the mansion; for which purpose it must be distinguished from common roads, and the marks of distinction must be borrowed from a garden. Those which a farm or a park can supply are faint and few; but whenever circumstances belonging to a garden occur, they are immediately received as evidence of the domain. The species of the trees will often be decisive: plantations of firs, whether placed on the sides of the way, or in clumps or woods in the view, denote the neighbourhood of a seat: even limes and horse-chestnuts are not indifferent; for they have always been frequent in improvements, and rare in the ordinary scenes of cultivated nature. If the riding be carried through a wood, the shrubs, which for their beauty or their fragrance have been transplanted from the country into gardens, such as the sweet-briar, the viburnum, the euonymus, and the wood-bine, should be encouraged in the underwood; and to these may be added several which are still peculiar to shrubberies, but which might easily be transferred to the wildest coverts, and would require no further care.

Observations on Modern Gardening p. 227, &c.

Decorations of a riding.

Where the species are not, the disposition may be particular, and any appearance of design is a mark of improvement. A few trees standing out from a hedge-row, raise it to an elegance above common rusticity: and still more may be done by clumps in a field; they give it the air of a park. A close lane may be decorated with plantations in all the little vacant spaces: and even the groupes originally on the spot, (whether it be a wood, a field, or a lane), if properly selected, and those only left which are elegant, will have an effect: though every beauty of this kind may be found in nature, yet many of them are seldom seen together, and never unmixed. The number and the choice are symptoms of design.

Another symptom is variety. If the appendages of the riding be different in different fields, if in a lane, or a wood, some distinguishing circumstance be provided for every bend; or when, carried over an open exposure, it winds to several points of view; if this be the conduct throughout, the intention is evident; to amuse the length of the way: variety of ground is also a characteristic of a riding, when it seems to have proceeded from choice; and pleasure being the pursuit, the changes of the scene both compensate and account for the circuity.

But a part undistinguished from a common road, succeeding to others more adorned, will by the contrast

Riding. traft alone be fometimes agreeable; and there are beauties frequent in the high-way, and almoft peculiar to it, which may be very acceptable in a riding: a green lane is always delightful; a paffage winding between thickets of brambles and briars, fometimes with, fometimes without a little fpring-wood rifing amongft them, or a cut in a continued fweep through the furze of a down or the fern of a heath, is generally pleafant. Nor will the character be abfolutely loft in the interruption, it will foon be refumed, and never forgotten; when it has been once ftrongly impreffed, very flight means will preferve the idea.

Riding.

Simplicity may prevail the whole length of the way when the way is all naturally pleafant, but efpecially if it be a communication between feveral fpots, which in character are raifed above the reft of the country: A fine open grove is unufual, except in a park or a garden; it has an elegance in the difpofition which cannot be attributed to accident, and it feems to require a degree of prefervation beyond the care of mere husbandry. A neat railing on the edge of a fteep which commands a profpect, alone diftinguifhes that from other points of view. A building is ftill more ftrongly characteriftic: it may be only ornamental, or it may be accommodated to the reception of company; for though a place to alight at interrupts the range of a riding, yet, as the object of an airing, it may often be acceptable. A fmall fpot which may be kept by the labour of one man, enclofed from the fields, and converted into a fhrubbery or any other fcene of a garden, will fometimes be a pleafing end to a fhort excurfion from home: nothing fo effectually extends the idea of a feat to a diftance; and not being conftantly vifited, it will always retain the charms of novelty and variety.

2 Of a village. When a riding is carried along a high road, a kind of property may in appearance be claimed even there, by planting on both fides trees equidiftant from each other, to give it the air of an approach: regularity intimates the neighbourhood of a manfion. A village therefore feems to be within the domaine if any of the inlets to it are avenues; other formal plantations about it, and ftill more trivial circumftances, when they are evidently ornamental, fometimes produce and always corroborate fuch an effect; but even without raifing this idea, if the village be remarkable for its beauty, or only for its fingularity, a paffage through it may be an agreeable incident in a riding.

The fame ground which in the fields is no more than rough, often feems to be romantic when it is the fite of a village; the buildings and other circumftances mark and aggravate the irregularity. To ftrengthen this appearance, one cottage may be placed on the edge of a fteep, and fome winding fteps of unhewn ftone lead up to the door; another in a hollow, with all its little appurtenances hanging above it. The pofition of a few trees will fometimes anfwer the fame purpofe; a foot-bridge here and there for a communication between the fides of a narrow dip, will add to the character; and if there be any rills, they may be conducted fo as greatly to improve it.

A village which has not thefe advantages of ground, may, however, be beautiful; it is diftinguifhed by its elegance, when the larger intervals between the houfes are filled with open groves, and little clumps are introduced upon other occafions. The church often is, it generally may be, made a picturefque object. Even the cottages may be neat, and fometimes grouped with thickets. If the place be watered by a ftream, the croffings may be in a variety of pleafing defigns; and if a fpring rife, or only a well for common ufe be funk by the fide of the way, a little covering over it may be contrived which fhall at the fame time be fimple and pretty.

Riding.

There are few villages which may not eafily be rendered agreeable. A fmall alteration in a houfe will fometimes occafion a great difference in the appearance. By the help of a few trifling plantations, the objects which have a good effect may be fhown to advantage, thofe which have not may be concealed, and fuch as are fimilar be difguifed. And any form which offends the eye, whether of ground, of trees, or of buildings, may fometimes be broken by the flighteft circumftances, by an advanced paling, or only by a bench. Variety and beauty, in fuch a fubject, are rather the effects of attention than expence.

3 Of the buildings defigned for objects in a riding.

But if the paffage through the village cannot be pleafant; if the buildings are all alike, or ftand in unmeaning rows and fimilar fituations; if the place furnifhes no opportunities to contraft the forms of dwellings with thofe of out-houfes; to introduce trees and thickets; to interpofe fields and meadows; to mix farms with cottages; and to place the feveral objects in different pofitions: yet on the outfide even of fuch a village, there certainly is room for wood; and by that alone, the whole may be grouped into a mafs, which fhall be agreeable when fkirted by a riding; and ftill more fo when feen from a diftance. The feparate farms in the fields, alfo, by planting fome trees about them, or perhaps only by managing thofe already on the fpot, may be made very intereffing objects; or if a new one is to be built, beauty may be confulted in the form of the houfe, and the difpofition of its appurtenances. Sometimes a character not their own, as the femblance of a caftle or an abbey, may be given to them; they will thereby acquire a degree of confideration, which they cannot otherwife be entitled to: and objects to improve the views are fo important to a riding, that buildings muft fometimes be erected for that purpofe only; but they fhould be fuch as by an actual effect adorn or dignify the fcene; not thofe little flight deceptions which are too well known to fucceed, and have no merit if they fail: for though a fallacy fometimes contributes to fupport a character, or fuggefts ideas to the imagination, yet in itfelf it may be no improvement of a fcene; and a bit of turret, the tip of a fpire, and the other ordinary fubjects of thefe frivolous attempts, are fo infignificant as objects, that whether they are real or fictitious is almoft a matter of indifference.

4 Of a garden similar in character to a riding.

The fame means by which the profpects from a riding are improved, may be applied to thofe from a garden; though they are not effential to its character, they are important to its beauty; and wherever they abound, the extent only of the range which commands them, determines whether they fhall be feen from a riding or a garden. If they belong to the latter, that affumes in fome degree the predominant properties of the former, and the two characters approach very near to each other: but ftill each has its

Riding. its peculiarities. Progrefs is a prevailing idea in a riding; and the pleafantnefs of the way is, therefore, a principal confideration: but particular fpots are more attended to in a garden; and to them the communications ought to be fubordinate; their direction muft be generally accommodated, their beauties fometimes facrificed to the fituation and the character of the fcenes they lead to; an advantageous approach to thefe muft be preferred to an agreeable line for the walk; and the circumftances which might otherwife become it are mifplaced, if they anticipate the openings; it fhould fometimes be contrafted to them; be retired and dark if they are fplendid or gay, and fimple if they are richly adorned. At other times it may burft unexpectedly out upon them; not on account of the furprize, which can have its effect only once; but the impreffions are ftronger by being fudden; and the contrift is enforced by the quicknefs of the tranfition.

In a riding, the fcenes are only the amufements of of the way, through which it proceeds without ftopping: in a garden they are principal; and the fubordination of the walk raifes their importance. Every art, therefore, fhould be exerted to make them feem parts of the place. Diftant profpects cannot be fo; and the alienation does not offend us; we are familiarized to it; the extent forbids every thought of a clofer connection; and if a continuation be preferved between them and the points which command them, we are fatisfied. But *home-views* fuggeft other ideas; they appear to be within our reach: they are not only beautiful in profpect, and we can perceive that the fpots are delightful; but we wifh to examine, to inhabit, and to enjoy them. Every apparent impediment to that gratification is a difappointment; and when the fcenes begin beyond the opening, the confequence of the place is lowered; nothing within it engages our notice: it is an exhibition only of beauties, the property of which does not belong to it; and that idea, though indifferent in a riding, which is but a paffage, is very difadvantageous to fuch a refidence as a garden. To obviate fuch an idea, the points of view fhould be made important; the objects within be appendages to thofe without; the feparations be removed or concealed; and large portions of the garden be annexed to the fpots which are contiguous to it. The ideal boundary of the place is then carried beyond the fcenes which are thus appropriated to it; and the wide circuit in which they lie, the different pofitions in which they may be fhown, afford a greater variety than can generally be found in any garden, the fcenery of which is confined to the inclofure.

5 Defcription of Perfhield. (A) Perfhield is not a large place; the park contains about three hundred acres; and the houfe ftands in the midft of it. On the fide of the approach, the inequalities of the ground are gentle, and the plantations pretty; but nothing there is great. On the other fide, a beautiful lawn falls precipitately every way into a deep vale which fhelves down the middle; the declivities are diverfified with clumps and with groves; and a number of large trees ftraggle along the bottom. This lawn is encompaffed with wood; and through the wood are walks, which open beyond it upon thofe romantic fcenes which furround the park, and which are the glory of Perfhield. The Wye runs immediately below the wood: the river is of a dirty colour; but the fhape of its courfe is very various, winding firft in the form of a horfe-fhoe, then proceeding in a large fweep to the town of Chepftowe, and afterwards to the Severn. The banks are high hills; in different places fteep, bulging out, or hollow on the fides; rounded, flattened, or irregular at top; and covered with wood, or broken by rocks. They are fometimes feen in front; fometimes in perfpective; falling back for the paffage, or clofing behind the bend of the river; appearing to meet, rifing above, or fhooting out beyond one another. The wood which encloffes the lawn crowns an extenfive range of thefe hills, which overlook all thofe on the oppofite fhore, with the country which appears above or between them; and winding themfelves as the river winds, their fides, all rich and beautiful, are alternately exhibited; and the point of view in one fpot becomes an object to the next. Riding.

In many places the principal feature is a continued rock, in length a quarter of a mile, perpendicular, high, and placed upon a height. To refemble ruins is common to rocks: but no ruin of any fingle ftructure was ever equal to this enormous pile; it feems to be the remains of a city; and other fmaller heaps fcattered about it, appear to be fainter traces of the former extent, and ftrengthen the fimilitude. It ftretches along the brow which terminates the foreft of Dean; the face of it is compofed of immenfe blocks of ftone, but not rugged; the top is bare and uneven, but not carggy; and from the foot of it, a declivity, covered with thicket, flopes gently towards the Wye, but in one part is abruptly broken off by a ledge of rocks, of a different hue, and in a different direction. From the grotto it feems to rife immediately over a thick wood, which extends down a hill below the point of view, acrofs the valley through which the Wye flows, and up the oppofite banks, hides the river, and continues without interruption to the bottom of the rock: from another feat it is feen by itfelf without even its bafe; it faces another, with all its appendages about it; and fometimes the fight of it is partially intercepted by trees, beyond which, at a diftance, its long line continues on through all the openings between them.

Another capital object is the caftle of Chepftowe, a noble ruin of great extent; advanced to the very edge of a perpendicular rock, and fo immediately rivetted into it, that from the top of the battlements down to the river feems but one precipice: the fame ivy which overfpreads the face of the one, twines and clufters among the fragments of the other; many towers, much of the walls, and large remains of the chapel, are ftanding. Clofe to it is a moft romantic wooden bridge, very ancient, very grotefque, at an extraordinary height above the river, and feeming to abut againft the ruins at one end, and fome rocky hills at the other. The caftle is fo near to the alcove at Perfield, that little circumftances in it may be difcerned; from other fpots more diftant, even from the lawn, and from a fhrubbery on the fide of the lawn, it is diftinctly vifible, and always beautiful, whether it is feen alone, or with the bridge, with the town, with more

(A) The feat of Mr Morris, near Chepftowe, in Monmouthfhire.

more or with less of the rich meadows which lie along the banks of the Wye, to its junction three miles off with the Severn. A long sweep of that river also, its red cliffs, and the fine rising country in the counties of Somerset and Gloucester, generally terminate the prospect.

Most of the hills about Persfield are full of rocks; some are intermixed with hanging woods, and either advance a little before them, or retire within them, and are backed, or overhung, or separated by trees. In the walk to the cave, a long succession of them is frequently seen in perspective, all of a dark colour, and with wood in the intervals between them. In other parts the rocks are more wild and uncouth; and sometimes they stand on the tops of the highest hills; at other times down as low as the river; they are home-objects in one spot; and appear only in the back-ground of another.

The woods concur with the rocks to render the scenes of Persfield romantic: the place every where abounds with them; they cover the tops of the hills; they hang on the steeps; or they fill the depths of the valleys. In one place they front, in another they rise above, in another they sink below the point of view: they are seen sometimes retiring beyond each other, and darkening as they recede; and sometimes an opening between two is closed by a third at a distance beyond them. A point, called the *Lover's Leap*, commands a continued surface of the thickest foliage, which overspreads a vast hollow immediately underneath. Below the Chinese seat the course of the Wye is in the shape of a horse-shoe: it is on one side inclosed by a semi-circular hanging wood; the direct steeps of a table-hill shut it in on the other; and the great rock fills the interval between them: in the midst of this rude scene lies the peninsula formed by the river, a mile at the least in length, and in the highest state of cultivation: near the isthmus the ground rises considerably, and thence descends in a broken surface, till it flattens to the water's edge at the other extremity. The whole is divided into corn-fields and pastures; they are separated by hedge-rows, coppices, and thickets; open clumps and single trees stand out in the meadows; and houses and other buildings, which belong to the farms, are scattered amongst them: nature so cultivated, surrounded by nature so wild, compose a most lovely landskip together.

The communications between these several points are generally by close walks; but the covert ends near the Chinese seat; and a path is afterwards conducted through the upper park to a rustic temple, which overlooks on one side some of the romantic views which have been described, and on the other the cultivated hills and valleys of Monmouthshire. To the rude and magnificent scenes of nature now succeeds a pleasant, fertile, and beautiful country, divided into inclosures, not covered with woods, nor broken by rocks and precipices, but only varied by easy swells and gentle declivities. Yet the prospect is not tame: the hills in it are high; and it is bounded by a vast sweep of the Severn, which is here visible for many miles together, and receives in its course the Wye and the Avon.

From the temple a road leads to the Windcliff, an eminence much above the rest, and commanding the whole in one view. The Wye runs at the foot of the hill; the peninsula lies just below; the deep bosom of the semi-circular hanging wood is full in sight; over part of it the great rock appears; all its base, all its accompaniments are seen; the country immediately beyond it is full of lovely hillocks; and the higher grounds in the counties of Somerset and Gloucester rise in the horizon. The Severn seems to be, as it really is, above Chepstowe, three or four miles wide; below the town it spreads almost to a sea; the county of Monmouth is there the hither shore, and between its beautiful hills appear at a great distance the mountains of Brecknock and Glamorganshire. In extent, in variety, and grandeur, few prospects are equal to this. It comprehends all the noble scenes of Persfield, encompassed by some of the finest country in Britain. See GARDENING.

RIDLEY (Nicholas), bishop of London, and a martyr to the reformation, was descended of an ancient family, and born in the beginning of the 16th century, at Wilmontswick in Northumberland. From the grammar-school at Newcastle upon Tyne, he was sent to Pembroke-hall in Cambridge, in the year 1518, where he was supported by his uncle Dr Robert Ridley, fellow of Queen's college. In 1522 he took his first degree in arts; two years after, was elected fellow; and, in 1525, he commenced master of arts. In 1527, having taken orders, he was sent by his uncle, for further improvement, to the Sorbonne at Paris; from thence he went to Louvain, and continued abroad till the year 1529. On his return to Cambridge he was chosen under-treasurer of the university; and, in 1533, was elected senior proctor. He then proceeded bachelor of divinity, and was chosen chaplain of the university, orator, and *magister glomeriæ*. At this time he was much admired as a preacher and disputant. He lost his kind uncle in 1536; but was soon after patronised by Dr Cranmer archbishop of Canterbury, who made him his domestic chaplain, and presented him to the vicarage of Herne in East Kent; where, we are told, he preached the doctrine of the Reformation. In 1540, having commenced doctor of divinity, he was made king's chaplain; and, in the same year, was elected master of his college in Cambridge. Soon after, Ridley was collated to a prebend in the church of Canterbury; and it was not long before he was accused in the bishop's court, at the instigation of bishop Gardiner, of preaching against the doctrine of the Six Articles. The matter being referred to Cranmer, Ridley was acquitted. In 1545, he was made a prebendary of Westminster abbey; in 1547 was presented, by the fellows of Pembroke-hall, to the living of Soham, in the diocese of Norwich; and the same year was consecrated bishop of Rochester. In 1550 he was translated to the see of London; in which year he was one of the commissioners for examining bishop Gardiner, and concurred in his deprivation. In the year 1552, our prelate returning from Cambridge, unfortunately for himself, paid a visit to the princess, afterwards queen Mary; to whom, prompted by his zeal for reformation, he expressed himself with too much freedom: for she was scarcely seated on the throne, when Ridley was doomed a victim to her revenge. With Cranmer and Latimer, he was burnt alive at Oxford, on the 16th of October 1555.

Rifle || Right.

1555. He wrote, 1. A treatise concerning images in churches. 2. Brief declaration of the Lord's Supper. 3. Certain godly and comfortable conferences between bishop Ridley and Mr Hugh Latimer, during their imprisonment. 4. A comparison between the comfortable doctrine of the Gospel, and the traditions of the Popish religion; and other works.

RIFLE, in gunnery. See GUNNERY, n° 36, *et seq.*

RIGA, a large, strong, populous, and rich town of the Russian empire, and capital of Livonia. It is a large trading place, and has a very considerable fortress; the trade is chiefly in corn, skins, leather, and naval stores. It was taken by the Russians in 1710, after they had blocked it up a long while, during which the inhabitants were afflicted with the plague. The castle is square, and defended by four towers and six bastions; besides which, it has a fine arsenal. The Protestants have still a handsome college here. It is seated on a large plain on the river Dwina, E. Long. 24. 25. N. Lat. 57. 0.

RIGADOON, a gay and brisk dance, borrowed originally from Provence in France, and performed in figure by a man and woman.

RIGGING *of a* SHIP, a general name given to all the ropes employed to support the masts, and to extend or reduce the sails, or arrange them to the disposition of the wind. The former, which are used to sustain the masts, remain usually in a fixed position, and are called *standing rigging;* such are the shrouds, stays, and back-stays. The latter, whose office is to manage the sails, by communicating with various blocks or pullies, situated in different places of the masts, yards, shrouds, &c. are comprehended in the general term of *running-rigging;* such are the braces, sheets, haliards, clue-lines, brails, &c.

In rigging a mast, the first thing usually fixed upon its head is a circular wreath or rope, called the *gromet*, or *collar*, which is firmly beat down upon the top of the hounds. The intent of this is to prevent the shrouds from being fretted or worn by the trestle-trees, or shoulders of the mast; after this are laid on the two pendants, from whose lower ends the main or fore tackles are suspended; and next, the shrouds of the starboard and larboard side, in pairs, alternately. The whole is covered by the stays, which are the largest ropes of the rigging.—When a yard is to be rigged, a gromet is also driven first on each of its extremities; next to this are fitted-on the horses, the braces, and lastly the lifts or top-sail sheet-blocks.

The principal objects to be considered in rigging a ship, appear to be strength, convenience, and simplicity: or, the properties of affording sufficient security to the masts, yards, and sails; of arranging the whole machinery in the most advantageous manner, to sustain the masts, and facilitate the management of the sails; and of avoiding perplexity, and rejecting whatever is superfluous or unnecessary. The perfection of this art, then, consists in retaining all those qualities, and in preserving a judicious medium between them.

RIGHT, in geometry, signifies the same with straight; thus, a straight line is called a *right* one.

RIGHT, in law, not only denotes property, for which a writ of right lies; but also any title or claim, either by virtue of a condition, mortgage, &c. for which no action is given by law, but an entry only.

RIGHT, or *Rectitude*. See RECTITUDE.

RIGHT is also a title conferred, 1. Upon all bishops. 2. Together with *Honourable*, upon earls, viscounts, and barons. 3. By courtesy, together with *Honourable*, upon the sons of dukes, marquises, and the eldest sons of earls. 4. Together with *Honourable*, to the speaker of the house of commons: but to no commoner excepting those who are members of his majesty's most honourable privy-council; and the three lord mayors of London, York, and Dublin, and the lord provost of Edinburgh, during their office. See HONOURABLE.

Hereditary RIGHT. See HEREDITARY.

RIGHTS *and Liberties*. See the article LIBERTY.—Our rights, it was there observed in general, may be reduced to these principal articles; the right of personal security, the right of personal liberty, and the right of private property; the consideration of which was referred to this place.

I. The right of personal security consists in a person's legal and uninterrupted enjoyment of his life, his limbs, his body, his health, and his reputation.

1. Life is the immediate gift of God, a right inherent by nature in every individual; and it begins, in contemplation of law, as soon as an infant is able to stir in the mother's womb. For if a woman is quick with child, and by a potion or otherwise killeth it in her womb; or if any one beat her, whereby the child dieth in her body, and she is delivered of a dead child; this, though not murder, was by the ancient law homicide or manslaughter. But Sir Edward Coke doth not look upon this offence in quite so atrocious a light, but merely as a heinous misdmeanour. *Blackst. Comment.*

An infant *in ventre sa mere*, or in the mother's womb, is supposed in law to be born for many purposes. It is capable of having a legacy, or a surrender of a copyhold estate made to it. It may have a guardian assigned to it; and it is enabled to have an estate limited to its use, and to take afterwards by such limitation, as if it were then actually born. And in this point the civil law agrees with ours.

2. A man's limbs, (by which for the present we only understand those members which may be useful to him in fight, and the loss of which alone amounts to MAYHEM by the common law), are also the gift of the wise Creator, to enable man to protect himself from external injuries in a state of nature. To these, therefore, he has a natural inherent right; and they cannot be wantonly destroyed or disabled without a manifest breach of civil liberty.

Both the life and limbs of a man are of such high value, in the estimation of the law of England, that it pardons even homicide if committed *se defendendo*, or in order to preserve them. For whatever is done by a man, to save either life or member, is looked upon as done upon the highest necessity and compulsion. Therefore if a man, through fear of death or mayhem, is prevailed upon to execute a deed, or do any other legal act; these, though accompanied with all other the requisite solemnities, may be afterwards avoided, if forced upon him by a well-grounded apprehension of losing his life, or even his limbs, in case of his non-compliance. And the same is also a sufficient excuse for the commission of many misdemeanours. The constraint

Right. a man under in these circumstances is called in law *duress*, from the Latin *duities*, of which there are two sorts; duress of imprisonment, where a man actually loses his liberty, of which we shall presently speak; and duress *per minas*, where the hardship is only threatened and impending, which is that we are now discoursing of. Duress *per minas* is either for fear of loss of life, or else for fear of mayhem or lose of limb. And this fear must be upon sufficient reason; *non*, as Bracton expresses it, *suspicio cujuslibet vani et meticulosi hominis, sed talis qui possit cadere in virum constantem; talis enim debet esse metus, qui in se contineat vitæ periculum, aut corporis cruciatum.* A fear of battery, or being beaten, though ever so well-grounded, is no duress; neither is the fear of having one's house burned, or one's goods taken away and destroyed; because in these cases, should the threat be performed, a man may have satisfaction by recovering equivalent damages: but no suitable atonement can be made for the loss of life, or limb. And the indulgence shown to a man under this the principal sort of duress, the fear of losing life or limbs, agrees also with that maxim of the civil law; *ignoscitur ei qui sanguinem suum qualiter redemptum voluit.*

Blackst. Comment.

The law not only regards life and member, and protects every man in the enjoyment of them, but also furnishes him with every thing necessary for their support. For there is no man so indigent or wretched, but he may demand a supply sufficient for all the necessities of life from the more opulent part of the community, by means of the several statutes enacted for the relief of the poor. A humane provision; yet, though dictated by the principles of society, discountenanced by the Roman laws. For the edicts of the emperor Constantine commanding the public to maintain the children of those who were unable to provide for them, in order to prevent the murder and exposure of infants, an institution founded on the same principle as our foundling-hospitals, though comprised in the Theodosian code, were rejected in Justinian's collection.

These rights, of life and member, can only be determined by the death of the person; which is either a civil or natural death. The civil death commences, if any man be banished the realm by the process of the common law; or enters into religion; that is, goes into a monastery, and becomes there a monk professed: in which cases, he is absolutely dead in law, and his next heir shall have his estate. For, such banished man is entirely cut off from society; and such a monk, upon his profession, renounces solemnly all secular concerns: and besides, as the Popish clergy claimed an exemption from the duties of civil life and the commands of the temporal magistrate, the genius of the English law would not suffer those persons to enjoy the benefits of society, who secluded themselves from it, and refused to submit to its regulation. A monk was therefore accounted *civiliter mortuus;* and when he entered into religion might, like other dying men, make his testament and executors; or, if he made none, the ordinary might grant administration to his next of kin, as if he were actually dead intestate. And such executors and administrators had the same power, and might bring the same actions for debts due to the religious, and were liable to the same actions for those due from him, as if he were naturally deceased. Nay, so far has this principle been carried, that when one was bound in a bond to an abbot and his successors, and afterwards made his executors, and professed himself a monk of the same abbey, and in process of time was himself made abbot thereof; here the law gave him, in the capacity of abbot, an action of debt against his own executors to recover the money due. In short, a monk or religious was so effectually dead in law, that a lease made even to a third person, during the life (generally) of one who afterwards became a monk, determined by such his entry into religion: for which reason leases, and other conveyances, for life, are usually made to have and to hold for the term of one's natural life. But, even in the time of Popery, the law of England took no cognizance of profession in any foreign country, because the fact could not be tried in our courts; and therefore, since the Reformation, the disability is held to be abolished.

Right.

The natural life being, as was before observed, the immediate donation of the great Creator, cannot legally be disposed of or destroyed by any individual, neither by the person himself nor by any other of his fellow-creatures, merely upon their own authority. Yet nevertheless it may, by the divine permission, be frequently forefeited for the breach of those laws of society, which are enforced by the sanction of capital punishment; the nature, restrictions, expedience, and legality of which has been considered under the article CRIME *and Punishment.* Here it shall only be observed, that whenever the constitution of a state vests in any man, or body of men, a power of destroying at pleasure, without the direction of laws, the lives or members of the subject, such constitution is in the highest degree tyrannical: and that whenever any laws direct such destruction for light and trivial causes, such laws are likewise tyrannical, though in an inferior degree; because here the subject is aware of the danger he is exposed to, and may by prudent caution provide against it. The statute law of England does therefore very seldom, and the common law does never, inflict any punishment extending to life or limb, unless upon the highest necessity: and the constitution is an utter stranger to any arbitrary power of killing or maiming the subject without the express warrant of law. *Nullus liber bono,* says the great charter, *aliquo modo destruatur, nisi per legale judicium parium suorum aut per legem terræ.* Which words, *aliquo modo destruatur,* according to Sir Edward Coke, includes a prohibition not only of killing, and maiming, but also of torturing (to which our laws are strangers) and of every oppression, by colour of a legal authority. And it is enacted by the statute 5 Edw. III. c. 9. that no man shall be forejudged of life or limb, contrary to the great charter and the law of the land: and again, by statute 28 Edw. III. c. 3. that no man shall be put to death, without being brought to answer by due process of law.

3. Besides those limbs and members that may be necessary to a man, in order to defend himself or annoy his enemy, the rest of his person or body is also entitled, by the same natural right, to security from the corporal insults of menaces, assaults, beating and wounding;

wounding; though such insults amount not to destruction of life or member.

4. The preservation of a man's health from such practices as may prejudice or annoy it, and

5. The security of his reputation or good name from the arts of detraction and slander, are rights to which every man is entitled, by reason and natural justice; since without these it is impossible to have the perfect enjoyment of any other advantage or right.

II. Next to personal security, the law of England regards, asserts, and preserves, the personal liberty of individuals. This personal liberty consists in the power of loco-motion, of changing situation, or removing one's person to whatsoever place one's own inclination may direct; without imprisonment or restraint, unless by due course of law. Concerning which we may make the same observations as upon the preceding article: that it is a right strictly natural; that the laws of England have never abridged it without sufficient cause; and that in this kingdom it cannot ever be abridged at the mere discretion of the magistrate, without the explicit permission of the laws. Here again the language of the charter is, that no freemen shall be taken or imprisoned, but by the lawful judgment of his equals, or by the law of the land. And many subsequent old statutes expressly direct, that no man shall be taken or imprisoned by suggestion or petition to the king or his council, unless it be by legal indictment, or the process of the common law. By the petition of right, 3 Car. I. it is enacted, that no freeman shall be imprisoned or detained without cause shown, to which he may make answer according to law. By 16 Car. I. c. 10. if any person be restrained of his liberty by order or decree of any illegal court, or by command of the king's majesty in person, or by warrant of the council-board, or of any of the privy-council; he shall, upon demand of his council, have a writ of *habeas corpus*, to bring his body before the court of king's bench or common pleas; who shall determine whether the cause of his commitment be just, and thereupon do as to justice shall appertain. And by 31 Car. II. c. 2. commonly called the *habeas corpus act*, the methods of obtaining this writ are so plainly pointed out and enforced, that, so long as this statute remains unimpeached, no subject of England can be long detained in prison, except in those cases in which the law requires and justifies such detainer. And, lest this act should be evaded by demanding unreasonable bail, or sureties for the prisoner's appearance, it is declared by 1 W. & M. st. 2. c. 2. that excessive bail ought not to be required.

Of great importance to the public is the preservation of this personal liberty: for if once it were left in the power of any, the highest, magistrate, to imprison arbitrarily whomever he or his officers thought proper, (as in France it is daily practised by the crown), there would soon be an end of all other rights and immunities. Some have thought, that unjust attacks, even upon life or property, at the arbitrary will of the magistrate, are less dangerous to the commonwealth, than such as are made upon the personal liberty of the subject. To bereave a man of life, or by violence to confiscate his estate, without accusation or trial, would be so gross and notorious an act of despotism, as must at once convey the alarm of tyranny throughout the whole kingdom. But confinement of the person, by secretly hurrying him to goal, where his sufferings are unknown or forgotten, is a less public, a less striking, and therefore a more dangerous engine of arbitrary government. And yet sometimes, when the state is in real danger, even this may be a necessary measure. But the happiness of our constitution is, that it is not left to the executive power to determine when the danger of the state is so great, as to render this measure expedient. For the parliament only, or legislative power, whenever it sees proper, can authorize the crown, by suspending the *habeas corpus* act for a short and limited time, to imprison suspected persons without giving any reason for so doing: As the senate of Rome was wont to have recourse to a dictator, a magistrate of absolute authority, when they judged the republic in any imminent danger. The decree of the senate, which usually preceded the nomination of this magistrate, *Dent operam consules, ne quid respublica detrimenti capiat*, was called the *senatus consultum ultimæ necessitatis*. In like manner this experiment ought only to be tried in cases of extreme emergency; and in these the nation parts with its liberty for a while, in order to preserve it for ever.

The confinement of the person, in any wise, is an imprisonment. So that the keeping a man against his will in a private house, putting him in the stocks, arresting or forcibly detaining him in the street, is an imprisonment. And the law so much discourages unlawful confinement, that if a man is under *duress of imprisonment*, by which is meant a compulsion by an illegal restraint of liberty, until he seals a bond or the like; he may allege this duress, and avoid the extorted bond. But if a man be lawfully imprisoned, and either to procure his discharge, or on any other fair account, seals a bond or a deed, this is not by duress of imprisonment, and he is not at liberty to avoid it. To make imprisonment lawful, it must either be by process from the courts of judicature, or by warrant from some legal officer having authority to commit to prison; which warrant must be in writing, under the hand and seal of the magistrate, and express the causes of the commitment, in order to be examined into (if necessary) upon a *habeas corpus*. If there be no cause expressed, the gaoler is not bound to detain the prisoner. For the law judges in this respect, saith Sir Edward Coke, like Festus the Roman governor; that it is unreasonable to send a prisoner, and not to signify withal the crimes alleged against him.

A natural and regular consequence of this personal liberty, is, that every Briton may claim a right to abide in his own country so long as he pleases; and not to be driven from it unless by the sentence of the law. The king indeed, by his royal prerogative, may issue out his writ *ne exeat regnum*, and prohibit any of his subjects from going into foreign parts without license. This may be necessary for the public service and safeguard of the commonwealth. But no power on earth, except the authority of parliament, can send any subject of Britain *out of* the land against his will; no, not even a criminal. For exile, or transportation, is a punishment unknown to the common law; and, wherever it is now inflicted, it is either by the choice of the criminal himself to escape a capital punishment,

Right. or else by the express direction of some modern act of parliament. To this purpose the great charter declares, that no freeman shall be banished, unless by the judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land. And by the *habeas corpus* act, 31 Car. II. c. 2. (that second *magna carta*, and stable bulwark of our liberties) it is enacted, that no subject of this realm, who is an inhabitant of England, Wales, or Berwick, shall be sent prisoner into Scotland, Ireland, Jersey, Guernsey, or places beyond the seas, (where they cannot have the protection of the common law); but that all such imprisonments shall be illegal; that the person who shall dare to commit another contrary to this law, shall be disabled from bearing any office, shall incur the penalty of a *præmunire*, and be incapable of receiving the king's pardon: and the party suffering shall also have his private action against the person committing, and all his aiders, advisers, and abettors, and shall recover triple costs; besides his damages, which no jury shall assess at less than 500 pounds.

The law is in this respect so benignly and liberally construed for the benefit of the subject, that though within the realm the king may command the attendance and service of all his liegemen, yet he cannot send any man out of the realm, even upon the public service; excepting sailors and soldiers, the nature of whose employment necessarily implies an exception: he cannot even constitute a man lord deputy or lieutenant of Ireland against his will, nor make him a foreign ambassador. For this might in reality be no more than an honourable exile.

III. The third absolute right inherent in every Briton, is that of property: which consists in the free use, enjoyment, and disposal of all acquisitions, without any controul or diminution, save only by the laws of the land. The original of private property is probably founded in nature, as is more fully explained under the article PROPERTY: but certainly the modifications under which we at present find it, the method of conserving it in the present owner, and of translating it from man to man, are entirely derived from society; and are some of those civil advantages, in exchange for which every individual has resigned a part of his natural liberty. The laws of England are therefore, in point of honour and justice, extremely watchful in ascertaining and protecting this right. Upon this principle the great charter has declared that no freeman shall be disseised, or divested of his freehold, or of his liberties, or free customs, but by the judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land. And by a variety of ancient statutes it is enacted, that no man's lands or goods shall be seised into the king's hands, against the great charter, and the law of the land; and that no man shall be disinherited, nor put out of his franchises or freehold, unless he be duly brought to answer, and be forejudged by course of law; and if any thing be done to the contrary, it shall be redressed, and holden for none.

So great, moreover, is the regard of the law for private property, that it will not authorize the least violation of it; not, not even for the general good of the whole community. If a new road, for instance, were to be made through the grounds of a private person, it might perhaps be extensively beneficial to the public; but the law permits no man, or set of men, to do this without consent of the owner of the land. In vain may it be urged, that the good of the individual ought to yield to that of the community; for it would be dangerous to allow any private man, or even any public tribunal, to be the judge of this common good, and to decide whether it be expedient or no. Besides, the public good is in nothing more essentially interested, than in the protection of every individual's private rights, as modelled by the municipal law. In this and similar cases the legislature alone can, and indeed frequently does interpose, and compel the individual to acquiesce. But how does it interpose and compel? Not by absolutely stripping the subject of his property in an arbitrary manner; but by giving him a full indemnification and equivalent for the injury thereby sustained. The public is now considered as an individual treating with an individual for an exchange. All that the legislature does is to oblige the owner to alienate his possessions for a reasonable price; and even this is an exertion of power which the legislature indulges with caution, and which nothing but the legislature can perform. Right || Rimini.

Nor is this the only instance in which the law of the land has postponed even public necessity to the sacred and inviolable rights of private property. For no subject of Britain can be constrained to pay any aids or taxes, even for the defence of the realm or the support of government, but such as are imposed by his own consent, or that of his representatives in parliament. By the statute 25 Edw. I. c. 5. and 6. it is provided, that the king shall not take any aids or tasks, but by the common assent of the realm. And what that common assent is, is more fully explained by 34 Ed. I. st. 4. c. 1. which enacts, that no talliage or aid shall be taken without the assent of the archbishops, bishops, earls, barons, knights, burgesses, and other freemen of the land: and again, by 14 Edw. III. st. 2. c. 1. the prelates, earls, barons, and commons, citizens, burgesses, and merchants, shall not be charged to make any aid, if it be not by the common assent of the great men and commons in parliament. And as this fundamental law had been shamefully evaded under many succeeding princes, by compulsive loans, and benevolences extorted without a real and voluntary consent, it was made an article in the petition of right 3 Car. I. that no man shall be compelled to yield any gift, loan, or benevolence, tax, or such like charge, without common consent by act of parliament. And, lastly, by the statute 1 W. & M. st. 2. c. 2. it is declared, that levying money for or to the use of the crown, by pretence of prerogative, without grant of parliament, or for longer time or in other manner than the same is or shall be granted, is illegal.

RIGIDITY, in physics, denotes a brittle hardness. It is opposed to ductility, malleability, and softness.

RIGOR, in medicine, a convulsive shuddering from severe cold, an ague fit, or other disorder.

RIMINI, an ancient, populous, and handsome town of Italy, in Romagna, which is part of the territory of the church, with a bishop's see, an old castle, and a strong tower; as also many remains of antiquity, and very fine buildings. It is famous for a council in 1359, consisting of 400 bishops, who were all Arians except 20. It is seated in a fertile plain, at the mouth of the river Marecchia, on the gulph of Venice. E. Long. 12. 39. N. Lat. 44. 6.

Rind || Riot.

RIND, the ſkin of any fruit that may be cut off or pared. Rind is alſo uſed for the inner bark of trees, or that whitiſh ſoft ſubſtance which adheres immediately to the wood. See PLANT, p. 6203.

RING, an ornament of gold and ſilver, of a circular figure, and uſually worn on the finger.

RING-*Bone*. See FARRIERY, § xxviii.

RING-*Ouzel*, in ornithology, a ſpecies of TURDUS.

RIO-GRANDE, a river of Africa, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Negroland, and falls into the Atlantic ocean, in 11 degrees of latitude. Some take it to be a branch of the Niger, of which there is not the leaſt proof.

RIO-*Grande*, a river of South America, in Braſil, which has its ſource in an unknown country: it croſſes the captainſhip of Rio-Grande, and falls into the ſea at Natal los Reyes.

RIO-*Janeiro*, a river of South America, which riſes in the mountains weſt of Braſil, and, running eaſt thro' that country, falls into the Atlantic Ocean, in S. Lat. 23. 30. The province of Janeiro is one of the richeſt in Braſil; and produces gold, ſilver, diamonds, and other precious ſtones.

RIOM, a town of France, in Auvergne; ſeated on a hill, in ſo agreeable a country, that it is called the *garden of Auvergne*. E. Long. 3. 12. N. Lat. 45. 51.

RIOT, in law. The riotous aſſembling of 12 perſons, or more, and not diſperſing upon proclamation, was firſt made high treaſon by ſtatute 3 & 4 Edw. VI. c. 5. when the king was a minor, and a change of religion to be effected: but that ſtatute was repealed by ſtatute 1 Mar. c. 1. among the other treaſons created ſince the 25 Edward III.; though the prohibition was in ſubſtance re-enacted, with an inferior degree of puniſhment, by ſtatute 1 Mar. ſt. 2. c. 12. which made the ſame offence a ſingle felony. Theſe ſtatutes ſpecified and particularized the nature of the riots they were meant to ſuppreſs; as, for example, ſuch as were ſet on foot with intention to offer violence to the privy-council, or to change the laws of the kingdom, or for certain other ſpecific purpoſes; in which caſes, if the perſons were commanded by proclamation to diſperſe, and they did not, it was by the ſtatute of Mary made felony, but within the benefit of clergy; and alſo the act indemnified the peace-officers and their aſſiſtants, if they killed any of the mob in endeavouring to ſuppreſs ſuch riot. This was thought a neceſſary ſecurity in that ſanguinary reign, when Popery was intended to be re-eſtabliſhed, which was like to produce great diſcontents: but at firſt it was made only for a year, and was afterwards continued for that queen's life. And, by ſtatute 1 Eliz. c. 16. when a reformation in religion was to be once more attempted, it was revived and continued during her life alſo; and then expired. From the acceſſion of James I. to the death of queen Anne, it was never once thought expedient to revive it; but, in the firſt year of George I. it was judged neceſſary, in order to ſupport the execution of the act of ſettlement, to renew it, and at one ſtroke to make it perpetual, with large additions. For, whereas the former acts expreſsly defined and ſpecified what ſhould be accounted a riot, the ſtatute 1 Geo. I. c. 5. enacts, generally, that if any 12 perſons are unlawfully aſſembled to the diſturbance of the peace, and any one juſtice of the peace, ſheriff, under-ſheriff, or mayor of a town, ſhall think proper to command them by proclamation to diſperſe, if they contemn his orders and continue together for one hour afterwards, ſuch contempt ſhall be felony without benefit of clergy. And farther, if the reading of the proclamation be by force oppoſed, or the reader be in any manner wilfully hindered from the reading of it, ſuch oppoſers and hinderers are felons without benefit of clergy; and all perſons to whom ſuch proclamation *ought to have been made*, and knowing of ſuch hindrance, and not diſperſing, are felons without benefit of clergy. There is the like indemnifying clauſe, in caſe any of the mob be unfortunately killed in the endeavour to diſperſe them; being copied from the act of queen Mary. And by a ſubſequent clauſe of the new act, if any perſon, ſo riotouſly aſſembled, begin even before proclamation to pull down any church, chapel, meeting-houſe, dwelling-houſe, or out-houſes, they ſhall be felons without benefit of clergy.

Riots, routs, and unlawful aſſemblies, muſt have three perſons at leaſt to conſtitute them. An *unlawful aſſembly* is, when three, or more, do aſſemble themſelves together to do an unlawful act, as to pull down incloſures, to deſtroy a warren or the game therein; and part without doing it, or making any motion towards it. A *rout* is where three or more meet to do an unlawful act upon a common quarrel, as forcibly breaking down fences upon a right claimed of common, or of way, and make ſome advances towards it. A *riot* is where three or more actually do an unlawful act of violence, either with or without a common cauſe or quarrel: as if they beat a man; or hunt and kill game in another's park, chaſe, warren, or liberty; or do any other unlawful act with force and violence; or even do a lawful act, as removing a nuſance, in a violent and tumultuous manner. The puniſhment of unlawful aſſemblies, if to the number of 12, we have juſt now ſeen, may be capital, according to the circumſtances that attend it; but, from the number of three to eleven, is by fine and impriſonment only. The ſame is the caſe in riots and routs by the common law; to which the pillory in very enormous caſes has been ſometimes ſuperadded. And by the ſtatute 13 Hen. IV. c. 7. any two juſtices, together with the ſheriff or under-ſheriff of the county, may come with the *poſſe comitatus*, if need be, and ſuppreſs any ſuch riot, aſſembly, or rout, arreſt the rioters, and record upon the ſpot the nature and circumſtances of the whole tranſaction; which record alone ſhall be a ſufficient conviction of the offenders. In the interpretation of which ſtatute it hath been holden, that all perſons, noblemen and others, except women, clergymen, perſons decrepit, and infants under 15, are bound to attend the juſtices in ſuppreſſing a riot, upon pain of fine and impriſonment; and that any battery, wounding, or killing the rioters, that may happen in ſuppreſſing the riot, is juſtifiable. So that our ancient law, previous to the modern riot-act, ſeems pretty well to have guarded againſt any violent breach of the public peace; eſpecially as any riotous aſſembly on a public or general account, as to redreſs grievances or pull down all incloſures, and alſo reſiſting the king's forces if ſent to keep the peace, may amount to overt acts of high treaſon, by levying war againſt the king.

Riot, Ripen.

RIPEN, a town of Denmark, in North Jutland, and

Riphœan, Risible.

and capital of a diocese of the same name, with a bishop's see, a good harbour, a castle, two colleges, and a public library. The tombs of several of the kings of Denmark are in the cathedral church, which is a very handsome structure. The harbour, which has contributed greatly to the prosperity of this place, is at a small distance, being seated at the mouth of the river Nipsaa, in a country which supplies the best beeves in Denmark. It is 45 miles north-west of Slesvick, and 25 south-by-west of Wiburg. E. Long. 8. 94. N. Lat. 55. 25. The diocese is bounded on the north by those of Wiburg and Athuys, on the south by the duchy of Slesvick, and on the east and west by the sea.

RIPHŒAN MOUNTAINS, are a chain of high mountains in Russia, to the north-east of the river Oby, where there are said to be the finest sables of the whole empire.

RISIBLE, any thing capable of exciting laughter. *Ludicrous* is a general term, signifying, as may appear from its derivation, what is playsome, sportive, or jocular. *Ludicrous* therefore seems the genus, of which *risible* is a species, limited as above to what makes us laugh.

However easy it may be, concerning any particular object, to say whether it be risible or not, it seems difficult, if at all practicable, to establish any general character, by which objects of that kind may be distinguished from others. Nor is that a singular case; for, upon a review, we find the same difficulty in most of the articles already handled. There is nothing more easy, viewing a particular object, than to pronounce that it is beautiful or ugly, grand or little: but were we to attempt general rules for ranging objects under different classes according to these qualities, we should be much gravelled. A separate cause increases the difficulty of distinguishing risible objects by a general character: all men are not equally affected by risible objects, nor the same man at all times; for in high spirits a thing will make him laugh outright, which will scarce provoke a smile in a grave mood. Risible objects however are circumscribed within certain limits. No object is risible but what appears slight, little, or trivial; for we laugh at nothing that is of importance to our own interest or to that of others. A real distress raises pity, and therefore cannot be risible; but a slight or imaginary distress, which moves not pity, is risible. The adventure of the fulling-mills in Don Quixote, is extremely risible; so is the scene where Sancho, in a dark night, tumbling into a pit, and attaching himself to the side by hand and foot, hangs there in terrible dismay till the morning, when he discovers himself to be within a foot of the bottom. A nose remarkably long or short, is risible; but to want it altogether, so far from provoking laughter, raises horror in the spectator. With respect to works both of nature and of art, none of them are risible but what are out of rule, some remarkable defect or excess; a very long visage, for example, or a very short one. Hence nothing just, proper, decent, beautiful, proportioned, or grand, is risible.

Even from this sligh sketch it will be readily conjectured, that the emotion raised by a risible object is of a nature so singular, as scarce to find place while the mind is occupied with any other passion or emotion: and the conjecture is verified by experience; for we scarce ever find that emotion blended with any other. One emotion we must except; and that is, contempt raised by certain improprieties: every improper act inspires us with some degree of contempt for the author; and if an improper act be at the same time risible to provoke laughter, of which blunders and absurdities are noted instances, the two emotions of contempt and of laughter unite intimately in the mind, and produce externally what is termed a *laugh of derision* or *of scorn*. Hence objects that cause laughter may be distinguish into two kinds: they are either *risible* or *ridiculous*. A risible object is mirthful only: a ridiculous object is both mirthful and contemptible. The first raises an emotion of laughter that is altogether pleasant: the pleasant emotion of laughter raised by the other, is blended with the painful emotion of contempt; and the mixed emotion is termed *the emotion of ridicule*. The pain a ridiculous object gives me, is resented and punished by a laugh of derision. A risible object, on the other hand, gives me no pain: it is altogether pleasant by a certain sort of titillation, which is expressed externally by mirthful laughter. See RIDICULE.

Risible objects are so common, and so well understood, that it is unnecessary to consume paper or time upon them. Take the few following examples.

Falstaff. I do remember him at Clement's inn, like a man made after supper of a cheese-paring. When he was naked, he was for all the world like a forked radish, with a head fantastically carved upon it with a knife. *Second part, Henry* IV. *act.* 3. *sc.* 5.

The foregoing is of disproportion. The following examples are of slight or imaginary misfortunes.

Falstaff. Go fetch me a quart of sack, put a toast in't. Have I liv'd to be carried in a basket, lik a barrow of butcher's offal, and to be thrown into the Thames! Well, if I be served such another trick, I'll have my brains ta'en out and butter'd, and give them to a dog for a new-year's gift. The rogues slighted me into the river with as little remorse as they would have drown'd a bitch's blind puppies, fifteen i'th'litter; and you may know by my size, that I have a kind of alacrity in sinking: if the bottom were as deep as hell, I should down. I had been drown'd, but that the shore was shelvy and shallow; a death that I abhor: for the water swells a man; and what a thing should I have been when I had been swell'd? I should have been a mountain of mummy.

Merry Wives of Windsor, act 3. *sc.* 15.

Falstaff. Nay, You shall hear, Master Brook, what I have suffer'd to bring this woman to evil for your good. Being thus cramm'd in the basket, a couple of Ford's knaves, his hinds, were call'd forth by their mistress, to carry me in the name of foul cloaths to Datchet-lane. They took me on their shoulders, met the jealous knave their master in the door, who ask'd them once or twice what they had in their basket. I quak'd for fear, lest the lunatic knave would have search'd it; but Fate, ordaining he should be a cuckold, held his hand. Well, on went he for a search, and away went I for foul cloaths. But mark the sequel, Master Brook. I suffer'd the pangs of three egregious deaths: first, an intolerable fright, to be detected by a jealous rotten bell-weather; next, to be com-

compass'd like a good bilbo, in the circumference of a peck, hilt to point, heel to head; and then to be stopt in, like a strong distillation, with stinking cloaths that fretted in their own grease. Think of that, a man of my kidney; think of that, that am as subject to heat as butter; a man of continual dissolution and thaw; it was a miracle to 'scape suffocation. And in the height of this bath, when I was more than half stew'd in grease, like a Dutch dish, to be thrown into the Thames, and cool'd glowing hot, in that surge, like a horse-shoe; think of that; hissing hot; think of that, Master Brook.

Merry Wives of Windsor, act 3. *sc.* 17.

RITE, among divines, denotes the particular manner of celebrating divine service in this or that country.

RITORNELLO, or Repeat, in music, the burden of a song, or the repetition of the first or other verses of a song at the end of each couplet.

RITTERHUSIUS (Conrad), a learned German civilian, born at Brunswick in 1560. He was professor of civil law at Altdorf, and published a variety of works, particularly as a civilian; together with an edition of Oppian in Greek and Latin: he was moreover an excellent critic; his notes upon many eminent authors having been inserted in the best editions of them. He died in 1613.

RITUAL, a book directing the order and manner to be observed in performing divine service in a particular church, diocese, or the like. The ancient heathens had also their rituals, which contained their rites and ceremonies to be observed in building a city, consecrating a temple or altar, in sacrificing, deifying, &c.

RIVAL, a term applied to two or more persons who have the same pretensions; and which is properly applied to a competitor in love, and figuratively to an antagonist in any other pursuit.

RIVER, a current or stream of fresh water flowing in a bed or channel, from its source into the sea. See the article Spring.

The great, as well as the middle-sized rivers, proceed either from a confluence of brooks and rivulets, or from lakes; but no river of considerable magnitude flows from one spring, or one lake, but is augmented by the accession of others. Thus the Wolga receives above 200 rivers and brooks before it discharges itself into the Caspian sea; and the Danube receives no fewer before it enters the Euxine sea. Some rivers are much augmented by frequent rains, or melted snow. In the country of Peru and Chili, there are small rivers that only flow in the day; because they are only fed by the snow upon the mountains of the Andes, which is then melted by the heat of the sun. There are also several rivers upon both sides the extreme parts of Africa, and in India, which for the same reason are greater by day than by night. The rivers also in these places are almost dried up in summer, but swell and overflow their banks in winter or in the wet season. The Wolga in May and June is filled with water, and overflows its shelves and islands, though at other times of the year it is so shallow, as scarcely to afford a passage for loaded ships. The Nile, the Ganges, the Indus, &c. are so much swelled with rain or melted snow, that they overflow their banks; and these deluges happen at different times of the year, because they proceed from various causes. Those that are swelled with rain, are generally highest in winter, because it is usually then more frequent than at other times of the year; but if they proceed from snow, which in some places is melted in the spring, in others in summer, or between both, the deluges of the rivers happen accordingly. Again, some rivers hide themselves under ground, and rise up in other places, as if they were new rivers. Thus the Tigris meeting with mount Taurus, runs under it, and flows out at the other side of the mountain; also, after it has run thro' the lake Tospia, it again immerges, and being carried about 18 miles under ground, breaks out again, &c.

In a memoir of the academy of sciences lately published, we have some curious observations and conjectures concerning the disappearing of rivers, by the abbe Guettard. "It is very surprising, (he observes), if we reflect on it, that a river in its course, which is often very extensive, should not meet with spongious soils to swallow up its waters, or gulphs in which they are lost: nevertheless, as there has been hitherto known but a small number of rivers whose waters thus disappear, this phænomenon has been accounted very extraordinary, both by the ancients and moderns. Pliny speaks of it with an energy familiar to him; and Seneca mentions it in his *Quæstiones Naturales*: he even distinguishes these rivers into two sorts, those that are lost by degrees, and those which are swallowed up all at once or ingulphed; which would make one believe that the ancients had collected some observations concerning them.

But leaving apart what may be wonderful in these rivers, it may be asked, how they are lost? From what particular qualities of the soil over which they flow, and from what situation of the places through which they pass, does this phenomenon arise? Upon this head we find but little light in authors. We might, perhaps, be informed a great deal more, if the observations of the ancients had reached us.

M. Guettard has undertaken to remove part of this obscurity by describing what he has observed in several rivers of Normandy, which are lost and afterwards appear again; these are five in number, viz. the Rille, the Ithon, the Aure, the river of Sap-Audré, and the Drôme.

The three first disappear gradually, and then come in sight again; the fourth loses itself entirely by degrees, but afterwards re-appears; the fifth loses some of its water in its course, and ends by precipitating itself into a cavity, from whence it is never seen to rise again.

What seems to occasion the loss of the Rille, the Ithon, and the Aure, is the nature of the soil through which they pass. M. Guettard has observed that it is in general porous, and composed of a thick sand, the grains of which are not well compacted together; it sinks suddenly down by its own weight in some places, and there forms great holes; and when the water overflows the meadows, it frequently makes many cavities in several parts of them. If we therefore suppose inequalities in the channels of these rivers, and that there are certain places in which the water stagnates longer than in others, it must there dilute the ground, if we may use that expression; and having carried away the parts which united the grains of sand

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together, those grains will become afterwards no other than a kind of sieve, through which the waters will filtrate themselves, provided nevertheless that they find passage under ground through which they may run. This conjecture appears to be so well founded, that each of these three rivers loses itself nearly in the same manner, that is, thro' cavities which the people of the country call *betoirs*, and which swallow up more or less according to their largeness. M. Guettard, who has carefully examined them, remarks, that these betoirs are holes in the form of a tunnel, whose diameter and aperture is at least two feet, and sometimes exceeds eleven; and whose depth varies in like manner from one and two feet to five, six, and even twenty. The water generally gets into these cavities, when the river is not very high, making a guggling noise, and turning round in an eddy. A proof that waters are there filtered and absorbed among the grains of this sharp diluted sand, is, that frequently in a betoir two or three feet deep, and through which a great deal of water is lost, one cannot thrust a stick farther than the surface of its bottom. Wherefore as these betoirs so frequently occur in the bed and banks of the Rille, the Ithon, and the Aure, it is not surprising that these rivers should be thus lost. The Rille during the summer season loses almost all its water in the space of two short leagues; the Ithon does very near the same. But M. Guettard observes something curious concerning this river, to wit, that formerly it was not lost, but kept its course without any interruption, as appears by the history of the country: very likely, the mud which had been collected together in several parts of its channel, might have occasioned the waters remaining in others, and thereby have caused many betoirs. This is the more likely, as the mud having been collected together in the bed of the river Aure, it appears that, in consequence thereof, the cavities were greatly increased, which makes it lose itself much sooner than formerly; however, it has been resolved to cleanse its channel to remedy this inconvenience. Besides, possibly an earthquake happening in the country might have caused several subterraneous canals through which the water of the Ithon (which before very likely could not pass through the soil beneath its bed) has forced its way. In effect, it appears, that a soil's being porous is not sufficient to cause the loss of a river; for if it were, then to do so it would occasion many fens round about, nor would it renew its course after having disappeared a certain time: it must besides, as we have before said, find ways under ground thro' which it may take its course. M. Guettard seems also much inclined to believe, that there are, in these parts, subterraneous cavities through which the waters may flow; and in consequence of this he reports a number of facts, all tending to prove the truth of it, or at least to prove that there must be hollow quarries serving for strainers to these waters. Upon which occasion he goes into a discussion of this question: Are there any subterraneous rivers, and is the prepossession of some persons in favour of this particular well founded? He makes appear by several instances which he quotes, and by many reasons which he alleges, that there are at least very great presumptions in favour of this opinion. We are too apt not to look beyond the exterior of things: we feel resistance upon the surface of the earth; when we go deep, we often find it compact. It is therefore hard for us to imagine that it can contain subterraneous cavities sufficient to form channels for hidden rivers, or for any considerable body of water; in a word, that it can contain vast caverns; and yet every thing seems to indicate the contrary. A fact that is observed in the betoirs of the rivers concerning which we have spoken, and particularly of the Rille, proves in some measure that there are considerable lakes of waters in the mountains which limit its course: this fact is, that in winter the greatest part of their betoirs become springs, which supply anew the river's channel with as much water as they had absorbed from it during the summer. Now from whence can that water come, unless from the reservoirs or lakes that are inclosed in the mountains, which being lower than the river in summer, absorb its water, and being higher in winter by occasion of the rain they receive, send it back again in their turn?

Mr Guettard strengthens this conjecture by several instances that render it very probable: he remarks at the same time, that this alternate effect of the betoirs swallowing up the water and restoring it again, causes perhaps an invincible obstacle to the restraining of the water within the channel of the river. It has indeed been several times attempted to stop those cavities; but the water returns with such violence in winter, that it generally carries away the materials with which they were stopped.

The river of Sap-André is lost in part, as we have before said, in the same manner as the Ithon and the Rille: but there is something more remarkable in it than in those rivers; to wit, that at the extremity of its course, where there is no perceptible cavity, it is, as it were ingulphed, but without any fall: the water passes between the pebbles, and it is impossible to force a stick into that place any further than into the betoirs of which we have spoken. What makes this river take that subterraneous direction, is an impediment which its stream meets with in that place: it is there stopped by a rising ground six or seven feet high, whose bottom it has very likely undermined, to gain a free passage, not having been able to make its way over it. At some distance from thence it appears again; but in winter, as there is a greater quantity of water, it passes over that eminence, and keeps an uninterrupted course.

Lastly, the Drôme, after having lost some of its water in its course, vanishes entirely near the pit of Soucy: in that place it meets with a sort of subterraneous cavity near 25 feet wide, and more than 15 deep, where the river is in a manner stopped, and into which it enters, tho' without any perceptible motion, and never appears again.

We see by these observations of M. Guettard, that rivers which lose themselves are not so few as is generally imagined, since there are five of them in this part of Normandy, which is but of small extent. One might fancy that this is owing to the nature of the ground: yet M. Guettard observes, that in a part of Lorrain, which likewise is not very extensive, five other rivers are known to lose themselves in the same manner: and without doubt we shall find by new observations that they are much more common; for, as we have remarked, it perhaps is not more surprising that a river loses itself, than it is extraordinary that it does not so.

M.

River. M. Guettard finishes this memoir with some observations upon the Ierre. This river is lost in the same manner as the Rille; and though it is very near Paris, this singularity is unknown to almost every body; were it not for the account of M. l'Abbe le Boeuf, M. Guettard would have been also ignorant of it. And as he thinks the chief object of a naturalist's observation ought to be the public good, he examines the means which might be employed to restrain the water of the Ierre. The same object has made him add a description of the manner how the Rône is lost, or rather how its course is disturbed; for it is now very certain that it does not lose itself, but that its channel is extremely confined, in the place where it was pretended that it lost itself, by two mountains, between whose feet it runs. M. Guettard makes it appear that it might not be impossible to widen that place, and give a sufficient channel to the river; which would render it navigable, and be of vast utility to all the country.

We may add to the above account, that we have in Surrey the river Mole, which rises in Darking hundred, and, after a considerable course, passes by Witchill, near Darking; a little beyond which this river hides itself, or is swallowed up, in a cavern, at the foot of the hill, from whence Camden says it is called the *Swallow*: he also takes notice of its running under ground for about two miles, and rising again, and spreading itself into a wide stream. It is also frequently reported that there are several of these dipping rivers in Wales, and others in the southern counties of England.

The channels of rivers, except such as were formed at the creation, Varenius thinks, are artificial. His reasons are, that, when a new spring breaks out, the water does not make itself a channel, but spreads over the adjacent land; so that men were necessitated to cut a channel for it, to secure their grounds. He adds, that a great number of channels of rivers are certainly known from history to have been dug by men.

The water of most rivers flow impregnated with particles of metals, minerals, &c. Thus some rivers bring sands intermixed with grains of gold; as in Japan, Peru, and Mexico, Africa, Cuba, &c. particularly in Guinea is a river, where the negroes separate the gold-dust from the sand, and sell it to the Europeans, who traffic thither for that very purpose. The Rhine in many places is said to bring a gold mud. As to rivers that bring grains of silver, iron, copper, lead, &c. we find no mention of them in authors; though, doubtless, there are many.

Theory of the Motion of Rivers. The running of rivers is upon the same principle as the descent of bodies on inclined planes: for water, no more than a solid, can move on an horizontal plane; the re-action of such a plane being equal and contrary to gravity, entirely destroys it, and leaves the body at rest. Here we speak of a plane of small extent, and such as coincides with the curved surface of the earth. But if we consider a large extent or long course of water, then we shall find that such water can never be at rest, but when the bottom of the channel coincides every where with the curved surface of the earth.

Plate CCLVIII. fig. 3. nº 1. Let ADF be the curved surface of the earth, C its centre, CD, CE, two right lines drawn from thence, and EG a tangent to the earth in the point D. Then it is plain, if BD were a channel of water, the water could not run or move, because they are every where at an equal distance from the centre C, and therefore equally affected by gravity. But if there be any place above the surface of the earth, as E, where water can be found, it is evident that water can descend in a channel to any part of the earth's surface between B and D, because every point in the line ED is nearer to the centre of the earth, and therefore below the point or place E; and its velocity will be so much the greater as it tends to a point nearer B, and slowest of all when it moves in the direction of the tangent ED. River.

Hence it appears, that the source E of all rivers and streams must be more than a semi-diameter of the earth CB distant from the centre C. And since all great rivers run to the sea or ocean, where they disembogue their waters at the point D, the line DC is a semidiameter, and $= 4000$ miles nearly. Also the course of all long rivers being in the direction of the tangent at the point D, if they were represented by the tangent-line EG, then the height of the source E above the common surface of the earth at B would be easily found. Thus, suppose ED were the river Niger in Africa, whose source is said to be more than 3000 miles from the sea; but put $ED = 3000$, and since $CD = 4000$, we shall have $CE = 5000$, and $CE - CB = 1000 = BE =$ the height of the source. But since we know of no mountains above three or four miles high, it is plain the river Niger, and all such long rivers, are so far from moving in a tangent, that their course must be very nearly of the same curvature with the earth's surface, and insensibly distant from it.

Since bodies move on planes ever so little inclined, except so far as they are prevented by friction, and since the friction of the particles of water among themselves is inconsiderable, it follows that the water situated on a plane ever so little inclined, will commence a motion; and if the plane be considerably inclined, and the quantity of water great, its velocity will be proportional, and its momentum such as will soon begin to wear away the earth, and create itself a course or channel to glide in. In rivers that are made, it is usual to allow the fall of one foot in 300.

If we allow the same declivity to rivers which make their own way, then we find their height at their source above the surface of the sea, as in example of the Niger thus: As $300 : 1 :: 5280 : \frac{5280}{300} =$ the height at one mile, or 5280 feet. Then again say, as $1 : \frac{5280}{300} :: 3000 : \frac{5280 \times 3000}{300} = 5280 \times 10 = 10$ miles. From whence it is evident, that the continents and islands ought to be much above the surface of the sea, to give a necessary descent and course to the waters through them.

Let ABCD be the section of a reservoir, and BCIK the section of a canal of water supplied from thence, and ABN the horizontal line. Now, since the particles of water are governed by the common laws of gravity, the velocity of a particle at any part of the bottom of the canal, as F or H, will be the same as it would acquire by falling thro' the perpendicular altitude OF or LH, that is, as $\sqrt{OF}$ to $\sqrt{LH}$. Hence the velocity of the stream is accelerated. Fig. 3. nº 2.

For

For the same reason the velocity of a particle at the bottom of the stream H is to the velocity of a particle at the top G, as $\sqrt{LH}$ to $\sqrt{MG}$; consequently the stream moves with a greater celerity at bottom than at top.

The quantity of the water which passes through the section of the stream HG, is the same that passes thro' the section of the reservoir BC in the same time. The same may be said of any other section FE; therefore the quantity of water, passing by any two sections of the stream FE and GH, in the same time, is the same.

Since there runs the same quantity of water by GH as by FE in the same time; and since the velocity at GH is greater than at FE; and lastly, since the breadth of the canal is supposed to be every where the same; therefore it follows, that the depth GH must be less than the depth FE, and so the depth of the stream must continually decrease as it runs.

As the stream proceeds, the depth HG decreasing, the lines MG and LH will approach nearer to an equality; and therefore, the different velocities of the water at top and bottom will approach much sater to an equality, as being proportionate to the square roots of those lines. This approach to an equality is much farther promoted, by the upper parts being continually accelerated by the lower, and the lower parts retarded continually by the slower motion of the waters above, and pressing upon them.

Since the difference of the descending velocities is greatest near the head of the stream, the waters will there fall or descend with the greatest impetuosity, or cause the loudest noise. But in the course of rivers, the accelerated velocity is quickly reduced to an equable or uniform velocity, by the resistance it meets with from the bottom and sides of the channel, which resistance will be as the squares of the velocities, and therefore soon becomes so great as to equal the accelerating force, and be communicated to the middle part of the stream, causing the whole to move uniformly. Hence, in rivers, the motion of the water is slowed at the sides and bottom of the channel, because there the resistance begins, which is afterwards communicated to all the other parts; and in different parts of the same river, the uniform velocity is greatest, where the bottom of the channel has the greatest inclination, or declivity, because the relative gravity of the moving particles is here greatest. Again, in those parts of the river where the velocity of the stream is least, the depth of the water is greatest, and *vice versa*, because equal quantities pass through unequal sections of the river in the same time. Hence also it follows, that the momentum of running water must be every where the same, or a given quantity.

The many advantages which accrue to a country from an abundance of rivers, especially large navigable ones, are too obvious to require any particular detail: but the disadvantages and calamities occasioned by them are frequently no less obvious and fatal. Whole tracts of country are sometimes overflowed on a sudden, and every thing swept away at once; or if the deluge proceeds not such a length, yet by the quantity of stagnating water which is left, marshes are produced, which bring on the most violent diseases in the neighbouring parts. It becomes therefore an object well worthy the public attention how to secure the banks of rivers, or to form their channels in such a manner that the superfluous water may be carried off into the ocean without producing the mischievous effects abovementioned. In a treatise on rivers and canals published in the Phil. Transac. vol. 69. by Mr Mann, he treats this subject at great length. Having laid down a number of theorems concerning the descent of the water in rivers similar to those abovementioned, he points out a method of determining whether the motion of a river in any particular place is derived from the inclination of the bottom of its channel, or merely from the pressure of the upper parts of the water upon the lower. For this purpose, says he, a pole must be thrust down to the bottom, and held perpendicularly to the current of the water, with its upper end above the surface: if the water swells and rises immediately against the pole, it shows that its flowing is by virtue of a preceding declivity; if, on the contrary, the water stops for some moments before it begins to rise against the pole, it is a proof that it flows by means of the compression of the upper waters upon the lower.

The best and most simple method of measuring the velocity of the current of a river, according to our author, is as follows. "Take a cylindrical piece of dry light wood, and of a length something less than the depth of the water in the river: round one end of it let there be suspended as many small weights as may be necessary to keep up the cylinder in a perpendicular situation in the water, and in such a manner that the other end of it may just appear above the surface of the water. Fix to the centre of that end which appears above water a small and straight rod, precisely in the direction of the cylinder's axis; to the end that, when the instrument is suspended in the water, the deviations of the rod from a perpendicularity to the surface of it may indicate which end of the cylinder advances the fastest, whereby may be discovered the different velocities of the water at different depths: for if the rod inclines forwards according to the direction of the current, it is a proof that the surface of the water has the greatest velocity; but if it inclines back, it shows that the swiftest current is at the bottom; if it remains perpendicular, it is sign that the velocities at the surface and bottom are equal.

"This instrument being placed in the current of a river or canal receives all the percussions of the water throughout the whole depth, and will have an equal velocity with that of the whole current *from the surface to the bottom* at the place where it is put in; and by that means may be found, both with ease and exactness, the mean velocity of that part of the river for any determinate distance and time.

"But to obtain the mean velocity of the whole section of the river, the instrument must be put successively both in the middle and towards the sides, because the velocities at those places are often very different from each other. Having by this means found the *difference of time required for the currents to run over an equal space*, or *the different distances run over in equal times; the mean proportional* of all these trials, which is found by dividing the common sum of them all by the number of trials, *will be the mean velocity of the river or canal.*

"If it be required to find the velocity of the current

River. rent only at the ſurface, or at the middle, or at the bottom, a ſphere of wood, of ſuch a weight as will remain ſuſpended in equilibrium with the water at the ſurface or depth which we want to meaſure, will be better for the purpoſe than a cylinder, becauſe it is only affected by the water of that part of the current where it remains ſuſpended.

"It is very eaſy to guide both the cylinder and the globe in that part which we want to meaſure, by means of two threads or ſmall cords, which two perſons muſt hold and direct, one on each ſide the river; taking care at the ſame time neither to retard nor accelerate the motion of the inſtrument."

Our author next proceeds to deduce from his theory the beſt methods of removing the defects and inconveniencies which muſt neceſſarily happen to rivers and canals in a ſeries of years. From the theory formerly laid down he draws the following concluſion, *that the deeper the waters are in their bed in proportion to its breadth, the more their motion is accelerated;* ſo that *their velocity increaſes in an inverſe ratio of the breadth of the bed, and alſo of the greatneſs of the ſection;* from whence are deduced the two following univerſal practical rules:

1ſt, To augment the velocity of water in a river or canal, without augmenting the declivity of the bed, we muſt *increaſe the depth and diminiſh the breadth of its bed.*

2dly, But to diminiſh the velocity of water in a river or canal, we muſt, on the contrary, *increaſe the breadth and diminiſh the depth of its bed.*

The above propoſition is perfectly conformable to obſervation and experience: for it is conſtantly ſeen, that the current is the ſwifteſt where the waters are deepeſt and the breadth of the bed the leaſt, and that they flow ſloweſt where their depth is the leaſt and the breadth of the bed the greateſt. "The velocity of waters," ſays M. de Buffon, "augments in the ſame proportion as the ſection of the channel through which they paſs diminiſhes, *the force of impulſion from the back-waters being ſuppoſed always the ſame.* Nothing," continues he, "produces ſo great a diminution in the ſwiftneſs of a current as its growing ſhallow; and, on the contrary, the increaſe of the volume of water augments its velocity more than any other cauſe whatever." The celebrated Wolfe, in his Hydraulics, aſſures us, that "it is a conſtant and univerſal practice, for accelerating the current of waters, to deepen the bed, and at the ſame time to render it narrower."

When the velocity which a river has acquired by the elevation of its ſprings and the impulſe of the back-water, is at laſt totally deſtroyed by the different cauſes of reſiſtance becoming exactly equal or greater than the firſt, the bed and current at the ſame time being horizontal, nothing elſe remains to propagate the motion, except the *ſole perpendicular compreſſion of the upper waters upon the lower, which is always in a direct ratio of their depth.* But this neceſſary reſource, this remaining cauſe of motion in rivers, augments in proportion as all the others diminiſh, and as the want of it increaſes: for as the waters of rivers in extenſive plains loſe the acceleration of motion acquired in their deſcent from their ſprings, their quantity accumulates in the ſame bed by the junction of ſeveral ſtreams together, and their depth increaſes in conſequence thereof. This junction and ſucceſſive accumulation of many ſtreams in the ſame bed, which we ſee univerſally in a greater or leſſer degree in all rivers throughout the known world, and which is ſo abſolutely neceſſary to the motion of their waters, can only be attributed, ſays Signor Guglielmini, to the infinite wiſdom of the ſupreme Author of Nature.

The velocity of flowing waters is very far from being in proportion to the quantity of declivity in their bed. If it was, a river whoſe declivity is uniform and double to that of another, ought only to run with double the ſwiftneſs when compared to it: but in effect it is found to have a much greater, and its rapidity, inſtead of being only double, will be triple, quadruple, and ſometimes even more; for its velocity depends much more on the quantity and depth of the water, and on the compreſſion of the upper waters on the lower, than on the declivity of the bed. Conſequently, whenever the bed of a river or canal is to be dug, the declivity muſt not be diſtributed equally throughout the whole length; but, to give a ſwifter current to the water, the declivity muſt be made much greater in the beginning of its courſe than towards the end where it diſembogues itſelf, and where the declivity muſt be almoſt inſenſible, as we ſee is the caſe in all natural rivers: for when they approach near the ſea, their declivity is little or nothing; yet they flow with a rapidity which is ſo much greater, as they contain a greater volume of water; ſo that in great rivers, although a large extent of their bed next the ſea ſhould be abſolutely horizontal, and without any declivity at all, yet their waters do not ceaſe to flow, and to flow even with great rapidity, both from the impulſion of the back waters, and from the compreſſion of the upper waters upon the lower in the ſame ſection.

Whoever is well acquainted with the principles of the higher geometry, will eaſily perceive that it would be no difficult matter ſo to dig the bed of a canal or river, that *the velocity of the current ſhould be every where equal.* It would be only giving it the form of a curve along which a moving body ſhould recede from a given point, and *deſcribe ſpaces every where proportional to the times,* allowance being made therein for the quantity of effect of the compreſſion of the upper waters upon the lower. This curve is what is called the *horizontal iſochronic,* being the flatteſt of an infinity of others which would equally anſwer the problem where fluids were not concerned. Upon theſe curves may be ſeen Leibnitz, Huygens, and the two Bernouilli's, who were the firſt that determined and analyſed them, and alſo many ſucceeding geometricians, if any one is deſirous to occupy himſelf in ſuch ſpeculations as are more curious than uſeful.

Notwithſtanding all we have ſaid concerning the neceſſity of augmenting the depth of a river in a greater proportion than its breadth, if we would accelerate its current; yet it is certain, that this can only be done to a certain point, without deſtroying that equilibrium which ought to reign between the depth and the breadth of the ſection of the ſtream, and thereby putting the river into a ſtate of continual violence, which will inceſſantly exert itſelf to the deſtruction of the banks and wiers made to keep it in, and that action will always exert itſelf in a direct ratio of the greater or leſs want of equilibrium, as it would be eaſy

easy to demonstrate by the principles of hydraulics. These same principles give likewise the just proportions of this equilibrium between the perpendicular and lateral compression of the water in any river or canal whatsoever, which vary in an inverse proportion, according to the different degrees of the declivity and velocity of the current; and in a direct one of the greater or less coherence and hardness of the substances which compose the bed. Rivers which flow in beds composed of homogeneous matter of little consistency, such as sand, &c. are always more broad than deep, when compared to those which run in beds of matter of greater tenacity. It is manifest, that the equilibrium here spoken of is real, because rivers remaining in the same state only widen their beds to a certain pitch which they do not surpass.

M. de Buffon remarks, "That people accustomed to rivers can easily foretell when there is going to be a sudden increase of water in the bed from floods produced by sudden falls of rain in the higher countries through which the rivers pass. This they perceive by a particular motion in the water, which they express in their dialect, by saying that *the river's bottom moves;* that is, the water at the bottom of a channel runs off faster than usual; and this increase of motion at the bottom of the river always announces a sudden increase of water coming down the stream. Nor does their opinion therein," continues the same author, "seem to be ill-grounded on the nature of things: for the motion and weight of the waters coming down, though not yet arrived, must act upon the waters in the lower parts of the river, and communicate by impulsion part of their motion thereto; since a canal or river contained in its bed is to be considered in some degree as a column of water contained in a long tube, where the motion is communicated at once throughout the whole length." In a river or canal, open above, it is only communicated to a certain distance; that is, as far as the impulsive force of the new increase and superior rapidity of the back-waters acts upon the stream, which will always be as far as till this force is gradually, and at last wholly, destroyed by the superior gravitation of the superincumbent waters in the stream. Something of the same kind happens when a very great additional weight comes suddenly upon the surface of a river or canal; for instance, by the launching of a ship or of several boats together upon it. These causes increase the velocity of the water in the lower parts of the bed, and moreover retard its motion at the surface, which effect may properly be called *making the river's bottom move.* For the same reason, the increase of weight of the waters in a sudden flood, as well as the increase of their impulsive force, must contribute to produce this effect, and, by increasing the motion in the bottom of the river, may hinder for some space of time the stream from sensibly rising in the bed.

All obstacles whatever in the bed of a river or canal, such as rocks, trunks of trees, banks of sand and mud, &c. must necessarily hinder proportionably the free running off of the water; for it is evident, from what we have said, that the waters so far back from these obstacles, until the horizontal level of the bottom of the bed becomes higher than the top of the obstacles, must be entirely kept up and hindered from running off in proportion thereto. Now as the waters must continue to come down from their sources, if their free running off is hindered by any obstacles whatever, their relative height back from them must necessarily be increased until their elevation, combined with the velocity of their current proceeding from it, be arrived to such a pitch at the point where the obstacles exist, as to counterbalance the quantity of opposition or impediment proceeding from thence, which frequently does not happen until all the lower parts of the country round about are laid under water.

Now it is certain from all experience, that the beds of rivers and canals in general are subject to some or others of the obstacles above-mentioned. If rocks or trees do not bar their channels, at least the quantity of sand, earth, and mud, which their streams never fail to bring down, particularly in floods, and which are unequally deposited according to the various windings and degrees of swiftness in the current, must unavoidably, in course of time, fill up, in part, different places in the channel, and thereby hinder the free running off of the back-waters. This is certainly the case, more or less, in all rivers, and in all canals of long standing, as is notorious to all those well acquainted with them. Hence, if these accidents are not carefully and with a constant attention prevented, come inundations, which sometimes lay waste whole districts, and ruin the finest tracts of ground, by covering them with sand: hence rivers become unnavigable, and canals useless for the purposes for which they were constructed. Canals, in particular, by reason that their waters for the most part remain stagnant in them, are still more liable than rivers to have their beds fill up by the subsiding of mud, and that especially for some distance above each of their sluices; insomuch, that if continual care be not taken to prevent it, or remedy it as often as it happens, they will soon become incapable of receiving and passing the same vessels as formerly. Nay, the very sluices themselves, if the floors of their bottoms are not of a depth conformable to the bed of the canal, will produce the same accidents as those we have been speaking of; for if they are placed too low, they will be continually filling up with sand or mud; if too high, they have the same effect as banks or bars in the bed of a river, that is, they hinder all the back-waters under their level from running off, and soon fill up the bed to that height by the subsiding of mud. This effect is much accelerated by the shutting of the lower sluices, which makes a great volume of water flow back to those next above them, till the whole is filled and becomes stagnant. Now it is evident, that this state of things must contribute far more to the subsidency of mud and all other matters brought down by the waters in canals, than can be the case in rivers whose currents constantly flow.

The waters of all rivers and canals are from time to time muddy: their streams, particularly during rains and floods, carry along with them earth and other substances which subside in those places where their currents are the least, whereby their beds are continually raised: so that the successive increase of inundations in rivers, and of unfitness for navigation in canals, when they are neglected and left to themselves, is a natural and necessary consequence of the state of things, which

no intelligent perſon can be at a loſe to account for; and yet whole countries remain in this habitual ſtate of negligence, to their very great detriment.

Having thus ſhown the principal accidents which rivers and canals are liable to, with the cauſes of them, our author proceeds to point out the moſt efficacious methods of preventing them, or at leaſt of diminiſhing their effects. They flow immediately from the principles laid down in his eſſay, and do not need many words to make them completely underſtood. A work of this kind, he obſerves, if it is properly conducted, muſt be begun at the lower end of the river or canal; that is to ſay, at that end where their waters are diſcharged into the ſea, or where they fall into ſome other greater river or canal, from whence their waters are carried off without farther hindrance. If it is a river whoſe bed, by being filled up with mud, ſand, or other obſtacles, and by being otherwiſe become irregular in its courſe, is thereby often ſubject to inundations, and incapable of internal navigation, the point, from which the work muſt be begun and directed throughout all the reſt of the channel, is from the loweſt water-mark of ſpring-tides on the ſhore at the mouth of the river; or even ſomething below it, if it can be done; though this part will ſoon fill up again by the ſand, mud, &c. which the tides ceaſe not to roll in.

If it is a canal whoſe bed is to be dug anew, or one already made, which is to be cleaned and deepened from the ſea-ſhore or ſome large river back into the country, and where no declivity is to be loſt, as is the caſe in all flat countries; the work muſt be begun, and the depth of the whole channel directed, from the low water-mark of ſpring tides, if the mouth is to the ſea, or from ſuch a depth in the channel of the river, if the canal falls into one, that there may be ſuch a communication of water from the canal to the river, in all ſituattons of the current, as may let boats freely paſs from one to the other. This, of courſe, muſt alſo direct the depth of the floor of the laſt ſluice towards the mouth of the canal, be it to the ſea or into a river. If the bottom or floor of a ſluice already conſtructed be too low, it will ſoon fill up with ſand or mud, and thereby hinder the gates from opening, unleſs it be continually cleaned out; if, on the contrary, this floor be too high, and in a canal whoſe natural declivity is too little for the free current of the water, as is generally the caſe in Holland and Flanders, all depth of the bed of the canal below the horizontal level of the bottom of the ſluice will ſerve to no manner of purpoſe, either for navigation, or for carrying off the back-waters, but will ſoon fill up with mud, in ſpite of all means uſed to the contrary, except that of digging it continually anew to no manner of purpoſe.

Setting off from this determinate point, at the mouth of a river, or at the bottom of the laſt ſluice upon a canal, which are to be cleaned and deepened; the work muſt be carried on, in conſequence, uniformly throughout their whole courſe backwards into the country as far as is found neceſſary for the purpoſes intended. This is to be done after the following manner:

1ſt, One muſt dig up and carry away all irregularities in the bottom and ſides of the bed, ſuch as banks of ſand and mud, rocks, ſtumps or trunks of trees, and whatever elſe may cauſe an obſtacle to the regular motion of the water, and to the free paſſage of veſſels upon it.

2dly, If the declivity of the bed ſhould be ſtill too little to give a ſufficient current to carry off the water as often and as faſt as is neceſſary, the whole bed itſelf muſt be regularly deepened, and what is dug out from the bottom muſt be laid upon the ſides, to render it narrower in proportion to its depth.

3dly, Wherever the banks are too low to contain the ſtream in all its ſituations, they muſt be ſufficiently raiſed; which may be conveniently done with what is dug out from the bed: and the whole being covered with green turf will render theſe banks firm and ſolid againſt the corroſion of the water. It is proper at all times to lay upon the banks what is dug from the bed, by which they are continually ſtrengthened againſt the force of the current.

4thly, It is often neceſſary to diminiſh the windings and ſinuoſities in the channel as much as poſſible, by making new cuts whereby its courſe may approach towards a right line. This is a great reſource in flat countries ſubject to inundations; becauſe thereby all the declivity of a great extent of the river, through its turns and windings, may be thrown into a ſmall ſpace by cutting a new channel in a ſtraight line; as may generally be done without obſtacle in ſuch countries as we are ſpeaking of, and hereby the velocity of the current will be very greatly augmented, and the back-waters carried off to a ſurpriſing degree.

5thly, Wherever there is a confluence of rivers or canals, the angle of their junction muſt be made as acute as poſſible, or elſe the worſt of conſequences will ariſe from the corroſion of their reſpective ſtreams; what they carry of from the ſides will be thrown into irregular banks in the bottom of the bed. This acute angle of the junction may always be procured by taking the direction at ſome diſtance from the point of confluence.

6thly, Wherever the ſides or banks of a river are liable to a more particular corroſion, either from the confluence of ſtreams, or from irremediable windings and turns in the channel, they muſt be ſecured againſt it as much as poſſible by weirs: for this corroſion not only deſtroys the banks, and alters by degrees the courſe of the river, but alſo fills up the bed, and thereby produces all the bad effects we have ſpoken of above.

7thly, But the principal and greateſt attention in digging the beds of rivers and canals muſt be had to the quantity and form of their declivity. This muſt be done uniformly throughout their whole extent, or ſo much of it as is neceſſary for the purpoſes in hand, according to the principles laid down. Conformable thereto, the depths of their beds, and of the floors of their ſluices, at the mouths whereby they diſcharge their waters, being fixed, the depth of the reſt of the beds, and the quantity of declivity therein, muſt be regulated in conſequence thereof, ſo as to increaſe regularly the quantity of the declivity in equal ſpaces the farther we recede from their mouths, and proceed towards their ſources or to the part where the regular current is to take place.

If the depth and volume of water in a river or canal is conſiderable, it will ſuffice, in the part next the mouth,

mouth, to allow one foot perpendicular of declivity through ſix, eight, or even, according to Deſchales, ten thouſand feet in horizontal extent; at moſt it muſt not be above one in ſix or ſeven thouſand. From hence the quantity of declivity in equal ſpaces muſt ſlowly and gradually increaſe as far as the current is to be made fit for navigation; but in ſuch a manner, as that at this upper end there may not be above one foot of perpendicular declivity in four thouſand feet of horizontal extent. If it be made greater than that in a regular bed containing a conſiderable volume of water, the current will be ſo ſtrong as to be found very unfit for the purpoſes of navigation.

I dare boldly affirm, ſays Mr Mann, from the certain principles of hydrodynamics laid down in this eſſay, that if the abovementioned things were carried into execution in a proper manner, the velocity of currents, and the acceleration of motion of the waters in rivers, and in canals when their ſluices are open, might be increaſed to any degree that can be required for opening their beds, and for preventing inundations during great rains or ſudden floods; by carrying off more ſwiftly the great acceſſion of water which then takes place. It would not be difficult, by theſe means, to increaſe the velocity of the current to double and triple what it is in rivers and canals, whoſe beds for a long ſpace of time have been left to themſelves. There is not, perhaps, a country on earth but what might be freed from inundations by theſe means. But it may be objected, that if all I have adviſed were put in execution, even in the flatteſt countries, the currents of rivers (for canals ſhut up with ſluices are here out of the queſtion) would become incommodious, if not unfit for navigation, eſpecially againſt their ſtreams. This objection would be of weight, if it were not evident that the various means which I have pointed out may be executed in whole or in part, to a certain degree, and no farther than neceſſary for the purpoſes required. But, as it is certain that a ſtrong and regular current in a river is the beſt of all means for keeping it open and deep, and for preventing the formation of banks in the bed, by the ſubſidency of mud, &c. which it does not allow time to precipitate; I leave it to be conſidered, whether it is better to have a free and open navigation ſomething incommoded by the ſtrength of the current, or ſoon to have no navigation at all, without repeatedly digging the bed anew.

Rivers flowing along plains, as well as through valleys, have naturally their beds in the loweſt part of the ground compriſed between the oppoſite hills and mountains: nevertheleſs, the ſurface of the water of a river in the midſt of a plain is often higher than the ſurface of the grounds adjacent to the banks of the river. This proceeds from the continual ſubſiding of the mud, &c. brought down by the ſtream during floods; the waters in that caſe uſually overflowing the banks ſpread themſelves over the plain, where they loſe a great part of the ſwiftneſs of their current, which contributes greatly to the ſubſiding of the mud they contain; ſo that the farther they flow upon the plain, the clearer they grow, and the leſs remains to ſubſide. From hence the greateſt precipitation of mud muſt be in the parts of the plain neareſt the ſides of the river, which in length of time will raiſe theſe grounds above the reſt of the plain. Again, the waters in the bed itſelf depoſiting inceſſantly a part of the mud, &c. brought down by the ſtream, muſt continually, though inſenſibly (for a long ſpace of time), raiſe the channel and banks of the river above the reſt of the plain. Theſe cauſes may at laſt contribute to the forming of an entire new bed for the river: for as all rivers carry down in their ſtreams more or leſs mud and other heterogeneous matters, which do not ſubſide regularly in all parts alike, but muſt precipitate faſteſt where the current is ſloweſt; there muſt accumulate by little and little in theſe parts, ſuch banks of ſand and mud as will in time hinder the current of the waters, make them reflow, and at laſt totally change their direction.

Canals are ſtill more ſubject than rivers to have their beds raiſed and their currents ſtopped by the ſubſiding of mud and heterogeneous matter in different places, and eſpecially juſt above their ſluices; becauſe of the ſudden ſtagnation of the water which firſt begins there as often as the ſluices are ſhut: and as there is a neceſſity for keeping them for the moſt part ſhut, the ſtagnating waters in their beds muſt precipitate their mud, &c. in a much greater proportion than can be done in the currents of rivers which are in a continual motion towards the ſea.

Mr Mann calls *centre of the current*, or, more properly, *line of greateſt current*, that *line which paſſes through all the ſections of a river, in the point where the velocity of the current is the greateſt of all.* If the current of a river is regular, and in a right line, its centre or line of greateſt velocity will be preciſely in the centre of the ſections: but, on the contrary, if the bed is irregular and full of turns and windings, the centre, or line of greateſt current, will likewiſe be irregular, and often change its diſtance and direction with regard to the centres of the ſections through which the waters flow, approaching ſucceſſively, and more or leſs, to all parts of the bed, but always in proportion and conformably to the irregularities in the bed itſelf.

This deviation of the line of greateſt current from the centres of the ſections through which it paſſes, is a cauſe of many and great changes in the beds of rivers, ſuch as the following:

1ſt, In a ſtraight and regular bed, the greateſt corroſion of the current will be in the middle of the bottom of the bed; becauſe it is that part which is neareſt to the line of greateſt current, and at the ſame time which is moſt acted upon by the perpendicular compreſſion of the water. In this caſe, whatever matters are carried off from the bottom will be thrown, by the force of the current, equally towards the two ſides, where the velocity of the ſtream is the leaſt in the whole ſection.

2dly, If the bed is irregular and winding, the line of greateſt current will be thrown towards one ſide of the river, where its greateſt force will be exerted in proportion to the local cauſes which turn it aſide: in ſhort turns of a river there will be a gyration, or turning round of the ſtream, by reaſon of its beating againſt the outer ſide of the angle; this part will be corroded away, and the bottom near it excavated to a great depth. The matters ſo carried off will be thrown againſt the oppoſite bank of the river where the current is the leaſt, and produce a new ground, called an *alluvion.*

3dly, Inequalities at the bottom of a river retain and di-

diminish the velocity of the water, and sometimes may be so great as to make them reflow: all these effects contribute to the subsiding of sand, earth, and other matters thereon, which cease not to augment the volume of the obstacles themselves, and produce shallows and banks in the channel. These in time, and by a continuance of the causes, may become islands, and so produce great and permanent changes and irregularities in the beds of rivers.

4thly, The percussions of the centre of the current against the sides of the bed are so much the greater as they are made under a greater angle of incidence; from whence it follows, that the force of percussion, and the quantity of corrosion and of detriment done to the banks and weirs of rivers, and to the walls of buildings made therein, and which are exposed to that percussion, are always in a direct compound proportion of the angle of incidence, of the greatness and depth of the section together, and of the quantity of velocity of the current.

5thly, It may happen in time, that the excavation of the bottom, and the corrosion of the sides, will have so changed the form of the bed as to bring the force of percussion into equilibrium with the velocity and direction of the current; in that case, all farther corrosion and excavation of the bed ceases.

6thly, This gives the reason why when one river falls into another almost in a perpendicular direction, and makes with it too great an angle of incidence, this direction is changed in time, by corrosions and alluvions, into an angle much more acute, till the whole comes into equilibrium.

7thly, So great and such continued irregularities, from local causes, may happen in the motion of a river as will entirely change its ancient bed, corrode thro' the banks where they are exposed to the greatest violence of percussion of the stream, and open new beds in grounds lower than what the old one is become.

8thly, Hereupon the state of the old bed will entirely depend on the quantity of water, and on the velocity and direction of the current in the new one; for immediately after this division of the waters into two beds is made, the velocity of the current in the old one will be diminished in proportion to its less depth. In consequence thereof, the waters therein will precipitate more of their mud, &c. in equal spaces than they did before; which will more and more raise up the bottom, sometimes even till it becomes equal with the surface of the stream. In this case, all the water of the river will pass into the new bed, and the old one will remain entirely dry. It is well known, that this has happened to the Rhine near Leyden, and to many other rivers.

9thly, Hence the cause of the formation of the new branches and mouth, whereby many great rivers discharge their waters into the sea.

But in proportion as a river that has none of these obstacles in its bed, approaches towards its mouth, we see the velocity of its current augment, at the same time that the declivity of the bed diminishes, the causes of which have been explained above. It is for this reason that inundations are more frequent and considerable, and do more damage in the interior parts of a country, than towards the mouths of most rivers.

In the Po, for example, the height of the banks made to keep in the waters, diminishes as the river approaches to the sea. At Ferrara, they are 20 feet high; whereas, nearer the sea, they do not exceed 10 or 12 feet, although the channel of the river is not larger in one place than in the other.

The mouths of rivers, by which they discharge their waters into the sea, are liable to great variations, which produce many changes in them.

1st, The velocity and direction of the current at these mouths are in a continual variation, caused by the tides, which alternately retard and accelerate the stream.

2dly, During the flowing of the tide, the current of the river is first stopped, then turned into a direction entirely contrary throughout a considerable extent: if we may believe M. de Buffon, there are rivers in which the effect of the tides is sensible at 150 or 200 leagues from the sea.

3dly, This state of things is a cause of a great quantity of sand, mud, &c. being precipitated and accumulated in the channel near the mouth. This continually raises and widens the bed, and at last changes it entirely into a new place, or at least opens new mouths to discharge the waters at. The Rhine, the Danube, the Wolga, the Indus, the Ganges, the Nile, the Missisippi, and many other rivers, are instances of this.

4thly, All these effects are less sensible at the mouths of little rivers, as their currents oppose no sensible obstacle to the flowing of the tides; so that the ebb carries off again what the flow had brought in.

Whenever the course of a river throughout a considerable extent of country, approaches towards a right line, its current will have a very great rapidity; and the velocity wherewith it runs diminishing the effect of its natural gravitation, the middle of the current will rise up, and the surface of the river will form a convex curve of sufficient elevation to be perceived by the eye; the highest point of this curve is always directly above the line of greatest current in the stream.

On the contrary, when rivers approach near enough to their mouths for a sensible effect to be produced in them by the flowing of the tides; and also, when in other parts of their course they meet with obstacles at the sides of their channel; in both these cases the surface of the water at the sides of the current is higher than in the middle, even though the stream be rapid. In this situation of things, the surface of the river forms a concave curve, the lowest point of which, or that of inflection, is directly over the line of greatest current. The reason thereof is, that there are in this case two different and opposite currents in the river; that whereby the waters flow towards the sea, and preserve their motion therein even to a considerable distance; and that of the waters which re-mount, either by the flowing of the tide, or by their meeting with local obstacles, which form a counter current, so much the more sensible as the flowing of the tide is stronger, or as the percussion of the water is made against greater obstacles, and in a direction nearer to a perpendicular to them. From both these causes, the greater of which by far is that of the tides, the water near the sides of the channel, where the velocity of the descending stream is naturally the least, takes a contrary direction, and runs back in the river, while that

River. that in the middle continues to flow on towards the sea. This counter current is what the French call a *remous*.

An island in the middle of a river produces the same effect as obstacles at the sides, regard being had to the difference of situation of each.

Eddies and whirlpools in rivers, in the centre of which there appears a conical or spiral cavity, and about which the water turns with great rapidity and sucks in whatever approaches it, proceed in general from the mutual percussion of these two counter currents; and the vacuity in the middle is produced by the action of the centrifugal force, whereby the water endeavours to recede, in a direct ratio of its velocity, from the centre about which it moves.

If rivers persevered always nearly in the same state, the best means of diminishing the velocity of the current, when it is found too great for the purposes of navigation, would be by widening the canal: but as all rivers are subject to frequent increase and diminution, and consequently to very different degrees of velocity and force in the current, this method is liable to produce very detrimental effects; for, when the waters are low, if the chaunel is very large in proportion, the stream will excavate a particular bed, which, according to the irregularities of the bottom, will form various turnings and windings with regard to the principal bed; and, when the waters come to increase, they will follow, to a certain degree, the directions which the bottom waters take in this particular bed, and thereby will strike against the sides of the channel, so as to destroy the banks and cause great damages.

It would be possible to prevent in part the bad effects proceeding from the current striking against the banks, by opening, at those places where it strikes, little gulphs into the land, dug in such a form and direction as that the striking current should enter and circulate therein, so as to destroy, or at least greatly diminish, its velocity. This effect would be felt for a considerable way down the river.

This same method might probably be used with success against the destruction of bridges, weirs, &c. by the violence of the stream during floods. Such gulfs being dug into the outer-side of those turnings in the river which are immediately above the place to be secured from the violence of the stream, would successively diminish its velocity, its force and dangerous effects, a considerable way down the river. It is true, this method might contribute to produce an overflowing of the river upon the grounds adjacent to those artificial gulphs, this being a natural consequence of the decrease of the velocity of the current in those places; and it would remain to be considered whether those local inundations, or the danger of destruction of the bridges or edifices in the river, were the lesser evil.

The nature of inundations, and the manner of their formation, merit a particular attention in this place.

While the volume of water in the bed of a river increases, the velocity of the current increases in proportion; but from the moment that part of this water overflows the bed, the velocity thereof begins to diminish, and does so more and more, the farther it flows and spreads on the plain. So that the overflowing being once begun, it is a natural consequence, that the inundation should continue for several days; for though the volume of water brought down by the flood during that time should decrease, yet, as the quantity of what runs off decreases likewise, from the great decrease of velocity in what overflows the plains, it will continue to produce the same effect as if the volume of water coming down had not diminished, until the whole of the stream be every where contained again within the bed of the river. When that is become the case, the waters that have overflowed the plain will decrease thereon, by gradually and slowly running off, and also by evaporation, till they wholly disappear. If this was not so, we should see rivers overflow for an hour or two, and then return again within their beds, a thing contrary to general observation; for we constantly see inundations, once begun in flat countries, last for several days together, altho' in the mean while the rain ceases, and the quantity of water coming down diminishes. This must be case, because as the overflowing diminishes the velocity, and consequently the quantity of water carried off, it has the same effect as if a greater quantity still continued to come down.

It may not be useless to remark here, that if the wind blows directly contrary to the current of the river, the overflowing will be greater than it would have been otherwise, because this accident diminishes the velocity of the stream: but, on the contrary, if the winds blow in the same direction with the current of the river, the inundation will be less than otherwise, and sooner at an end; because this accidental cause augments the velocity of the stream.

River-*Water*. This is generally much softer and better accommodated to œconomical purposes than spring-water. For though rivers proceed originally from springs, yet, by their rapid motion, and by being exposed during a long course to the influence of the sun and air, the earthy and metallic salts which they contain are decomposed, the acid flies off, and the terrestrial parts precipitate to the bottom. Rivers are also rendered softer by the vast quantity of rain-water, which, passing along the surface of the earth, is conveyed into their channels. But all rivers carry with them a great deal of mud and other impurities; and, when they flow near large and populous towns, they become impregnated with a number of heterogeneous substances, in which state the water is certainly unfit for the purposes of life; yet, by remaining for some time at rest, all the feculencies subside, and the water becomes sufficiently pure and potable.

RIVULET, a diminutive of river. See River.

ROACH, in ichthyology. See Cyprinus.

ROAD, an open way, or public passage, forming a communication between one place and another.

Of all the people in the world the Romans took the most pains in forming roads; and the labour and expences they were at in rendering them spacious, firm, straight, and smooth, are incredible. They usually strengthened the ground by ramming it, laying it with flints, pebbles, or sands, and sometimes with a lining of masonry, rubbish, bricks, &c. bound together with mortar. In some places in the Lionois, F. Menestrier observes, that he has found huge clusters of flints cemented with lime, reaching 10 or 12 feet deep, and making a mass as hard and compact as marble; and which,

which, after resisting the injuries of time for 1600 years, is still scarce penetrable by all the force of hammers, mattocks, &c. and yet the flints it consists of are not bigger than eggs. The most noble of the Roman roads was the Via Appia, which was carried to such a vast length, that Procopius reckons it five days journey to the end of it, and Leipsius computes it at 350 miles: it is 12 feet broad, and made of square free-stone generally a foot and a half on each side; and though this has lasted for above 1800 years, yet in many places it is for several miles together as entire as when it was first made.

The ancient roads are distinguished into military roads, double roads, subterraneous roads, &c. The military roads were grand roads, formed by the Romans for marching their armies into the provinces of the empire; the principal of these Roman roads in England are, Watling-street, Ikenild-street, Foss-way, and Erminage-street. Double roads among the Romans, were roads for carriages, with two pavements, the one for those going one way, and the other for those returning the other: these were separated from each other by a causeway raised in the middle, paved with bricks, for the conveniency of foot passengers; with borders and mounting-stones from space to space, and military columns to mark the distance. Subterraneous roads are those dug through a rock, and left vaulted; as that of Puzzoli near Naples, which is near half a league long, and is 15 feet broad and as many high.

ROAD, in navigation, a bay, or place of anchorage, at some distance from the shore, on the sea-coast, whither ships or vessels occasionally repair to receive intelligence, orders, or necessary supplies; or to wait for a fair wind, &c. The excellence of a road consists chiefly in its being protected from the reigning winds and the swell of the sea; in having a good anchoring-ground, and being at a competent distance from the shore. Those which are not sufficiently enclosed are termed *open roads*.

ROAN, in the manege. A *roan* horse is one of a bay, sorrel, or black colour, with grey or white spots interspersed very thick. When this party-coloured coat is accompanied with a black head and black extremities, he is called a *roan-horse with a black-a-moor's head*: and if the same mixture is predominant upon a deep sorrel, he is called *claret-roan*.

ROANOAK, an island of North America, near the coast of North Carolina. Here the English first attempted to settle in 1585, but were obliged to leave it for want of provisions. E. Long. 75. 0. N. Lat. 35. 40.

ROANOAK, a river of North America, which rises in Virginia, runs through Carolina, and at length falls into the sea, where it forms a long narrow bay called *Albemarle sound*.

ROASTING, in metallurgic operations, signifies the dissipation of the volatile parts of an ore by heat. See METALLURGY, *passim*.

ROB, in pharmacy, the juices of fruits purified and inspissated till it is of the consistence of honey.

ROBBERY, the *rapina* of the civilians, is the felonious and forcible taking, from the person of another, of goods or money to any value, by violence or putting him in fear. 1. There must be a taking, otherwise it is no robbery. A mere attempt to rob was indeed held to be felony, so late as Henry the Fourth's time; but afterwards it was taken to be only a misdemeanour, and punishable with fine and imprisonment; till the statute 7 Geo. II. c. 21. which makes it a felony (transportable for seven years) unlawfully and maliciously to assault another, with any offensive weapon or instrument;—or by menaces, or by other forcible or violent manner, to demand any money or goods;—with a felonious intent to rob. If the thief, having once taken a purse, returns it, still it is a robbery: and so it is whether the taking be strictly from the person of another, or in his presence only; as where a robber by menaces and violence puts a man in fear, and drives away his sheep or his cattle before his face. 2. It is immaterial of what value the thing taken is: a penny, as well as a pound, thus forcibly extorted, makes a robbery. 3. Lastly, the taking must be by force, or a previous putting in fear; which makes the violation of the person more atrocious than privately stealing. For, according to the maxim of the civil law, "*qui vi rapuit, fur improbior esse videtur.*" This previous violence, or putting in fear, is the criterion that distinguishes robbery from other larcinies. For if one privately steals sixpence from the person of another, and afterwards keeps it by putting him in fear, this is no robbery, for the fear is subsequent: neither is it capital as privately stealing, being under the value of twelvepence. Not that it is indeed necessary, though usual, to lay in the indictment that the robbery was committed by *putting in fear:* it is sufficient, if laid to be done by *violence*. And when it is laid to be done by putting in fear, this does not imply any great degree of terror or affright in the party robbed: it is enough that so much force or threatening, by word or gesture, be used, as might create an apprehension of danger, or induce a man to part with his property without or against his consent. Thus, if a man be knocked down without previous warning, and stripped of his property while senseless, though strictly he cannot be said to be *put in fear*, yet this is undoubtedly a robbery. Or, if a person with a sword drawn begs an alms, and I give it him through mistrust and apprehension of violence, this is a felonious robbery. So if, under a pretence of sale, a man forcibly extorts money from another, neither shall this subterfuge avail him. But it is doubted, whether the forcing a higler, or other chapman, to sell his wares, and giving him the full value of them, amounts to so heinous a crime as robbery.

This species of LARCINY is debarred of the benefit of clergy by statute 23 Hen. VIII. c. 1. and other subsequent statutes; not indeed in general, but only when committed in a dwelling-house, or in or near the king's highway. A robbery therefore in a distant field, or footpath, was not punished with death; but was open to the benefit of clergy, till the statute 3 & 4 W. and M. c. 9. which takes away clergy from both principals and accessories before the fact, in robbery, wherefoever committed. See LAW, N° clxxxvi. 30.

ROBERT BRUCE, king of Scotland, in 1306; a renowned general, and the deliverer of his country from a state of vassalage to the English. See SCOTLAND.

ROBERT (of Bavaria), prince palatine of the Rhine, and

Robin, obinia. and duke of Cumberland; the ſon of Frederic, elector Palatine, by Eliſabeth, daughter of James I. king of England. Diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his valour as a general and admiral; firſt in the Dutch, and then in the Engliſh ſervice. He was unſucceſsful in the cauſe of his uncle, Charles I. againſt the parliament forces; but under Charles II. he defeated the Dutch fleet, and was made lord high admiral of England in 1673. This prince was a lover of the ſciences, and particularly ſkilful in chemiſtry. Died in 1682.

ROBIN HOOD. See MAY-*Games*.

ROBIN *Red-Breaſt*. See MOTACILLA.

ROBINIA, FALSE-ACACIA; a genus of the decandria order, belonging to the diadelphia claſs of plants. There are ſeveral ſpecies, but the moſt remarkable is the caragnana. The leaves of this ſpecies are conjugated, and compoſed of a number of ſmall ſolioles, of an oval figure, and ranged by pairs on one common ſtock.

The flowers are leguminous, and are cluſtered on a filament. Every flower conſiſts of a ſmall bell-ſhaped petal, cut into four ſegments at the edge, the upper part being rather the wideſt. The keel is ſmall, open, and rounded. The wings are large, oval, and a little raiſed. Within are 10 ſtamina united at the baſe, curved towards the top, and rounded at the ſummit. In the midſt of a ſheath, formed by the filaments of the ſtamina, the piſtil is perceivable, conſiſting of an oval germen, terminated by a kind of button. This germen becomes afterwards an oblong flatiſh curved pod, containing four or five ſeeds, of a ſize and ſhape irregular and unequal; yet in both reſpects ſomewhat reſembling a lentil.

This tree graws naturally in the ſevere climates of Northern Aſia, in a ſandy ſoil mixed with black light earth. It is particularly found on the banks of great rivers, as the Oby, Jeniſia, &c. It is very rarely met with in the inhabited parts of the country, becauſe cattle are very fond of its leaves, and hogs of its roots; and it is ſo hardy, that the ſevereſt winters do not affect it. Gmelin found it in the neighbourhood of Tobolſk, buried under 15 feet of ſnow and ice, yet had it not ſuffered the leaſt damage. Its culture conſiſts in being planted or ſowed in a lightiſh ſandy ſoil, which muſt on no account have been lately manured. It thrives beſt near a river, or on the edge of a brook or ſpring; but preſently dies if planted in a marſhy ſpot, where the water ſtagnates. If it is planted on a rich ſoil, well tilled, it will grow to the height of 20 feet, and in a very few years will be as big as a common birch tree.

In a very bad ſoil this tree degenerates, and becomes a mere ſhrub: the leaves grow hard, and their fine bright green colour is changed to a doll deep green. The Tongufian Tartars, and the inhabitants of the northern parts of Siberia, are very fond of the fruit of this tree, it being almoſt the only ſort of pulſe they eat.

M. Strahlemberg, author of a well-eſteemed deſcription of Siberia, aſſures us that this fruit is tolerably pleaſant food, and very nouriſhing. Theſe peaſe are firſt infuſed in boiling water, to take off a certain acrid taſte they have, and are afterwards dreſſed like common peaſe or Windſor beans; and being ground into meal, pretty good cakes are made of them. The leaves and tender ſhoots of this tree make excellent folder for ſeveral ſorts of cattle. The roots, being ſweet and ſucculent, are very well adapted to fattening hogs; and the fruit is greedily eaten by all ſorts of poultry. After ſeveral experiments ſomewhat ſimilar to the methods uſed with anil and indigo, a fine blue colour was procured from its leaves. The ſmaller kind of this tree ſeems ſtill better adapted to anſwer this purpoſe. The ſtriking elegance of its foliage, joined to the pleaſing yellow colour of its beautiful flowers, ſhould, one would imagine, bring it into requeſt for forming noſegays, or for ſpeedily making an elegant hedge. Robins.

Beſides the qualities above recited, it poſſeſſes the uncommon advantage of growing exceedingly quick, and of being eaſily tranſplanted.

There are large plantations of it now in Sweden, Norway, Lapland, and Iceland.

Linnæus aſſures us, that, after the *Pinus ſol. quinis*, erroneouſly called the *cedar tree of Siberia*, this tree, of all that are to be found in Siberia, is moſt worthy of cultivation.

ROBINS (Benjamin), a moſt ingenious Engliſh mathematician, born at Bath in 1707. His parents were Quakers and of low condition, conſequently neither able nor willing to have him much inſtructed in human learning. Nevertheleſs his own propenſity to ſcience procured him a recommendation to Dr Pemberton at London; by whoſe aſſiſtance, while he attained the ſublimer parts of mathematical knowledge, he commenced teacher of the mathematics. But the buſineſs of teaching, which required confinement, not ſuiting his active diſpoſition, he gradually declined it, and engaged in buſineſs that required more exercife. Hence he tried many laborious experiments in gunnery, from the perſuaſion that the reſiſtance of the air has a much greater influence on ſwift projectiles than is generally imagined. Hence alſo he was led to conſider the mechanic arts that depend on mathematical principles; as the conſtruction of mills, the building of bridges, the draining of fens, the rendering of rivers navigable, and the making of harbours. Among other arts, fortification much engaged his attention; and he met with opportunities of perfecting himſelf by viewing the principal ſtrong places of Flanders, in ſome tours he made abroad with perſons of diſtinction.

Upon his return from one of theſe excurſions, he found the learned amuſed with Dr Berkley's work, intitled *The Analyſt*, in which an attempt was made to explode the method of fluxions. Mr Robins was therefore adviſed to clear up this affair by giving a diſtinct account of Sir Iſaac Newton's doctrines, in ſuch a manner as to obviate all the objections that had been made without naming them. Accordingly he publiſhed, in 1735, A Diſcourſe concerning the Nature and Certainty of Sir Iſaac Newton's Method of Fluxions; and ſome exceptions being made to his manner of defending Sir Iſaac Newton, he afterwards wrote two or three additional diſcourſes. In 1738 he defended the ſame great philoſopher againſt an objection contained in a note at the end of a Latin piece, called *Matho, ſive Coſmotheoria puerilis*; and the following year printed Remarks on M. Euler's Treatiſe of Motion, on Dr Smith's ſyſtem of Optics, and on Dr Jurin's Diſcourſe of diſtinct and indiſtinct Viſion an-

Robins, Roborants.

annexed to Dr Smith's work. In the mean while Mr Robins did not folely confine himfelf to mathematical fubjects: for in 1739 he publifhed three pamphlets on political affairs, without his name; when two of them, relating to the convention and negotiations with Spain, were fo univerfally efteemed, as to occafion his being employed in a very honourable poft; for on a committee being appointed to examine into the paft conduct of Sir Robert Walpole, he was chofen their fecretary.

In 1742, Mr Robins publifhed a fmall treatife, intitled *New Principles of Gunnery*, containing the refult of many experiments; when a Difcourfe being publifhed in the Philofophical Tranfactions, in order to invalidate fome of his opinions, he thought proper, in an account he gave of his book in the fame Tranfactions, to take notice of thofe experiments: in confequence of which feveral of his Differtations on the Refiftance of the Air were read, and the experiments exhibited before the Royay Society, for which he was prefented by that honourable body with a gold medal.

In 1748 appeared lord Anfon's Voyage round the World, which, though Mr Walter's name is in the title, was in reality written by Mr Robins. Mr Walter, chaplain on board the Centurion, had indeed brought it down to his departure from Macao for England, when he propofed to print the work by fubfcription. It was however thought proper that an able judge fhould review and correct it, and Mr Robins was appointed; when, upon examination, it was refolved that the whole fhould be written by Mr Robins, and that what Mr Walter had done fhould only ferve as materials. Hence the introduction entire, and many differtations in the body of the work, were compofed by him, without receiving the leaft affiftance from Mr Walter's manufcript, which chiefly related to the wind and the weather, the currents, courfes, bearings, diftances, the qualities of the ground on which they anchored, and fuch particulars as generally fill up a failor's account. No production of this kind ever met with a more favourable reception; four large impreffions were fold within a twelvemonth; and it has been tranflated into moft of the languages of Europe. The fifth edition printed at London in 1749, was revifed and corrected by Mr Robins himfelf.

Having thus rendered himfelf famous for his ability in writing, he was defired to compofe an apology for the unfortunate affair at Prefton-Pans in Scotland, which was prefixed as as preface to The Report of the Proceedings of the Board of general Officers, on their examination into the conduct of Lieu. Gen. Sir John Cope; and this preface was efteemed a mafter-piece in its kind. He afterwards, through the intereft of lord Anfon, contributed to the improvements made in the royal obfervatory at Greenwich. Having thus eftablifhed his reputation, he was offered the choice of two confiderable employments; either to go to Paris as one of the commiffaries for adjufting the limits of Acadia, or to be engineer general to the Eaft India company. He chofe the latter, and arrived in the Eaft Indies in 1750; but the climate not agreeing with his conftitution, he died there the year following.

ROBORANTS, in pharmacy, medicines which ftrengthen the parts, and give new vigour to the conftitution.

Rochefort || Roche

ROCHEFORT, a handfome and confiderable fea-port town of France, in the territory of Aunis, with a very commodious harbour, and one of the moft famous in the kingdom. It is a department of the marine, and has large magazines of naval ftores. There is alfo one of the fineft halls of arms in the kingdom, and a great many workmen employed in making them; there are alfo forges for anchors, and work-houfes for fhip carpenters, who are employed in every thing that relates to the fitting out of fhips, that comes within the compafs of their province. They likewife caft great guns here; and have artifts, whofe employment is fculpture and painting. There are alfo ftocks for building men of war, rope-walks, magazines of provifions and powder, a manufactory of fail-cloth, an hofpital for failors, and proper places to clean the fhips. Add to thefe, the houfes of the intendant, the fquare of the capuchins, and the fuperb ftructure which contains lodgings for 300 marine guards, where they are taught the bufinefs and exercifes belonging to feamen and officers who go on board the men of war. It is feated on the river Charente, four miles from its mouth; and the entrance of the river is defended by feveral forts. W. Long. 0. 54. N. Lat. 46. 3.

ROCHEFOUCAULT (Francis, duke de la) prince of Marfilac, governor of Poitou, was the fon of Francis, the firft duke of Rochefoucault, and diftinguifhed himfelf on feveral occafions by his courage and prudence. He wrote two excellent works; the one a book of Maxims, which M. de Voltaire fays has contributed more than any thing elfe to form the tafte of the French nation; and the other, Memoirs of the Regency of Queen Anne of Auftria. It was partly at the inftigation of the beautiful duchefs de Longueville, that the duke de Rochefoucault engaged in the civil wars, in which he fignalized himfelf particularly at the battle of St Antoine. Beholding one day a portrait of this lady, he wrote underneath it thofe two lines from the tragedy of Alcyoneus.

" Pour meriter fon cœur, pour plaire a fes beaux yeux,
" J'ai fait la guerre aux rois, je l'aurois fait aux deux."

Which may be thus rendered in Englifh:

" To gain her heart, and pleafe her fparkling eyes,
" I've war'd with kings, and would have brav'd the fkies."

The author of the maxims was not a member of the French academy. The neceffity of making a public fpeech the day of his reception, was the only caufe that he did not claim admittance. This nobleman, with all the courage he had difplayed upon various critical occafions, and with his fuperiority of birth and underftanding over the common run of men, did not think himfelf capable of facing an audience, to utter only four lines in public, without being out of countenance. He died at Paris in 1680, aged 68.

ROCHELLE, a handfome, large, ftrong, rich, and celebrated city of France, capital of the territory of Aunis, with a very commodious and fafe harbour, a bifhop's fee, a college for humanities, an academy, a fchool for medicine, anatomy, and botany, and a mint. The houfes are fine, and fupported with piazzas, under which perfons may walk in all weathers; and the ftreets in general as ftraight as a line: there are feveral handfome churches and other ftructures, befides a remark-

markeble pump in the ſquare of Dauphiny, which throws out the water through ſeveral pipes. There are no remains of the old fortifications, except on the ſide of the harbour, where there are bulwarks and ſtrong towers to defend the entrance. The new fortifications are in the manner of Vauban. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade, eſpecially in wines, brandy, ſalt, paper, linen-cloth, and ſerge. Lewis XIII. took this place from the Huguenots in 1628, after 13 months ſiege. It is ſeated on the ocean, in W. Long. 1. 11. N. Lat. 46. 10.

ROCHESTER, an epiſcopal city of Kent in England, ſeated on the river Medway in E. Long. 0. 34. N. Lat. 51. 22. It was formerly much more conſiderable than at preſent; and had a caſtle, now in ruins.

Rochester, (earl of). See Wilmot.

ROCK, a large maſs or block of hard ſtone rooted in the ground. See Mountain.

Rock, in ornithology, a ſpecies of Vultur.

Rock-*Cryſtal*, in natural hiſtory, otherwiſe called *ſprig-cryſtal*, a name given to the third order of cryſtals, from their being affixed to a rock or other ſolid body. This kind of cryſtal is the moſt common of all others, and is what the generality of authors deſcribe under the name of *cryſtal of the ſhops*. The cleareſt, pureſt, and moſt tranſparent that can be had is to be choſen: and to prove its genuineneſs, it may be tried with aquafortis; true cryſtal making no effervescence with that medium.

Rock-*Fiſh*. See Gobius.

ROCKET, an artificial fire-work, conſiſting of a cylindrical caſe of paper, filled with a compoſition of certain combuſtible ingredients; which, being tied to a ſtick, mounts into the air, and then burſts. See Pyrotechny.

Theory of the Flight of Sky-Rockets. Mariotte takes the riſe of rockets to be owing to the impulſe or reſiſtance of the air againſt the flame. Dr Deſaguliers accounts for it otherwiſe.

Conceive the rocket to have no vent at the choak, and to be ſet on fire in the conical bore; the conſequence will be, either that the rocket would burſt in the weakeſt place, or, if all its parts were equally ſtrong, and able to ſuſtain the impulſe of the flame, the rocket would burn out immoveable. Now, as the force of the flame is equable, ſuppoſe its action downwards, or that upwards, ſufficient to lift 40 pounds. As theſe forces are equal, but their directions contrary, they will deſtroy each other's action.

Imagine then, the rocket opened at the choak; by this means the action of the flame downwards is taken away, and there remains a force equal to 40 pounds acting upwards, to carry up the rocket, and the ſtick it is tied to. Accordingly, we find that if the compoſition of the rocket be very weak, ſo as not to give an impulſe greater than the weight of the rocket and ſtick, it does not riſe at all; or if the compoſition be ſlow, ſo that a ſmall part of it only kindles at firſt, the rocket will not riſe.

The ſtick ſerves to keep it perpendicular; for if the rocket ſhould begin to ſtumble, moving round a point in the choak, as being the common centre of gravity of rocket and ſtick, there would be ſo much friction againſt the air by the ſtick between the centre and the point, and the point would beat againſt the air with ſo much velocity, that the friction of the medium would reſtore it to its perpendicularity.

When the compoſition is burnt out, and the impulſe upwards is ceaſed, the common centre of gravity is brought lower towards the middle of the ſtick; by which means the velocity of the point of the ſtick is decreaſed, and that of the point of the rocket increaſed; ſo that the whole will tumble down, with the rocket-end foremoſt.

All the while the rocket burns, the common centre of gravity is ſhifting and getting downwards, and ſtill the faſter and the lower as the ſtick is the lighter, ſo that it ſometimes begins to tumble before it be burnt out; but when the ſtick is a little too heavy, the weight of the rocket bearing a leſs proportion to that of the ſtick, the common centre of gravity will not get ſo low but that the rocket will riſe ſtraight, though not ſo faſt.

ROD, a land-meaſure of 16 feet and a half; the ſame with perch and pole.

Black Rod, a ſtaff carried by the king's gentleman-uſher, as a badge of his office: this rod or ſtaff is black, and has a lion in gold on its top. See Usher.

Fiſhing-Rod, a long taper rod or wand, to which the line is faſtened for angling. See Fishing-*Rod*.

ROE, the ſeed or ſpawn of fiſh. That of the male fiſhes is uſually diſtinguiſhed by the name of *ſoft roe*, or *milt*; and that of the female, *hard roe* or *ſpawn*. So inconceivably numerous are theſe ovula or ſmall eggs, that M. Petit found 342144 of them in a carp of 18 inches; but M. Lieuwenhoek found in a carp no more than 211,629. This laſt gentleman obſerves, that there are four times this number in a cod; and that a common one contains 9,344,000 eggs.

Roe, in zoology. See Cervus.

ROGA, in antiquity, a preſent which the emperors made to the ſenators, magiſtrates, and even to the people; and the popes and patriarchs to their clergy. Theſe rogæ were diſtributed by the emperors on the firſt day of the year, on their birth-day, or on the *natalis dies* of the cities; and by the popes and patriarchs in paſſion-week. Roga is alſo uſed for the common pay of the ſoldiers.

ROGATION (rogatio), in the Roman juriſprudence, a demand made by the conſuls or tribunes of the Roman people, when a law was propoſed to be paſſed. *Rogatio* is alſo uſed for the decree itſelf made in conſequence of the people's giving their aſſent to this demand; to diſtinguiſh it from a *ſenatus conſultum*, or decree of the ſenate.

Rogation-*Week*, the week immediately ſucceeding Whitſunday; ſo called from the three faſts therein, viz. on Monday, Tueſday, and Wedneſday.

ROGER de Hoveden, a learned man of the 13th century, was born in Yorkſhire, moſt probably at the town of that name, now called *Howden*, ſome time in the reign of Henry I. After he had received the firſt parts of education in his native country, he ſtudied the civil and canon law, which were then become the moſt faſhionable and lucrative branches of learning. He became domeſtic chaplain to Henry II. who employed him to tranſact ſeveral eccleſiaſtical affairs; in which he acquitted himſelf with honour. But his moſt meritorious work was, his Annals of England, from A. D. 731, when Bede's eccleſiaſtical hiſtory ends,

to A. D. 1202. This work, which is one of the moſt voluminous of our ancient hiſtories, is more valuable for the ſincerity with which it is written, and the great variety of facts which it contains, than for the beauty of its ſtyle, or the regularity of its arrangement.

ROGUE, in law, an idle ſturdy beggar; who by ancient ſtatutes is for the firſt offence called a *rogue of the firſt degree*, and puniſhed by whipping, and boring through the griſtle of the right ear with a hot iron; and for the ſecond offence, is termed a *rogue of the ſecond degree*, and, if above 18 years of age, ordered to be executed as a felon.

ROHAULT (James), a celebrated Carteſian philoſopher, was the ſon of a merchant of Amiens, where he was born in 1620. He became well ſkilled in the mathematics, and taught them at Paris, where he became acquainted with M. Clerſelier, an advocate, who gave him his daughter in marriage. Rohault alſo taught philoſophy in the ſame city, with uncommon applauſe. He there improved the arts, and gave excellent lectures to the artiſts and workmen. He died at Paris in 1675. He wrote, in French, 1. A Treatiſe on Natural Philoſophy. 2. The Elements of the Mathematics. 3. A Treatiſe on Mechanics, which is very curious. 4. Philoſophical Converſations; and other works. His Phyſics have been tranſlated into Latin, by Dr Samuel Clarke, with notes, in which the Carteſian errors are corrected upon the Newtonian ſyſtem.

ROLL, in manufactories, ſomething wound and folded up in a cylindrical form.

Few ſtuffs are made up in rolls, except ſattins, gawſes, and crapes; which are apt to break, and take plaits not eaſy to be got out, if folded otherwiſe. Ribbons, laces, galloons, and paduas of all kinds, are alſo thus rolled.

A roll of tobacco is tobacco in the leaf, twiſted on the mill, and wound twiſt over twiſt about a ſtick or roller. A great deal of tobacco is ſold in America in rolls of various weights; and it is not till its arrival in England, Spain, France, and Holland, that it is cut.

A roll of parchment, properly denotes the quantity of 60 ſkins.

The ancients made all their books up in the form of rolls, and in Cicero's time the libraries conſiſted wholly of ſuch rolls.

ROLL, in law, ſignifies a ſchedule or parchment which may be rolled up by the hand into the form of a pipe.

In theſe ſchedules of parchment all the pleadings, memorials, and acts of court, are entered and filed by the proper officer; which being done, they become records of the court. Of theſe there are in the exchequer ſeveral kinds, as the great wardrobe roll, the cofferer's roll, the ſubſidy-roll, &c.

Roll is alſo uſed for a liſt of the names of perſons of the ſame condition, or of thoſe who have entered into the ſame engagement. Thus a court-roll of a manor, is that in which the names, rents, and ſervices, of each tenant are copied and enrolled.

Calves-head ROLL, a roll in the two temples, in which every bencher is taxed yearly at 2 s. every barriſter at 1 s. 6 d. and every gentleman under the bar at 1 s. to the cook and other officers of the houſe, in

conſideration of a dinner of calves-heads provided in Eaſter-term.

Muſter-ROLL, that in which are entered the ſoldiers of every troop, company, regiment, &c. As ſoon as a ſoldier's name is written down on the roll, it is death for him to deſert.

ROLLS-*Office*, is an officer in Chancery-lane, London, appointed for the cuſtody of the rolls and records in chancery.

Rider-ROLL, a ſchedule of parchment frequently ſewed or added to ſome part of a roll or record.

ROLLS *of Parliament*, are the manuſcript regiſters or rolls of the proceedings of our ancient parliaments, which before the invention of printing were all engroſſed on parchment, and proclaimed openly in every county. In theſe rolls are alſo contained a great many deciſions of difficult points of law, which were frequently in former times referred to the deciſion of that high court.

ROLL, or *Roller*, is alſo a piece of wood, iron, braſs, &c. of a cylindrical form, uſed in the conſtruction of ſeveral machines, and in ſeveral works and manufactures.

Thus in the glaſs manufacture they have a running-roll, which is a thick cylinder of caſt braſs, which ſerves to conduct the melted glaſs to the end of the table on which large looking-glaſſes, &c. are caſt.

Founders alſo uſe a roll to work the ſand which they uſe in making their moulds.

The preſſes called *callendars*, as ſerving to calendar ſtuffs withal, conſiſt, among other eſſential parts, of two rollers. It is alſo between the two rollers that the waves are given to ſilks, mohairs, and other ſtuffs proper to be tabbied.

Impreſſions from copper-plates are alſo taken by paſſing the plate and paper between two rollers. See *Rolling-preſs* PRINTING.

Rolls, in ſlatting-mills, &c. are two iron inſtruments of a cylindrical form, which ſerve to draw or ſtretch out plates of gold, ſilver, and other metals.

Rolls, in ſugar-works, are two large iron barrels which ſerve to bruiſe the canes, and to expreſs the juice. Theſe are caſt hollow, and their cavities are filled up with wood, the cylinders of which are properly the rollers.

ROLLER, in ſurgery, a long and broad bandage, uſually of linen-cloth, rolled round any part of the body, to keep it in, or diſpoſe it to a ſtate of health.

ROLLIN (Charles), a juſtly celebrated French writer, was the ſon of a cutler at Paris, and was born there on the 30th of January 1661. He ſtudied at the college du Pleſſis; and acquired the regard of M. Gobinet, principal of that college, who had a particular eſteem for him. He afterwards became profeſſor of rhetoric in the ſame college; and, in 1688, ſucceeded Horſan, his maſter, as profeſſor of eloquence, in the royal college. No man ever exerciſed the functions of it with greater eclat: he often made Latin orations, to celebrate the memorable events of the times; and frequently accompanied them with poems, which were read and eſteemed by every body. In 1694, he was choſen rector of the univerſity; and continued in that office two years, which was then a great mark of diſtinction. By virtue of his office, he ſpoke the annual

pane-

Rollin. panegyric upon Lewis XIV. He made many very useful regulations in the university; and particularly reanimated the study of the Greek language, which was then growing into great neglect. He was a man of indefatigable attention; and trained innumerable persons, who did honour to the church, the state, and the army. The first president Portail was pleased one day to reproach Rollin in a jocular strain, as if he exceeded even himself in doing business: to whom Rollin replied, with that plainness and sincerity which was natural to him, "It becomes you well, Sir, to reproach me with this; it is this habit of labour in me which has distinguished you in the place of advocate-general, which has raised you to that of first president: you owe the greatness of your fortune to me."

Upon the expiration of the rectorship, cardinal Noailles engaged him to superintend the studies of his nephews, who were in the college of Laon; and in this office he was agreeably employed, when, in 1699, he was with great reluctance made coadjutor to the principal of the college of Beauvais. This college was then a kind of desart, inhabited by very few students, and without any manner of discipline: but Rollin's great reputation and industry soon re-peopled it, and made it that flourishing society it has ever since continued. In this situation he continued till 1712; when the war between the Jesuits and the Jansenists drawing towards a crisis, he fell a sacrifice to the prevalence of the former. Father le Tellier, the king's confessor, and furious agent of the Jesuits, infused into his master prejudices against Rollin, whose connections with cardinal de Noailles would alone have sufficed to have made him a Jansenist; and on this account he lost his share in the principality of Beauvais. No man, however, could have lost less in this than Rollin, who had every thing left him that was necessary to make him happy; retirement, books, and enough to live on. He now began to employ himself upon Quintilian; an author he justly valued, and saw neglected not without uneasiness. He retrenched in him whatever he thought rather curious, than useful for the instruction of youth; he placed summaries or contents at the head of each chapter; and he accompanied the text with short select notes. His edition appeared in 1715, in 2 vols 12mo. with an elegant preface setting forth his method and views.

In 1710, the university of Paris willing to have a head suitable to the importance of their interests in the then critical conjuncture of affairs, chose Rollin again rector: but he was displaced in about two months by a letter de cachet. The university had presented to the parliament a petition, in which it protested against taking any part in the adjustment of the late disputes; and their being congratulated in a public oration by Rollin on this step, occasioned the letter which ordered them to choose a rector of more moderation. Whatever the university might suffer by the removal of Rollin, the public was probably a gainer; for he now applied himself to compose his excellent treatise upon the Manner of Studying and Teaching the Belles Lettres. This work was published, two volumes in 1726, and two more in 1728, 8vo.

Encouraged by the great success of this work, he undertook another of equal use and entertainment: his *Histoire Ancienne*, &c. or "Ancient History of the Egyptians, Carthaginians, Assyrians, Babylonians, Medes and Persians, Macedonians, and Greeks," which he finished in 13 vols 8vo. and published between 1730 and 1738. M. Voltaire, after having observed that Rollin was "the first member of the university of Paris who wrote French with dignity and correctness," says of this work, that "though the last volumes, which were written in too great a hurry, are not equal to the first, it is nevertheless the best compilation that has yet appeared in any language; because it is seldom that plainness are eloquent, and Rollin was remarkably so." While the last volumes of his ancient history were printing, he published the first of his Roman History; which he lived to carry on, through the eighth and into part of the ninth, to the war against the Cimbri, about 70 years before the battle of Actium. Mr Crevier, the worthy disciple of Rollin, continued the history to the battle of Actium, which closes the tenth volume; and has since completed the original plan of Rollin, in 16 vols 12mo, which was to bring it down from the foundation of the city, to the reign of Constantine the Great. All these works of Rollin have met with universal approbation, and been translated into several languages.

This excellent person died in 1741. He had been named by the king a member of the academy of inscriptions and belles lettres in 1701: but as he had not then bought the college of Beauvais into repute, and found he had more business upon his hands than was consistent with a decent attendance upon the functions of an academician, he begged the privileges of a veteran, which were honourably granted him. Nevertheless, he maintained his connections with the academy, attended their assemblies as often as he could, laid the plan of his ancient history before them, and demanded an academician for his censor. Rollin was a man of an admirable composition: very ingenious, consummate in polite learning, of rigid morals, and eminently pious. He was rather too religious, his religion carrying him into the territories superstition; and he wanted nothing but a mixture of the philosophic in his nature, to make him a very complete person. When he was discharged from the rectorship in 1720, the words of the letter de cachet were, *That the university should choose a rector of more moderation.* But this was hardly possible: for nothing could be more benign, more pacific, more sweet, more moderate, than Rollin's temper. He showed, it must be owned, some zeal for the cause of Jansenism. In all other respects he was a most respectable person. We find in his works generous and exalted sentiments, a zeal for the good of society, a love of virtue, a veneration for Providence, and in short every thing, though on profane subjects, sanctified with a spirit truly religious; so that it is impossible to read him without feeling ourselves more virtuous. How noble his reflections! Right reason, religion, honour, probity, inspired them; and we can never enough admire the art which has made them appear so natural. This is Mr Voltaire's eloge on Rollin: to which we may add the testimony of the celebrated poet Rousseau, who conceived such a veneration for him, that he came out of banishment incognito to Paris, on purpose to visit and pay his respects to him. He looked upon his histories, not only as the best models of the historic kind, but as a complete system of politics and morals, and a most

Rolling, Rollo.

moſt inſtructive ſchool for princes as well as ſubjects to learn all their duties in.

ROLLING, the motion by which a ſhip rocks from ſide to ſide like a cradle, occaſioned by the agitation of the waves.

Rolling, therefore, is a ſort of revolution about an imaginary axis paſſing through the centre of gravity of a ſhip: ſo that the nearer the centre of gravity is to the keel, the more violent will be the rolling-motion; becauſe the centre about which the vibrations are made, is placed ſo low in the bottom, that the reſiſtance made by the keel to the volume of water which it diſplaces in rolling, bears very little proportion to the force of the vibration above the centre of gravity, the radius of which extends as high as the maſt-heads.

But if the centre of gravity is placed higher above the keel, the radius of vibration will not only be diminiſhed, but an additional force to oppoſe the motion of rolling will be communicated to that part of the ſhip's bottom which is below the centre of gravity.

So far as relates to the effect of rolling, when produced by the quality or ſtowage of the ballaſt, and to the manner by which it may be prevented, *viz.* a change of the quantity or diſpoſition of the ballaſt, we ſhall endeavour to explain under the article TRIM. It may, however, be neceſſary to remark, that the conſtruction of the ſhip's bottom may alſo contribute to diminiſh this movement conſiderably.

Many fatal diſaſters have happened to ſhips, ariſing from a violent rolling; as the loſs of the maſts, looſening of the cannon, and ſtraining violently on the decks and ſides, ſo as to weaken the ſhip to a great degree. See PITCHING.

ROLLING-*Tackle*, a pulley or purchaſe faſtened to that part of a ſail-yard which is to the windward of the maſt, in order to confine the yard cloſe down to the leeward when the ſail is furled.

It is uſed to prevent the yard from having a great friction againſt the maſt in a high ſea, which would be equally pernicious to both.

ROLLO, the conqueror of Normandy, was a Norwegian duke, baniſhed from his country by Harold Harfagre, who conquered Norway in 870, on account of the piracies he exerciſed. He firſt retired with his fleet among the iſlands of the Hebrides to the northweſt of Scotland, whither the flower of the Norwegian nobility had fled for refuge ever ſince Harold had become maſter of the whole kingdom. He was there received with open arms by thoſe warriors, who, eager for conqueſt and revenge, waited only for a chief to undertake ſome glorious enterprize. Rollo ſetting himſelf at their head, and ſeeing his power formidable, ſailed towards England, which had been long as it were a field open on all ſides to the violences of the northern nations. But the great Alfred had ſome years before eſtabliſhed ſuch order in his part of the iſland, that Rollo, after ſeveral fruitleſs attempts, deſpaired of forming there ſuch a ſettlement as ſhould make him amends for the loſs of his own country. He pretended, therefore, to have had a ſupernatural dream, which promiſed him a glorious fortune in France, and which ſerved at leaſt to ſupport the ardour of his followers. The weakneſs of the government in that kingdom, and the confuſion in which it was involved, were ſtill more perſuaſive reaſons to inſure them of ſucceſs. Having therefore ſailed up the Seine to Rouen, he immediately took that capital of the province, then called *Neuſtria*, and making it his magazine of arms, he advanced up to Paris, to which he laid ſiege in form. This war at length ended in the entire ceſſion of Neuſtria, which Charles the Simple was obliged to give up to Rollo and his Normans in order to purchaſe a peace. Rollo received it in perpetuity to himſelf and his poſterity, as a feudal duchy dependant on the crown of France. A deſcription of the interview between Charles and this new duke, gives us a curious picture of the manners of theſe Normans, (as they were called by foreigners); for the latter would not take the oath of fealty to his ſovereign lord, any other way than by placing his hands within thoſe of the king; and abſolutely refuſed to kiſs his feet, as cuſtom then required. It was with great difficulty he was prevailed on to let one of his warriors perform this ceremony in his ſtead; but the officer to whom Rollo deputed this ſervice, ſuddenly raiſed the king's foot ſo high, that he overturned him on his back; a piece of rudeneſs which was only laughed at: to ſuch a degree were the Normans feared and Charles deſpiſed.

Rollo || Romance.

Soon after, Rollo was perſuaded to embrace Chriſtianity, and he was baptized with much ceremony by the archbiſhop of Rouen in the cathedral of that city. As ſoon as he ſaw himſelf in full poſſeſſion of Normandy, he exhibited ſuch virtues as rendered the province happy, and deſerved to make his former outrages forgotten. Religious, wiſe, and liberal, this captain of pirates became, after Alfred, the greateſt and moſt humane prince of his time.

ROMAN, in general, ſomething belonging to the city of Rome. See ROME.

King of the ROMANS, in modern hiſtory, is a prince elected to be ſucceſſor to the reigning emperor of Germany.

ROMANCE, in matters of literature, a fabulous relation of certain adventures deſigned for the entertainment and inſtruction of the readers.

The true nature and genuine characteriſtics of this ſpecies of writing, are excellently explained by the ingenious author of the Rambler; who obſerves, that the works of fiction, with which the preſent generation ſeems more particularly delighted, are ſuch as exhibit life in its true ſtate, diverſified only by the accidents that daily happen in the world, and influenced by thoſe paſſions and qualities which are really to be found in converſing with mankind.

This kind of writing may be termed not improperly the *comedy of romance*, and is to be connected nearly by the rules of comic poetry. Its province is to bring about natural events by eaſy means, and to keep up curioſity without the help of wonder: it is therefore precluded from the machines and expedients of the heroic romance, and can neither employ giants to ſnatch away a lady from the nuptial rites, nor knights to bring her back from captivity; it can neither bewilder its perſonages in deſarts, nor lodge them in imaginary caſtles.

Scaliger, upon Pontanus, remarks, that all his writings are filled with images; and that if you take from him his lilies and his roſes, his ſatyrs and his dryads, he will have nothing left that can be called poetry. In like

Romance. like manner, almost all the fictions of the last age will vanish, if you deprive them of a hermit and a wood, a battle and a shipwreck.

Romagna || Romano.

Why this wild strain of imagination found reception so long, in polite and learned ages, it is not easy to conceive: but we cannot wonder, that, while readers could be procured, the authors were willing to continue it; for when a man had, by practice, gained some fluency of language, he had no farther care than to retire to his closet, to let loose his invention, and heat his mind with incredibilities; and a book was produced without fear of criticism, without the toil of study, without knowledge of nature, or acquaintance with life.

The task of our present writers is very different; it requires, together with that learning which is to be gained from books, that experience which can never be attained by solitary diligence, but must arise from general converse, and accurate observation of the living world. Their performances have, as Horace expresses it, *plus oneris quantum veniæ minus*, little indulgence, and therefore more difficulty. They are engaged in portraits of which every one knows the original, and can therefore detect any deviation from exactness of resemblance. Other writings are safe, except from the malice of learning: but these are in danger from every common reader; as the slipper was censured by a shoemaker, who happened to stop in his way at the Venus of Apelles.

But the danger of not being approved as just copiers of human manners, is not the most important apprehension that an author of this sort ought to have before him. These books are written chiefly to the young, the ignorant, and the idle, to whom they serve as lectures of conduct, and introductions into life. They are the entertainment of minds unfurnished with ideas, and therefore easily susceptible of impressions; not fixed by principles, and therefore easily following the current of fancy; not informed by experience, and consequently open to every false suggestion and partial account.

That the highest degree of reverence should be paid to youth, and that nothing indecent or unseemly should be suffered to approach their eyes or ears, are precepts extorted by sense and virtue from an ancient writer, by no means eminent for chastity of thought. The same kind, though not the same degree of caution, is required in every thing which is laid before them, to secure them from unjust prejudices, perverse opinions, and improper combinations of images.

In the romances formerly written, every transaction and sentiment was so remote from all that passes among men, that the reader was in very little danger of making any applications to himself; the virtues and crimes were equally beyond his sphere of activity; and he amused himself with heroes and with traitors, deliverers and prosecutors, as with beings of another species, whose actions were regulated upon motives of their own, and who had neither faults nor excellencies in common with himself.

But, when an adventurer is levelled with the rest of the world, and acts in such scenes of the universal drama as may be the lot of any other man, young spectators fix their eyes upon him with closer attention, and hope, by observing his behaviour and success, to regulate their own practices when they shall be engaged in the like part.

For this reason, these familiar histories may perhaps be made of greater use than the solemnities of professed morality, and convey the knowledge of vice and virtue with more accuracy than axioms and definitions. But, if the power of example is so great as to take possession of the memory by a kind of violence, and produce effects almost without the intervention of the will, care ought to be taken, that, when the choice is unrestrained, the best examples only should be exhibited; and that which is likely to operate so strongly, should not be mischievous or uncertain in its effects.

The chief advantages which these fictions have over real life, is, that their authors are at liberty, though not to invent, yet to select objects, and to cull from the mass of mankind those individuals upon which the attention ought most to be employed; as a diamond, though it cannot be made, may be polished by art, and placed in such a situation as to display that lustre which before was buried among common stones.

ROMAGNA, a province of Italy, in the pope's territories, bounded on the north by the Ferrarese, on the south by Tuscany and the duchy of Urbino, on the east by the gulph of Venice, and on the west by the Bolognese and a part of Tuscany. It is fertile in corn, wine, oil, fine fruits, and pastures. It has also mines, mineral waters, and salt-works, which make its principal revenue. Ravenna is the capital town.

ROMANIA, a province of Turky in Europe, bounded on the north by Bulgaria, on the east by the Black Sea, on the south by the Archipelago and the sea of Marmora, and on the west by Macedonia and Bulgaria; being 200 miles in length, and 150 in breadth. It was formerly called *Thrace*, and is the principal and largest of all the provinces the Turks possess in Europe. It is a fruitful country in corn and pastures, and there are mines of silver, lead, and alum. It is divided into three great governments or sangiacates; namely, Kirkel, of which Philipoli is the capital; Galipoli, whose capital is of the same name; and Byzantium, or Byzia, or Viza, of which Constantinople is the capital. The Turks bestow the name of *Romelia* on all the territories they possess in Europe.

ROMANO (Giulio), a famous painter, was the disciple of Raphael, who had such an affection for him, that he appointed him, with John Francis Penni, his heir. His conceptions were more extraordinary and more elevated than even those of his master, but not so natural. He was wonderful in the choice of attitudes; but did not perfectly understand the lights and shades, and is frequently harsh and ungraceful. The folds of his draperies, says Du Fresnoy, are neither beautiful nor great, easy nor natural, but all extravagant, like the fantastical habits of comedians. He was, however, superior to most painters, by his profound knowledge of antiquity; and, by conversing with the works of the most excellent poets, particularly Homer, he made himself master of the qualifications necessarily required in a great designer. Julio Romano was also well skilled in architecture. He was employed by cardinal de Medicis, who was afterwards pope under the name of *Clement* VII.; and afterwards went to

Mantua,

Rome.

Mantua, whither he was invited by Frederic Gonzaga, marquis of that city, in order to avoid his being justly punished for his having drawn at Rome the designs of 20 obscene plates, engraved by Mark Antony, to which Aretine added the same number of sonnets. Julio Romano embellished the city of Mantua with many of his performances both in painting and architecture; and died in that city in 1545, at 54 years of age, much regretted by the marquis, who had an extraordinary friendship for him.

ROME, a very ancient and celebrated city of Italy, situated on the river Tiber, in E. Long. 13°. N. Lat. 41. 45. once the capital of the greatest empire in the world; and famous in modern history for being the centre of an ecclesiastical tyranny, by which for many ages the greatest part of the world was held in subjection.

1 Romans descended from Æneas

The ancient Romans derived their original from Æneas the Trojan hero: and though some historians pretend to treat his voyage into Italy as a mere fable, yet no sufficient reasons for rejecting this account have been offered, nor has any more probable history of the origin of the Roman name been given; so that, without entering into the dispute, we shall proceed to the history of Æneas and his successors as they are recorded by the generality of Latin writers.

2 Æneas flies from Troy to mount Ida.

When the Greeks, by the treachery of the sons of Antenor, or by whatever other means it happened, were become masters of Troy, Æneas with the forces under his command retired into the fortress of the city, and defended it bravely for some time; but yielding at length to necessity, he conveyed away his gods, his father, wife, and children, with every thing he had that was valuable, and, followed by a numerous crowd of Trojans, fled to the strong places of mount Ida. Hither all those of his countrymen, who were more anxious than the rest to preserve their liberty, flocked to him from the several towns of Troas. His army thus augmented and advantageously posted, he continued quiet, waiting for the departure of the Greeks, who, it was imagined, would return home as soon as they had pillaged the country. But these, after they had enriched themselves with the spoils of Troy and of the neighbouring towns, turned their arms against the fugitives, resolving to attack them in their strong-holds upon the mountain. Æneas, to avoid the hazard of being forced in his last refuge, had recourse to negociation; and, by his heralds, intreated the enemy not to constrain him to a battle. Peace was granted him, on condition that he with his followers quitted the Trojan territories; and the Greeks, on their part, promised not to molest him in his retreat, but to let him safely pass through any country within the extent of their domination.

3 Makes peace with the Greeks and leaves Asia.

Upon this assurance Æneas equipped a fleet, in order to seek a settlement in some foreign land. We are told, that at his departure he left his eldest son Ascanius with the Dasylites, a people of Bithynia, who desired to have him for their king; but that the young prince did not remain long with them: for when Scamandrius (Astyanax), with the the rest of the Hectoridæ whom Neoptolemus permitted to return home from Greece, repaired to him, he put himself at their head, and led them back to their native country.

The Trojan having crossed the Hellespont, arrived in the peninsula of Pallene, where he built a city, called from him *Æneia*, and left in it a part of that multitude which had followed him. From thence he sailed to Delos; and thence to Cythera, where he erected a temple to Venus. He built another to the same goddess in Zacynthus, in which island he likewise instituted games, called the *races of Æneas and Venus:* the statues of both, says Dionysius, are standing to this day. In Leucas, where the Trojans landed, was to be seen in the same author's time, a temple erected to Venus the mother of Æneas. Nor were Actium and Ambracia without monuments that testified his arrival in those places. At Dodona were found brazen vases, upon which the name of the Trojan hero, who had made an offering of them to Jupiter, was engraven in old characters. Not far from Buthrotos, in Epirus, a Trojan camp which had escaped the injuries of time, retained the name of *Troja*. All these antiquities, still subsisting in the reign of Augustus, were then looked upon as indisputable proofs of Æneas's voyage to Epirus: "and that he came into Italy, (adds the same Dionysius) we have the concurrent testimony of all the Romans; the ceremonies they observe in their sacrifices and festivals bear witness to it, as also the Sibylline books, the Pythian oracles, and many other things which nobody can reasonably reject as invented merely for ornament."

The first land of Italy which Æneas made, after crossing the Ionian sea, was cape Minerva, in Iapygia; and here he went on shore. Sailing afterwards from hence, and coasting along the south-east of Italy and the east and south sides of Sicily, he arrived with his fleet either by choice or stress of weather at the port of Drepanum in that island. Elymus and Ægestus who had escaped from Troy a little before him, had brought a Trojan colony to this place. Æneas augmented it by a good number of his followers, whom, pleased to have found a safe resting place after many dangers and fatiguing voyages, he willingly left behind him at their request; though certain authors pretend that he was constrained to it by the difficulty of transporting them, because some Trojan women, weary of the sea, had burnt a considerable part of his ships.

Æneas, leaving Drepanum, steered his course for Italy across the Tyrrhenian sea. To the cape where he first landed, he gave the name *Palinurus*, from one of his pilots who died there. The little island of Leucasia, not far distant, whither he sailed next, got its name in like manner from a daughter of Æneas's sister, who there ended her days. The port of Misenum, the island of Prochyta, and the promontory of Cajeta, where he successively arrived, were so called from being the burial-places, the first of a noble Trojan his companion, the second of his kinswoman, and the third of his nurse. At length the Trojan prince and his chosen band finished their tedious and painful voyages on the coast of the since famous Latium. This was a small territory on the east side of the river Tiber, containing a part of the present *Campagna di Roma:* Latinus was the king of it; his capital town, Laurentum; his subjects, a people who, till his time called *Aborigines*, had from him taken the name of *Latins*. Here, far removed from their implacable enemies the Greeks, Æneas and his followers undertook to raise a second Troy: they fortified a camp near the mouth of the Tyber,

4 Lands in Italy.

Rome. ber, gave it the name of *Troy*, and flattered themselves with the hopes of a quiet settlement, and a period to all their unhappy adventures.

When Æneas arrived in Italy, Latinus was engaged in a war with the Rutuli, a neighbouring people, in which he was attended but with very indifferent successes, when news was brought him that a foreign army had made a descent on his coasts, pillaged the maritime part of his dominions, and were fortifying themselves in a camp at a small distance from the sea. Hereupon he marched against them with all his forces, hoping to oblige them to reimbark and abandon his dominions, without meeting with any great resistance from a band of vagabonds, as he supposed, or pirates, come only to seek for plunder: but finding them, as he drew near, well armed, and regularly drawn up in battalia, he thought it advisable to forbear engaging troops that appeared so well disciplined; and, instead of venturing a battle, to desire a parley. In this conference Latinus understanding who they were, and being at the same time struck with terror, and touched with compassion for those brave but unfortunate men, entered into a treaty with them, and assigned them a tract of land for a settlement, on condition that they should employ their arms and exert their valour in defence of his dominions, and look upon the Rutuli as a common enemy. This condition Æneas readily accepted; and complied with his engagement so faithfully, that Latinus came at length to repose an entire confidence in the Trojan; and in proof of it, gave him Lavinia, his daughter and only child, in marriage, securing to him by that means the succession to the throne of Latium. Æneas, to testify his gratitude to Latinus, and affection for Lavinia, gave her name to the camp he had pitched; and instead of Troy, called it *Lavinium*. The Trojans followed the example of their leader; and by marriages making alliances with Latin families, became, in a short time, one and the same people with the Latins.

5 Enters into an alliance with Latinus, and marries his daughter.

In the mean time Turnus, the queen's nephew, who had been brought up in the palace under the eye of Latinus, and entertained hopes of marrying Lavinia and succeeding to the throne, seeing the princess bestowed on a stranger, and all his views defeated, went over to the Rutuli; and by stirring them up, brought on a battle between them and the Latins, in which both he and Latinus were killed. Thus Æneas, by the death of his father-in-law, and by that of a troublesome rival, came into the quiet possession of the kingdom of Latium, which he governed with great wisdom, and transmitted to his posterity.

Æneas is said to have reigned three years; during which time he established the worship of the gods of his own country, and to the religion of the Latins added that of Troy. The two Palladiums, which had been the protectors of that city, became the tutelary deities of Lavinium, and, in after ages, of the whole Roman empire. The worship of Vesta was likewise introduced by Æneas; and virgins, from her called *Vestals*, were appointed to keep a fire continually burning in honour of that goddess. Jupiter, Venus, and many other deities who had been revered in Troy, became, in all likelihood, known to the Latins by means of Æneas; which gave occasion to the poets of representing him under the character of a pious hero.

While Æneas was thus employed, the Rutuli, ancient enemies of the Latin name, entering into an alliance with Mezentius king of the Tyrrhenians, took the field with a design to drive out those new-comers, of whose power they began to conceive no small jealousy. Æneas marched out against them at the head of his Trojans and Latins. Hereupon a battle ensued, which lasted till night; when Æneas being pushed to the banks of the Numicus, which ran close by Lavinium, and forced into that river, was there drowned. The Trojans concealed his body; and pretending that he had vanished away on a sudden, made him pass for a deity among his credulous subjects, who accordingly erected a temple to him under the title of *Jupiter Indiger*.

6 His death.

Upon the death of Æneas, his son Euryleon, called also *Ascanius* and *Iulus*, ascended the throne; but as the young king did not think it advisable to venture a battle in the very beginning of his reign, with a formidable enemy, who promised himself great success from the death of Æneas, he had the prudence to confine himself within the walls of Lavinium, and to try whether he could, by an honourable treaty, put an end to so dangerous a war. But the haughty Mezentius demanding of the Latins, as one of the conditions of a peace, that they should pay him yearly, by way of tribute, all the wine produced in the territory of Latium, Ascanius rejected the proposal with the utmost indignation; and having caused all the vines throughout his dominions to be consecrated to Jupiter, and by that means put it out of his power to comply with the enemy's request, he resolved to make a vigorous sally, and try whether he could, by force of arms, bring the insulting Tyrrhenian to more reasonable terms. The main body of the enemy's army was encamped at some distance from Lavinium; but Lausus, the son of Mezentius, with the flower of their youth under his command, lay entrenched at the very gates of the city. The Trojans, who had been long accustomed to make vigorous sallies, marching out in the night, attacked the post where Lausus commanded, forced his intrenchments, and obliged the troops he had with him to save themselves by flight to the main body of the army encamped on the plain; but the unexpected arrival and overthrow of their advance-guard struck them with such terror, that, instead of stopping the flight of their companions, they fled with them, in great disorder, to the neighbouring mountains. The Latins pursued them, and in the pursuit Lausus was killed: whose death so discouraged Mezentius, that he immediately sued for peace; which was granted him, upon condition, that for the future the Tiber should be the boundary between the Latin and Hetrurian territories.

7 Succeeded by his son Ascanius.

8 Who defeats the Rutuli.

In the mean time Lavinia, who had been left with child by Æneas, entertaining a strong jealousy of the ambition of her son-in-law, retired to the woods, and was there peaceably delivered of a son, who, from his father, was named *Æneas*, and, from the place of his birth, had the surname of *Sylvius*: but as the queen's flight, who had disappeared on a sudden, raised suspicions at Lavinium prejudicial to the reputation of Ascanius, he used all possible means to remove them, caused diligent search to be made after Lavinia, calmed her fears, and prevailed upon her to return to the town with her son, whom he ever after treated as a brother.

9 His kindness to Lavinia and her son.

Rome.

Lavinium grew every day more populous; but as it was in reality the patrimony of Lavinia, and the inheritance of her son Sylvius, Ascanius resolved to resign it to them, and build elsewhere another city for himself. This he made the place of his residence, and the capital of his new kingdom, calling it *Alba Longa; Alba*, from a white sow, which we are told Æneas had found in the place where it was built; and *Longa*, to distinguish it from another town of the same name in the country of the Marsi; or rather, because it extended, without having much breadth, the whole length of a lake near which it was built. It was 30 years after the building of Lavinium, that Ascanius fixed his abode at Alba; and there he died, after a reign of about 38 years, 12 of which he had resided at his new settlement. He left a son called *Iulus;* so that between him and Sylvius lay the right of succession to the Latin throne; the latter being the son, and the former the grandson, of Æneas.

10 Ascanius founds Alba Longa.

The Latins not thinking it their interest to continue divided, as it were, into two states, resolved to unite Alba and Lavinium into one sovereignty; and as Sylvius was born of Lavinia the daughter of Latinus, and had thereby an undoubted title to the kingdom of his grandfather, whereas the other was but the son of a stranger, the Latins bestowed the crown on Sylvius; and, to make Iulus some amends, decreed to him the sovereign power in affairs of religion; a power which thenceforth continued in his family. Sylvius was succeeded by 13 kings of the same race, who for near 400 years reigned at Alba; but we scarce know any thing of them besides their names, and the years of their respective reigns. Æneas Sylvius died, after a reign of 29 years. His son, called also *Æneas Sylvius*, governed Latium 31 years. *Latinus Sylvius*, who succeeded him, swayed the sceptre for the space of 51 years. Alba reigned 39; Capetus, by Livy named *Atys*, 26; Capis, 28; and Capetus, 13. Tiberinus, who succeeded him, engaged in a war which proved fatal to him; for in a battle which was fought on the banks of the Albula, he was forced into that river and drowned. From him the river took the name of *Tiber*, which it has borne ever since. Agrippa succeeded Tiberinus, after a reign of eight years; and left the throne, which he had held 41 years, to Alladius; who reigned 19, and was succeeded by Aventinus, who left his name to the hill Aventinus, where he was interred. Procas, who succeeded him, and reigned 23 years, was the father of Numitor and Amulius; and at his death, bequeathed the throne to his elder son Numitor. But Amulius, who surpassed his brother in courage and understanding, drove him from the throne; and to secure it to himself, murdered Ægestus, Numitor's only son, and consecrated his daughter Rhea Sylvia to the worship of Vesta, by which she was obliged to perpetual virginity. But this precaution proved ineffectual; for as the Vestal was going to a neighbouring spring to fetch water for the performance of a sacrifice to Mars, she was met and ravished by a man in a military habit, like that in which the god Mars is represented. Some authors think that this counterfeit Mars was a lover come thither by her appointment; others charge Amulius himself with using this violence to his niece, not so much to gratify his lust, as to have a pretence to destroy her. For ever after he caused her to be carefully watched, till she was delivered of two sons; and then exaggerating her crime in an assembly of the people, he prevailed upon them to sentence her to death, and to condemn the fruit of her criminal amour to be thrown into the Tiber. The sentence against Rhea was, according to some authors, changed by Amulius, at the request of his daughter Antho, into perpetual confinement, but executed against the twins; who being laid in a wooden trough, and carried to the foot of mount Palatine, were there turned adrift on the Tiber, which at that time overflowed its banks. But the wind and stream proved both so favourable, that at the fall of the water the two infants were left safe on the strand, and there happily found by Faustulus, the chief of the king's shepherds, and suckled by his wife Acca Laurentia, who for her disorderly life was called *Lupa;* and this probably gave rise to the fabulous miracle of their being nursed by a wolf.

11 Resigns the kingdom.

12 Origin of the name *Tiber*.

13 Adventure of Rhea Sylvia.

Rome.

14 Of Romulus and Remus.

As Faustulus was probably well acquainted with the birth of the twins, he took more than ordinary care of their education, and sent them to Gabii to be instructed there in Greek literature. As they grew up, they appeared to have something great in their mien and air which commanded respect; and the ascendant which they assumed over the other shepherds, made them dreaded in the forests, where they exercised a sort of empire. A quarrel happening between the herdsmen of Amulius and those of Numitor, the two brothers took the part of the former against the latter; and some blood being shed in the fray, the adverse party to be revenged on *Romulus* and *Remus* (for so the twins were called), on the festival of Lupercalia, surprised Remus, and carried him before Numitor, to be punished according to his deserts. But Numitor feeling himself touched in the prisoner's favour, asked him where he was born, and who were his parents. His answer immediately struck Numitor with a lively remembrance of his two grandsons; their age, which was about 18 years, agreed with the time when the two infants were exposed upon the Tiber; and there needed no more to change his anger into tenderness.

In the mean time Romulus, eager to rescue his brother, and pursue those who had carried him off, was preparing to be revenged on them; but Faustulus dissuaded him from it, and, on that occasion, disclosing to him his birth, awakened in his breast sentiments worthy of his extraction. He resolved, at all adventures, to attempt the delivering of his mother and grandfather from oppression. With this view, he assembled the country people, over whom he had assumed a kind of sovereignty, and engaged them to come to the city on an appointed day, and enter it by different gates, provided with arms, which they were to conceal. While Romulus was thus disposing every thing for the execution of his design, Numitor made the same discovery to Remus concerning his parents, and the oppressions they groaned under; which so fired him, that he was ready to embark in any enterprize. But Numitor took care to moderate the transports of his grandson, and only desired him to acquaint his brother with what he had heard from him, and to send him to his house. Romulus soon came, and was followed by Faustulus, who took with him the trough or skiff in which the twins had been exposed, to show it to Numitor: but, as the shepherd betrayed an air of

Rome.

of concern and earneſtneſs in his looks, he was ſtopped at the gate of the city, led before Amulius, and examined concerning his burden. It was eaſily known by its make and inſcription, which was ſtill legible; and therefore Fauſtus owned what it was, and confeſſed that the twins were living; but, in order to gain time, pretended that they were feeding flocks in a remote deſart. In the mean time, the uſurper's death being reſolved on, Remus undertook to raiſe the city, and Romulus to inveſt the king's palace. The country people came at the time appointed, and formed themſelves into companies each conſiſting of 100 men. They had no other enſigns but bundles of hay hanging upon long poles, which the Latins at that time called *manipuli*; and hence came the name of *manipulares*, originally given to troops raiſed in the country. With this tumultuous army Romulus beſet the avenues of the palace, forced the guard, and having killed the tyrant, after he had reigned 42 years, reſtored his grandfather Numitor to the throne.

15 They reſolve to found a colony.

Affairs being thus ſettled at Alba, the two brothers, by the advice of Numitor, undertook the founding of a new colony. The king beſtowed on them thoſe lands near the Tiber where they had been brought up, ſupplied them with all manner of inſtruments for breaking up ground, with ſlaves, and beaſts of burden, and granted full liberty to his ſubjects to join them. Hereupon moſt of the Trojans, of whom there ſtill remained 50 families in Auguſtus's time, choſe to follow the fortune of Romulus and Remus, as did alſo the inhabitants of Pallantium and Saturnia, two ſmall towns. For the more ſpeedy carrying on of the work, it was thought proper to divide thoſe who were to be employed in the building of the city into two companies, one under the command of Romulus, the other of Remus; but this diviſion, which was deſigned purely with a view to the public welfare, and that the two parties might work by way of emulation, gave birth to two factions, and produced a jealouſy between the two brothers, which broke out when they came to chooſe a place for the building of their new city; for Remus was for the Aventine, and Romulus for the Palatine mount. Upon which, the matter being referred to their grandfather, he adviſed the contending parties to have recourſe to the gods, and to put an end to the diſpute by augury, to which he was himſelf greatly addicted. The day appointed for the ceremony being come, the brothers poſted themſelves each upon his hill; and it was agreed, that whoever ſhould ſee the firſt flight, or the greateſt number, of vultures, ſhould gain his cauſe. After the two rivals had waited ſome time for the appearance of a favourable omen, Romulus, before any had appeared, ſent to acquaint his brother, that he had ſeen ſome vultures; but Remus, having actually ſeen ſix, while his brother's meſſengers were yet on their way, haſtened, on their arrival, to mount Palatine, to examine the truth of what they had told him. He had no ſooner got thither, than by an unexpected good fortune twelve vultures appeared to Romulus. Theſe he immediately ſhowed to his brother; and, tranſported with joy, deſired him to judge himſelf of the truth of what his meſſengers had told him. However, Remus diſcovered the deceit; and, being told that Romulus had not ſeen the twelve vultures till after he had ſeen ſix, he inſiſted on the time of his ſeeing them, and the other on the number of birds he had ſeen. This widened the breach between the two brothers; and, their parties being divided, while each man eſpouſed the cauſe of his leader, the diſpute grew ſo warm, that, from words they came at length to blows. The ſhepherd Fauſtulus, who was equally dear to both the brothers, endeavouring to part the combatants, was, by an unknown hand, laid dead on the ſpot. Some writers tell us, that Remus likewiſe loſt his life in the fray; but the greater number place his death later, and ſay that he was killed by one Fabius, for having, in deriſion, leaped over the wall of the new city: but Livy ſays, the more common report was, that Remus fell by the hand of his brother.

16 Death of Remus.

Romulus, being now head of the colony, by having got the better of his brother's party in the late engagement, applied his thoughts wholly to the building of the city, which he propoſed to call after his own name. He choſe mount Palatine for its ſituation, and performed all thoſe ceremonies which the ſuperſtition of the Hetrurians had introduced. He firſt offered ſacrifices to the gods, and ordered all the people to do the ſame: and, from that time decreed, that eagles ſhould be the auſpices of his new colony. After this, great fires were kindled before their tents, and all the people leaped through the flames to purify themſelves. When this ceremony was over, they dug a trench round the ſpot where the aſſemblies of the people were afterwards held, and threw into it the firſt-fruits of whatever they were allowed to make uſe of for food: every man of the colony was ordered to caſt into the ſame trench an handful of earth, brought either from his own, or ſome neighbouring country. The trench they called *Mundus*, that is, *the world*, and made it the centre round which the city was to be built. Then Romulus, yoking an ox and a cow to a plough, the coulter whereof was braſs, marked out, by a deep furrow, the whole compaſs of the city. Theſe two animals, the ſymbols of marriage, by which cities are peopled, were afterwards ſlain upon the altar. All the people followed the plough, throwing inwards the clods of earth which the plough-ſhare ſometimes turned outwards. Wherever a gate was to be made, the plough was lifted up, and carried; and hence came the Latin word *porta*, "a gate," derived from the verb *portare*, "to carry." As mount Palatine ſtood by itſelf, the whole was incloſed within the line made by the plough, which formed almoſt the figure of a ſquare; whence by Dionyſius Halicarnaſſenſis, it is called *Roma Quadrata*.

17 Foundation of Rome.

As to the exact year of the foundation of Rome, there is a great diſagreement among hiſtorians and chronologers. Fabius Pictor, the moſt ancient of all the Roman writers, places it in the end of the ſeventh Olympiad; that is, according to the computation of Uſher, in the year of the world 3256, of the flood 1600, and 748 before the Chriſtian æra. The Romans, if we may ſo call them, began to build, as Plutarch and others inform us, on the 21ſt of April; which day was then conſecrated to Pales, goddeſs of the ſhepherds; whence the feſtival of Pales, and that of the foundation of the city, were afterwards jointly celebrated at Rome.

18 At firſt but a poor village.

When Rome had received the utmoſt perfection which its poor and rude founder could give it, it con-

Rome. sisted of about 1000 houses, or rather huts; and was, properly speaking, a beggarly village, whereof the principal inhabitants followed the plough, being obliged to cultivate with their own hands the ungrateful soil of a barren country which they had shared among themselves. Even the walls of Romulus's palace were made of rushes, and covered with thatch. As every one had chosen his ground to build upon, without any regard to the regularity and beauty of the whole, the streets, if we may so call them, were both crooked and narrow. In short, Rome, till it was rebuilt after the burning of it by the Gauls, was rather a disorderly heap of huts, than a city built with any regularity or order.

19 Romulus elected king

As soon as the building of the city was finished, Romulus assembled the people, and desired them to choose what kind of government they would obey. At that time monarchy was the unanimous voice of the Romans, and Romulus was elected king. Before he ascended the throne, however, he consulted the will of the gods by augury; and having received a favourable answer, it thence became an established custom to have recourse to augury before the raising any one to the dignity of king, priest, or any public employment. After this he applied himself to the establishment of good order and subordination among his subjects. He put on a habit of distinction for himself, appointed 12 lictors to attend him as guards, divided his subjects, who at this time consisted only of 33,000 men, into *curiæ*, *decuriæ*, *patricians*, *plebeians*, *patrons*, *clients*, &c. for an account of which, see these articles as they occur in the order of the alphabet. After this he formed a senate consisting of 100 persons, chosen from among the patricians; and a guard of 300 young men called *celeres*, who attended the king, and fought either on foot or on horseback as occasion required. The king's office at home was to take care of religious affairs, to be the guardian of laws and customs; to decide the weightier causes between man and man, referring those of smaller moment to the senate; to call together the senators, and assemble the people, first delivering his own opinion concerning the affair he proposed, and then ratifying by his consent what was agreed on by the majority. Abroad, and in the time of war, he was to command the army with absolute authority, and to take care of the public money. The senate were not only to be judges in matters of small importance, but to debate and resolve upon such public affairs as the king proposed, and to determine them by a plurality of voices. The people were allowed to create magistrates, enact laws, and resolve upon any war which the king proposed; but in all these things the consent of the senate was necessary.

Romulus next proceeded to settle the religious affairs of his people. Many of the Trojan and Phrygian deities were added to those whom the Aborigines or Italian natives already worshipped. He chose priests, instituted festivals, and laid the foundation of a regular system of religion; after which, as his colony was still thinly peopled, he opened an asylum for fugitive slaves, homicides, outlaws, and debtors. These, however, he did not at first receive within the walls, but appointed for their habitation the hill Saturnius called afterwards *Capitolinus*, on which he erected a temple to a divinity of his own invention, whom he named the *Asylean god*, under whose protection all criminals were to live securely. But afterwards, when the city was enlarged, the asylum was inclosed within the walls, and those who dwelt in it included among the citizens of Rome. Rome.

When Romulus had thus settled every thing relating to his new colony, it was found that a supply of women were wanting to perpetuate its duration. This occasioned some difficulty; for the neighbouring nations refused to give their daughters in marriage to such a crew of vagabonds as had settled in Rome; wherefore Romulus at last resolved on the following expedient. By the advice of his grandfather Numitor, and with the consent of the senate, he proclaimed a solemn feast and public games in honour of the Equestrian Neptune called *Consus*. This occasioned a great concourse of people, who flocked from the adjacent parts to behold these pompous shows together with the new city. But, in the midst of the solemnity, the Romans, rushing in with their swords drawn, seized all the young women, to the number of 683, for whom Romulus chose husbands. Among all those who were thus seized, only one married woman, named *Hersilia*, was found; and Romulus is said to have kept her for himself. 20 Rape of the Sabine women.

21 Occasions war with the neighbouring nations.

This violence soon brought on a war with the neighbouring nations. Acron king of Cænina, a city on the confines of Latium, having entered into a league with the inhabitants of Crustuminum and Antemnæ, invaded the Roman territories. Romulus marched against them without delay, defeated the confederate army, killed their king in single combat, decreed himself a triumph, and consecrated the spoils of Acron to Jupiter Feretrius, under the name of *Opima Spolia*. The city of Cænina was razed to the ground, and the inhabitants transplanted to Rome, where they were admitted to the privileges of citizens. The king then marched with one legion (consisting at this time of 3000 foot and 300 horse) against the Crustumini and Antemnates, both of whom he defeated in battle, and transplanted the inhabitants to Rome; which being incapable of holding such a number, Romulus took in the hill Saturnius abovementioned, on the top of which he built a citadel, committing the care of it to a noble Roman named *Tarpeius*. The citadel was surrounded on all sides with ramparts and towers, which equally commanded the city and country. From the foot of the hill Saturnius a wall was carried on quite to the Tiber, and a gate opened in it named *Carmentalis*, from Carmenta the mother of Evander, who either lived there, or had some chapel or altar erected to her. 22 Rome enlarged.

Romulus had now become so formidable to his neighbours, and had so well established his reputation for clemency, that several cities of Hetruria voluntarily submitted to him. Cœlius, an Hetrurian general, led the troops under his command to Rome, and settled on an hill near the city, which from him took the name of *Mount Cœlius*. The Sabines, however, not in the least dismayed at this increase of the Roman forces, sent a deputation to Romulus, demanding restitution of the young women who had been carried off; and, upon his refusal, marched to Rome with an army of 25,000 foot and 1000 horse, under the command of their king Titus Tatius. Romulus, having received supplies 23 Invasion of the Sabines.

Rome. supplies from Numitor and from Hetruria, likewise took the field with 20,000 foot and 800 horse, with whom he seized an advantageous post, and fortified himself so strongly that he could not be attacked. The Sabine monarch, perceiving the military skill of Romulus, began to be apprehensive of the event; but was extricated out of his difficulties by the treachery of Tarpeia daughter to the governor of the citadel, who agreed to betray that important fortress to the enemy, on condition of being rewarded with the bracelets which the Sabines wore on their left arms. But when once they became masters of this important place, they are said to have crushed Tarpeia under the weight of their bucklers, pretending that thus they discharged their promise, as they wore their bucklers also on their left arms. The possession of the citadel enabled the Sabines to carry on the war with more success; but, at last, in a general engagement, they had the misfortune to be driven back into the citadel, whither they were pursued by the Romans, who expected to have retaken that important post; but the enemy, rolling down great stones from the top of the hill, wounded Romulus on the head, so that he was carried insensible out of the field of battle, while in the mean time his troops were repulsed, and pursued to the very gates of Rome. However, the king soon recovering himself, encouraged his routed troops, and drove the enemy back into the citadel. But while the two nations were thus fiercely contending, the women, for whose cause the war had been commenced, undertook the office of mediators; and having obtained leave from the senate, marched in a body to the camp of the Sabines, where they pleaded the cause of their husbands so effectually, that a treaty of union between the two nations was set on foot, and a peace was at last concluded on the following terms. 1. That the two kings should reside and reign jointly at Rome. 2. That the city should still, from Romulus, be called *Rome;* but the inhabitants *Quirites*, a name till then peculiar to the Sabines. 3. That the two nations should become one; and that the Sabines should be made free in Rome, and enjoy all the privileges of Roman citizens. As Rome was chiefly indebted for this increase of her power and splendor to the Sabine women, honourable privileges and marks of distinction were allowed them. Every one was commanded to give way to them; in capital causes they were exempted from the jurisdiction of the ordinary judges; and their children were allowed to wear a golden ball hanging from their necks, and a particular kind of robe called *prætexta*, to distinguish them from the vulgar.

24 The citadel besieged.

25 Peace concluded, and the two nations united.

The two kings reigned with great harmony for the space of five years; during which time the only military exploit they accomplished was the reduction of the city of Cameria, at a small distance from Rome. Four thousand of the Camerini were transplanted to Rome, and a Roman colony sent to repeople Cameria; soon after which the Sabine king was murdered by the Lavinians, on account of his granting protection to some of his friends who had ravaged their territories. The Lavinians, fearing the resentment of Romulus, delivered up the assassins into his hands; but he sent them back unpunished, which gave occasion to suspect that he was not displeased with the death of his colleague.

26 Tatius murdered,

Soon after the death of Tatius, Rome was afflicted with famine and pestilence, which encouraged the Camerini to revolt; but Romulus marching against them suddenly, defeated them with the loss of 6000 men. After which he attacked the Fidenates, whose city stood about five miles from Rome, took their capital, and made it a Roman colony. This drew upon him the resentment of the Veientes, a powerful nation in the neighbourhood, who claimed Fidenæ as within their jurisdiction; but their forces being defeated in two engagements, and a great number of them taken prisoners, they were obliged to sue for peace. Romulus granted them a truce for 100 years, on condition that they delivered to him seven small towns on the Tiber, together with some salt-pits near the mouth of that river, and send 50 of their chief citizens as hostages to Rome. The prisoners taken in this war were all sold for slaves.

The remaining part of the life of Romulus was spent in making laws for the good of his people; but towards the latter end of his reign, being elated with success, he began to enlarge the bounds formerly set to his prerogative, and to behave in an arbitrary manner. He paid no longer any regard to the voice of the senate, but assembled them only for form's sake to ratify his commands. The senate therefore conspired to destroy him, and accomplished their purpose while he was reviewing his troops. A violent storm of hail and thunder dispersed the army; and the senators taking this opportunity, when they were left alone with the king, instantly killed him, and conveyed his body out of sight. Some writers tell us, that, the better to conceal the fact, they cut his body in pieces, each of them carrying away a part under his robe; after which they told the multitude that their king was on a sudden surrounded by flame, and snatched up into heaven. This stratagem, however, did not satisfy the soldiery, and violent disturbances were about to ensue, when Julius Proculus, a senator of great distinction, having assembled the Curiæ, told them that Romulus had appeared to him, and enjoined him to acquaint the people, that their king was returned to the gods from whom he originally came, but that he would continue to be propitious to them under the name of *Quirinus;* and to the truth of this story Julius swore.

27 And like-wise Romulus.

Romulus reigned, according to the common computation, 37 years: but some historians reduce the length of his reign to little more than 17; it being very unlikely, as they observe, that a prince of such an active disposition should perform nothing worthy of record during a period of 20 years. Be this as it will, however, the death of Romulus was followed by an interregnum, during which the senators, to prevent anarchy and confusion, took the government into their own hands. Tatius added another hundred to that body; and these 200 senators divided themselves into decuries or teas. These decuries drew lots which should govern first; and the decury to whose lot it fell, enjoyed the supreme authority for five days; yet in such a manner, that one person only of the governing decury had the ensigns of sovereignty at a time. To these another decury succeeded, each of them sitting on the throne in his turn, &c. But the people soon growing weary of such frequent change of masters, obliged the senate to resolve on the election of a king. The senate referred the election to the people, and the people

28 His death followed by an interregnum.

Rome.

to the senate, who at last undertook the task. Some difficulties, however, occurred: the Romans did not choose to be subject to a Sabine; and the Sabines, as they had been subject to Romulus after the death of Tatius, insisted that the king should be chosen out of their nation. At last it was agreed, that the king should be a Sabine, but that the Romans should make the choice.

29 Numa Pompilius the second king.

In consequence of this determination, the Romans elected Numa Pompilius, an austere philosopher, who had married Tatia, the daughter of Tatius the late king. After the death of his wife, he gave himself entirely up to philosophy and superstition, wandering from solitude to solitude, in search of sacred woods and fountains, which gave the people a great opinion of his sanctity. The philosopher at first rejected the offer of the kingdom; but being at last prevailed upon, he set out for Rome, where he was received with loud acclamations, and had his election unanimously confirmed by the senate.

The reign of Numa is by no means memorable for battles or conquests. He was averse to war; and made it his study to soften the manners of the Romans, rather than to exalt them to superiority over their neighbours. He dismissed the celeres, encouraged agriculture, and divided the citizens into distinct bodies of tradesmen. This last measure he took on purpose to abolish the distinction between Romans and Sabines, which had hitherto rent the city into two factions; and this effectually answered the end: for now all of each particular profession, whether Romans or Sabines, were obliged to associate together, and had each their respective courts and privileges. In this division the musicians held the first rank, because they were employed in the offices of religion. The goldsmiths, carpenters, curriers, dyers, taylors, &c. formed also distinct communities; and were allowed to make byelaws among themselves, to have their own festivals, particular sacrifices, &c.

Though Numa himself is said by Plutarch to have had pretty just notions of the Supreme Being, he nevertheless added innumerable superstitions to those he found in Rome. He divided the ministers of religion into eight classes, appointing to each their office with the greatest precision; he erected a temple to Janus, the symbol of prudence, which was to remain open in time of war, and to be shut in time of peace. Another temple was erected to *Bona Fides*; and he invented a new kind of deities called *Dii Termini*, or boundaries, which he caused to be placed on the borders of the Roman state, and of each man's particular lands.—The last reformation which Numa undertook, was that of the calendar. Romulus had divided his year into ten months, which, according to Plutarch, had no certain or equal number of days; some consisting of 20, some of 35, &c. However, by other historians we are informed, that he allotted to March, May, Quintilis, and October, 31 days; to April, June, Sextilis, November, and December 30; making in all 304 days. But Numa being better acquainted with the celestial motions, added to these the two months of January and February. To compose these two months he added 50 days to the 304; and thus made the year answer to the course of the moon. He then took six more from the months that had even days; and added one day merely out of superstition, that the year might prove fortunate; for the pagans looked upon even numbers as unlucky, but imagined odd numbers to be fortunate. However, he could make out no more than 28 for February, and therefore that month was always reckoned unlucky among the Romans. Besides this he observed the difference between the solar and lunar year to be 11 days; and to remedy the inequality, he added an intercalary month named *Mercedinus* or *Mercedonius*, of 22 days every two years: but as he knew also that the solar year consisted of 365 days 6 hours, he ordered that every fourth year the month Mercedinus should consist of 23 days. The care of these intercalations was left to the priests, who let out or put in the intercalary day or month as they imagined it to be lucky or unlucky; and by that means created such confusion, that the festivals came in process of time to be kept at a season quite opposite to what they had been formerly.

30 Succeeded by Tullus Hostilius.

These are all the remarkable transactions of the reign of Numa, which is said to have continued 43 years; though some think that its duration could not be above 15 or 16. His death was followed by a short interregnum; after which Tullus Hostilius, the son or grandson of the famous Hersilia, was unanimously chosen king. Being of a bold and fiery temper, he did not long continue to imitate his peaceful predecessor. The Albans, indeed, soon gave him an opportunity of exercising his martial disposition. Cœlius, or, as he is called by Livy, *Cluilius*, who was at the head of the Alban republic, jealous of the growing greatness of Rome, privately commissioned some of the most indigent of his subjects to waste the Roman territory; in consequence of which a Roman army entered the territories of Alba, engaged the robbers, killed many, and took a great number prisoners.

31 His war with the Albans.

A war soon commenced, in consequence of this, between the two nations; but when the armies came in sight of each other their ardour cooled, neither of them seeming inclined to come to an engagement. This inaction raised a great discontent in the Alban army against Cluilius; insomuch that he came to a resolution of giving battle to the Romans next morning, or of storming their trenches if they should decline it. Next morning, however, he was found dead in his bed; after which the Albans chose in his stead one Mettus Fuffetius, a man remarkable for his hatred to the Roman name, as Cluilius had been before him. Fuffetius, however, continued in the same state of inactivity with his predecessor, until he received certain intelligence that the Veientes and Fidenates had resolved to destroy both Romans and Albans when they should be weakened by a battle. Fuffetius then resolved to come to an accommodation with the Romans; and, having obtained a conference with Tullus, both seemed equally desirous of avoiding the calamities of war. But, in order to establish the peace on the most perfect foundation, Tullus proposed that all, or at least the chief families in Alba, should remove to Rome; or, in case they were unwilling to leave their native city, that one common council should be established to govern both cities, under the direction of one of the two sovereigns. Fuffetius took aside those who attended him, to consult with them about this proposal; but they, though willing to come to an

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an accommodation with Rome, absolutely refused to leave Alba. The only difficulty remaining, then, was to settle which city should have the superiority; and, as this could not be determined by argument, Tullus proposed to determine it by single combat betwixt himself and Fuffetius. This proposal, however, the Alban general thought proper to decline; and it was at last agreed, that three champions should be chosen out of each camp to decide the difference. This produced the famous combat between the Horatii and Curiatii, by which the sovereignty was decided in favour of Rome. See HORATII.

Tullus now resolved to call the Fidenates to an account for their treacherous behaviour during the war with Alba, and therefore cited them to appear before the senate; but they, conscious of their guilt, refused to appear, and took up arms in conjunction with the Veientes. Fuffetius, in obedience to the orders of Tullus, joined him with the Alban troops; but the day before the battle he acquainted the principal officers with his design, which was to stand neuter till fortune had declared for one side, and then to join with the conqueror. This design being approved, Fuffetius, during the engagement, retired with is forces to a neighbouring eminence. Tullus perceived his treachery; but dissembling his uneasiness, told his men that Fuffetius had possessed himself of that hill by his order, and that he was from thence to rush down upon the enemy. The Veientes, in the mean time, who had expected that Fuffetius was to join them, were dismayed, and the Romans obtained the victory. After the battle, Tullus returned privately to Rome in the night; and having consulted with the senate about the treachery of Fuffetius, returned to the camp by break of day. He then detached Horatius, who had conquered the three Curiatii, with a chosen body of horse and foot, to demolish Alba, as had been concerted at Rome. In the mean time he commanded both the Roman and Alban troops to attend him unarmed, but gave private orders to the Romans to bring their swords concealed under their garments. When they were assembled, he laid open the treachery of Fuffetius, and ordered him to be torn in pieces by horses. His accomplices were all put to the sword; and the inhabitants of Alba carried to Rome, where they were admitted to the privileges of citizens, and some of them even admitted to the senate.

32 Alba demolished, and the inhabitants transported to Rome.

Tullus now turned his arms against Fidenæ, which he again reduced under the Roman yoke; and took Medulia, a strong city of the Latins; after which he waged a successful war with the Sabines, whose union with the Romans seems to have ceased with the time of Numa. This was the last of his martial exploits; after which we hear no more of him, but that he became extremely superstitious in his advanced years, giving ear to many foolish stories, as that it rained stones, that miraculous voices were heard from heaven, &c. and for this he appointed nine days expiatory sacrifices; whence it became a custom to appoint nine days to appease the wrath of the gods, as often as men were alarmed with prodigies. As to the manner of his death authors are not agreed. Some tell us that he was killed by lightning, together with his wife, children, and his whole family; while others are of opinion that he was murdered with his wife and children by Ancus Martius who succeeded him. He died after a reign of 33 years, leaving the city greatly increased, but the dominions much the same as they had been in the time of Romulus.

33 Death of Tullus, who is succeeded by Ancus Martius.

After a short interregnum, Ancus Martius, the grandson of Numa by his daughter Pompilia and Marcus his relation, was unanimously chosen by the people and senate. Though naturally inclined to war, he began his reign with attempting to restore the ceremonies of Numa, which had been neglected under Tullus Hostilius. He endeavoured also to draw the attention of his people to husbandry and the peaceful arts; advising them to lay aside all sorts of violence, and to return to their former employments. This gained him the affections of his subjects, but brought upon him the contempt of the neighbouring nations. The Latins, pretending that their treaty with Rome was expired, made inroads into the Roman territories. Ancus, after using the ceremonies directed by Numa, took the field with an army consisting entirely of new levied troops, and reduced the cities of Politorium, Tillena and Ficana, transplanting the inhabitants to Rome. A new colony of Latins repeopled Politorium; but Ancus retook the place next year, and entirely demolished it. He then laid siege to Medulia; which, though it had been ruined by Tullus Hostilius, was now stronger than ever. It submitted after a siege of four years, when Ancus found himself obliged to undertake a second expedition against Ficana, which he had before reduced, as we have already related; and it was not without the utmost difficulty that he reduced it a second time. After this he defeated the Latins in a pitched battle; vanquished the Fidenates, Veientes, and Sabines; and having taken in the hill Janiculum to be included within the walls, and built the port of Ostia, he died in the 24th year of his reign.

34 His warlike exploits and death.

Ancus Martius left two sons behind him, one an infant, and the other about 15 years of age. Both of these he put under the tuition of Tarquin, the son of a rich merchant in Corinth, who had fled from that city to secure his wealth from Cypselus tyrant of the place. He settled in Tarquinii, one of the principal cities in Hetruria; but finding that he could not there attain to any of the principal posts in the city, on account of his foreign extraction, he removed to Rome, where he had been gradually raised to the rank of patrician and senator. The death of Ancus Martius gave him an opportunity of assuming the regal dignity, and setting aside his pupils; and in the beginning of his reign he took care to strengthen his party in the senate by adding another hundred to that body. These were called *senatores minorum gentium*, because they were chosen out of the Plebeians; however, they had the same authority in the senate as the others, and their children were called *patricians*.

35 His sons supplanted by Tarquin.

Tarquin was not inferior to any of his predecessors either in his inclination or abilities to carry on a war. As soon as he ascended the throne, he recommenced hostilities with the Latins; from whom he took the cities of Apiolæ, Crustuminum, Nomentum, and Collatia. The inhabitants of Apiolæ were sold for slaves; but those of Crustuminum and Nomentum, who had submitted after their revolt, were treated with great clemency. The inhabitants of Collatia were disarmed, and obliged to pay a large sum of money;

36 Tarquin's success in war.

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money; the sovereignty of it in the mean time being given to Egerius, the son of Arunx Tarquin's brother; from whence he took the name of Collatinus, which he transmitted to his posterity. Corniculum, another city of Latium, was taken by storm, and reduced to ashes. This progress having greatly alarmed the Latins, several of them joined their forces in order to oppose such a formidable enemy; but being defeated in a bloody battle near Fidenæ, they were obliged to enter into an alliance with Rome; upon which the Latins having held a national conference, entered into a league with the Hetrurians, and again took the field with a very numerous army. But Tarquin, having defeated the confederate armies in two very bloody battles, obliged the Latin cities to submit to a kind of dependence on Rome; and, having entered the city in triumph, built the circus maximus with the spoils which he had taken from the enemy.

The war with the Latins was scarce ended, when another commenced with Hetruria. This was accounted the most powerful nation in Italy, and was at that time divided into 12 tribes or lucomonies. These appointed a national assembly, in which it was decreed that the whole force of Hetruria should be employed against Tarquin; and, if any city presumed only to stand neuter, it should be for ever cut off from the national alliance. Thus a great army was raised, with which they ravaged the Roman territory, and took Fidenæ by the treachery of some of its inhabitants. Tarquin, not being in a condition to oppose them at first, was obliged to submit to the loss occasioned by their ravages for a whole year; after which he took the field with all the forces he could raise. The Roman army was divided into two bodies, one under the king himself, the other commanded by his nephew Collatinus. The latter, having divided his forces in order to plunder the country, was defeated; but Tarquin, in two engagements, vanquished the army which opposed him. He then marched against Fidenæ, where he gained a third battle; after which he took the city. Such of the citizens as were suspected to have been concerned in betraying it to the enemy, were whipped to death; the rest were sent into banishment, and their lands divided by lot among the Roman soldiers. Tarquin now hastened to oppose the new army of the Hetrurians before their forces could be properly collected; and having come up with them at Eretum, a place about 10 miles from Rome, defeated them with great slaughter, for which victory he was decreed a triumph by the senate; while the enemy, disheartened by so many misfortunes, were glad to sue for peace; which Tarquin readily granted upon the sole condition of their owning his superiority over them. In compliance with this the Hetrurians sent him all the ensigns of royalty which were in use among them, viz. a crown of gold, a throne of ivory, a sceptre with an eagle on the top of it, a tunic embroidered with gold and adorned with figures of palm-branches, together with a purple robe enriched with flowers of several colours. Tarquin, however, would not wear these magnificent ornaments till such time as the senate and people had consented to it by an express law. He then applied the regalia to the decoration of his triumph, and never afterwards laid them aside. In this triumph he appeared in a gilt chariot drawn by four horses, clothed in a purple robe and a tunic embroidered with gold, a crown on his head, and a sceptre in his hand, attended by 12 lictors with their axes and fasces.

37 Ensigns of royalty sent him by the Hetrurians.

Tarquin, having now obtained some respite from war, applied himself to the beautifying and ornamenting the city. He built the walls of Rome with hewn stone, and erected those famous common sewers which have deservedly been accounted one of the wonders of the world. Rome at this time contained four hills within its compass, viz. the Palatinus, Tarpeius, Quirinalis, and Cœlius. In the valleys between these hills, the rain-water and springs uniting, formed great pools which laid under water the streets and public places. The mud likewise made the way impassable, infected the air, and rendered the city unhealthy. Tarquin undertook to free the city from this nuisance, by conveying off these waters by subterraneous channels into the Tiber. In doing this it was necessary to cut thro' hills and rocks, a channel large enough for a navigable stream, and covered with arches strong enough to bear the weight of houses, which were frequently built upon them, and stood as firm as on the most solid foundations. All these arches were made of hard stone, and neither trouble nor expence were spared to make the work durable. Their height and breadth were so considerable, that a cart loaded with hay could easily pass through them under ground. The expence of constructing these sewers was never so thoroughly understood as when it became necessary to repair them; for then the censors gave no less than 1000 talents to the person appointed for this purpose.

38 Builds the common sewers, and ornaments the city.

Besides these great works, Tarquin adorned the forum, surrounding it with galleries in which were shops for tradesmen, and building temples in it for the youth of both sexes, and halls for the administration of public justice. He next engaged in a war with the Sabines, on pretence that they had assisted the Hetrurians. Both armies took the field, and came to an engagement on the confines of Sabinia, without any considerable advantage on either side; neither was any thing of consequence done during the whole campaign. Tarquin then, considering with himself that the Roman forces were very deficient in cavalry, resolved to add some new bodies of knights to those already instituted by Romulus. But this project met with great opposition from the superstitious augurs, as the original division of horse into three bodies had been determined by auguries; and Actius Nævius, the chief of the diviners at that time, violently opposed the king's will. On this Tarquin, desirous to expose the deceit of these people, summoned Nævius before an assembly of the people, and desired him to show a specimen of his art by telling the king if what he thought of at that time could be done or not. The augur replied, after consulting his birds, that the thing was very possible; on which Tarquin told him, that he had been thinking whether it was possible to cut a flint with a razor, pulling at the same time a razor and flint from below his robe. This set the people a-laughing: but Nævius gravely desiring the king to try it, he was surprised to find that the flint yielded to the razor; and that with so much ease, as to draw blood from his hand. The people testified their surprise by loud acclamations, and Tarquin himself continued to have a great

39 Adventure of Nævius the augur.

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great veneration for augurs ever after. A statue of brass was erected to the memory of Nævius, which continued till the time of Augustus; the razor and flint were buried near it, under an altar, at which witnesses were afterwards sworn in civil causes.

This adventure, whatever was the truth of it, caused Tarquin abandon his design of increasing the number of bodies of horse, and content himself with augmenting the number in each body. He then renewed the war with the Sabines, ravaged their country, defeated them in three pitched battles, obliging them at last to submit to him and put him in possession of their country. In the decline of life he employed himself in further decorating the city, building temples, &c.

40 Assassinated by the sons of Ancus Martius.

He was assassinated in his palace, in the 80th year of his age, by the sons of Ancus Martius, whom he had originally deprived of the kingdom.

After the death of Tarquin I. his wife Tanaquil preserved the kingdom to her son-in-law Servius Tullius, by artfully giving out that the king was only stunned, and would soon recover; upon which the sons of Ancus went voluntarily into banishment. The second day after his decease, Servius Tullius heard causes from the throne in the royal robes and attended by the lictors; but as he pretended only to supply the king's place till he should recover, and thought it incumbent on him to revenge the wicked attempt upon his life, he summoned the sons of Ancus to appear before his tribunal; and on their non-appearance, caused them to be declared infamous, and their estates to be confiscated.

41 Servius Tullius succeeds.

After he had thus managed matters for some time in such a manner as to engage the affections of the people, the death of Tarquin was published as a thing that had newly happened, and Servius Tullius assumed the ensigns of royalty, having none to dispute the honour with him.

The new king showed himself every way worthy of the throne. No sooner were the Hetrurians informed of Tarquin's death, than they shook off the yoke; but Servius quickly reduced them to obedience, depriving them of their lands, which he shared among the poor Roman citizens who had none. For this he was decreed a triumph by the people, in spite of the opposition of the senate, who could never be brought to approve of his election to the kingdom, though he was soon after legally chosen by the tribes.

42 Enlarges the city, and adds a fourth tribe to those already instituted.

After Servius had obtained the sanction of the popular voice, he marched a second time against the revolted Hetrurians; and having again vanquished them, was decreed another triumph. He then applied himself to the enlarging and adorning the city. To the hills Palatinus, Tarpeius, Quirinalis, Cœlius, and Aventinus, he added the Esquilinus and Viminalis, fixing his own palace on the Esquilinus, in order to draw inhabitants thither. He likewise added a fourth tribe, which he called *Tribus Esquilina*, to those instituted by Romulus. He divided also the whole Roman territory into distinct tribes, commanding that there should be at least one place of refuge in each tribe, situated on a rising ground, and strong enough to secure the effects of the peasants in case of a sudden alarm. These strong-holds he called *pagi*, that is, "villages;" and commanded that each of them should have their peculiar temple, tutelary god, and magistrates. Each of them had likewise their peculiar festival, called *paganalia*; when every person was to pay into the hands of those who presided at the sacrifices, a piece of money, the men of one kind, the women of another, and the children of a third. By this means an exact computation was made of the men, women, and children, in each tribe.

In the mean time, his two wards, Lucius Tarquinius and Arunx, the grandchildren of Tarquin, being grown up, in order to secure their fidelity he married them to his two daughters. And though the elder of these daughters, who was of a mild and tractable disposition, resembled in character the younger of his pupils, as the elder of his pupils did the younger of his daughters, who was of a violent and vicious temper, yet he thought it advisable to give his elder daughter to Tarquin, and the younger to Arunx; for by that means he matched them according to their ages, and at the same time hoped, that the elder Tullia's sweet disposition would temper Tarquin's impetuosity, and the younger Tullia's vivacity rouse the indolence of Arunx.

During the public rejoicing for this double marriage, the twelve lucumonies of Hetruria, uniting their forces, attempted to shake off the Roman yoke; but were in several battles defeated by Servius, and obliged to submit to him on the same conditions on which they had submitted to his predecessor. For this success Servius was honoured with a third triumph.

43 Reforms the state.

The king being thus disengaged from a troublesome war, returned to the pursuit of his political schemes; and put in execution that masterpiece of policy which Rome made use of ever after, and which established a perpetual order and regularity in all the members of the state, with respect to wars, to the public revenues, and the suffrages of the comitia. The public supplies had hitherto been raised upon the people at so much an head, without any distinction of rich and poor: whence it likewise followed, that when levies were made for the war, the rich and poor were equally obliged to take the field, according to the order of their tribe; and as they all served at their own expence, the poorer sort could hardly bear the charges of a campaign. Besides, as the most indigent of the people saw themselves burdened with the same taxes as the rich, they pretended to an equal authority in the comitia: so that the election of kings and magistrates, the making of peace or war, and the judging of criminals, were given up into the hands of a populace who were easily corrupted, and had nothing to lose. Servius formed a project to remedy these evils, and put it in execution, by enacting a law, enjoining all the Roman citizens to bring in an account in writing of their own names and ages, and of those of their fathers, wives, and children. By the same law, all heads of families were commanded to deliver in upon oath a just estimate of their effects, and to add to it the places of their abode whether in town or country. Whoever did not bring in an account of his effects, was to be deprived of his estate, to be beat with rods, and publicly sold for a slave. Servius, from these particular accounts, which might be pretty well relied on, undertook to ease the poor by burdening the rich, and at the same time to please the latter by increasing their power.

44 His division of the people into classes.

To this end he divided the Roman people into six classes: the first class consisted of those whose estates and effects amounted to the value of 10,000 drachmæ, or

Rome. or 100,000 ases of brass; the first way of computing being used by the Greeks, and the latter by the Latins. This class was subdivided into 80 centuries, or companies of foot. To these Servius joined 18 centuries of Roman knights, who fought on horseback; and appointed this considerable body of horsemen to be at the head of the first class, because the estates of these knights, without all doubt, exceeded the sum necessary to be admitted into it. However, the public supplied them with horses; for which a tax was laid upon widows, who were exempt from all other tributes. This first class, including infantry and cavalry, consisted of 98 centuries. The second class comprehended those whose estates were valued at 5700 drachmæ, or 75,000 ases of brass. It was subdivided into 20 centuries, all foot. To these were added two centuries of carpenters, smiths, and other artificers. In the third class were those who were esteemed worth 5000 drachmæ, or 50,000 ases. This class was subdivided into 20 centuries. The fourth class was of those whose effects were rated at the value of 500 drachmæ, or 25,000 ases, and was divided into 20 centuries; to which were added two other centuries of trumpets, and blowers of the horn, who supplied the whole army with this martial music. The fifth class included those only whose whole substance did not amount to more than 1250 drachmæ, or 12,500 ases; and this class was divided into 30 centuries. The sixth class comprehended all those who were not worth so much as those of the fifth class: they exceeded in number any other class, but nevertheless were reckoned but as one century.

The king drew from these regulations all the advantages he had expected. Levies for the army were no longer raised by tribes, nor were taxes laid at so much a head as formerly, but all was levied by centuries. When, for instance, an army of 20,000 men, or a large supply of money, was wanted for the war, each century furnished its quota both of men and money: so that the first class, which contained more centuries, though fewer men, than all the other together, furnished more men and more money for the public service than the whole Roman state besides. And by this means the Roman armies consisted for the most part, of the rich citizens of Rome; who, as they had lands and effects to defend, fought with more resolution, while their riches enabled them to bear the expence of a campaign. As it was but just the king should make the first class amends for the weight laid on it, he gave it almost the whole authority in public affairs; changing the comitia by curiæ, in which every man gave his vote, into comitia by centuries, in which the majority was not reckoned by single persons, but by centuries, how few soever there might be in a century. Hence the first class, which contained more centuries than the other five taken together, had every thing at its disposal. The votes of this class were first taken; and if the 98 centuries happened to agree, or only 97 of them, the affair was determined; because these made the majority of the 193 centuries which composed the six classes. If they disagreed, then the second, the third, and the other classes in their order, were called to vote, though there was very seldom any occasion to go so low as the fourth class for a majority of votes: so that by this good order, Servius brought the affairs of the state to be determined by the judgment of the most considerable citizens, who understood the public interest much better than the blind multitude, liable to be imposed upon, and easily corrupted. Rome.

45 The census and lustrum.

And now the people being thus divided into several orders, according to the census or valuation of their estates, Servius resolved to solemnize this prudent regulation by some public act of religion, that it might be the more respected, and the more lasting. Accordingly, all the citizens were commanded to appear, on a day appointed, in the Campus Martius, which was a large plain, lying between the city and the Tiber, formerly consecrated by Romulus to the god Mars. Here the centuries being drawn up in battalia, a solemn lustration or expiatory sacrifice was performed in the name of all the people. The sacrifice consisted of a sow, a sheep, and a bull, whence it took the name of *suovetaurilia*. The whole ceremony was called *lustrum*, à *luendo*; that is, from paying, expiating, clearing, or perhaps from the goddess Lua, who presided over expiations, and to whom Servius had dedicated a temple. This wise king considering, that in the space of five years there might be such alterations in the fortunes of private persons as to intitle some to be raised to an higher class, and reduce others to a lower, enjoined, that the census should be renewed every five years. As the census was usually closed by the lustrum, the Romans henceforth began to compute time by lustrums, each lustrum containing the space of five years. However, the lustrums were not always regularly observed, but often put off, tho' the census had been made in the fifth year. Some writers are of opinion, that Servius at this time coined the first money that had ever appeared at Rome; and add, that the circumstances of the lustrum probably led him to stamp the figures of the animals there slain, on pieces of brass of a certain weight.

46 The freedmen.

The government of the city being thus established in so regular a manner, Servius, touched with compassion for those whom the misfortunes of an unsuccessful war had reduced to slavery, thought that such of them as had by long and faithful services deserved and obtained their freedom, were much more worthy of being made Roman citizens, than untractable vagabonds from foreign countries, who were admitted without distinction. He therefore gave the freedmen their choice, either to return to their own country, or continue at Rome. Those who chose to continue there, he divided into four tribes, and settled them within the city; and though they were distinguished from the plebeians by their old name of *liberti*, or *freedmen*, yet they enjoyed all the privileges of free citizens. The senate took offence at the regard which the king shewed to such mean people, who had but lately shaken off their fetters; but Servius, by a most humane and judicious discourse, entirely appeased the fathers, who passed his institution into a law, which subsisted ever after.

47 Reforms the royal power.

The wise king, having thus established order among the people, undertook at last to reform the royal power itself; his equity, which was the main spring of all his resolutions, leading him to act contrary to his own interest, and to sacrifice one half of the royal authority to the public good. His predecessors had reserved to themselves the cognizance of all causes both public and private; but Servius, finding the duties of his office too much for one man to discharge well, committed the cog-

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48 Endeavours to attach the Sabines and Latins to the Romans.

cognizance of ordinary suits to the senate, and reserved that only of state-crimes to himself.

All things being now regulated at home, both in the city and country, Servius turned his thoughts abroad, and formed a scheme for attaching the Sabines and Latins to the Romans, by such social ties as should be strengthened by religion. He summoned the Latin and Sabine cities to send their deputies to Rome, to consult about an affair of great importance. When they were come, he proposed to them the building of a temple in honour of Diana, where the Latins and Sabines should meet once a-year, and join with the Romans in offering sacrifices to that goddess; that this festival should be followed by a council, in which all disputes between the cities should be amicably determined; that there proper measures should be taken to pursue their common interest; and, lastly, in order to draw the common people thither, a fair should be kept, at which every one might furnish himself with what he wanted. The king's design met with no opposition: the deputies only added to it, that the temple should be an inviolable asylum for the united nations; and that all the cities should contribute toward the expence of building it. It being left to the king to choose a proper place for it, he pitched upon the Aventine hill, where the temple was built, and assemblies annually held in it. The laws which were to be observed in these general meetings, were engraved on a pillar of brass, and were to be seen in Augustus's time, in the Latin tongue, but in Greek characters.

49 Wicked intrigues of his daughter and son-in-law.

But now Servius was grown old; and the ambition of Tarquin his son-in-law revived in proportion as the king advanced in years. His wife used her utmost endeavours to check the rashness and fury of her husband, and to divert him from all criminal enterprizes; while her younger sister was ever instigating Arunx, who placed all his happiness in a private life, to the most villainous attempts. She was continually lamenting her fate in being tied to such an indolent husband, and wishing she had either continued unmarried, or were become a widow. Similitude of temper and manners, formed, by degrees, a great intimacy between her and Tarquin. At length she proposed nothing less to him than the murdering of her father, sister, and husband, that they two might meet and ascend the throne together. Soon after, they paved their way to an incestuous marriage, he by poisoning his wife, and she her husband; and then had the assurance to ask the king's and queen's consent to their marriage. Servius and Tarquinia, though they did not give it, were silent, thro' too much indulgence to a daughter in whom now was their only hope of posterity. But these criminal nuptials were only the first step towards a yet greater iniquity. The wicked ambition of the new-married couple first showed itself against the king: for they publicly declared, that the crown belonged to them; that Servius was an usurper, who, being appointed tutor to Tarquin's grandchildren, had deprived his pupils of their inheritance; that it was high time for an old man, who was but little able to support the weight of public affairs, to give place to a prince who was of a mature age, &c.

The patricians, whom Servius had taken great pleasure in humbling during the whole time of his reign, were easily gained over to Tarquin's party; and, by the help of money, many of the poorer citizens were also brought over to his interest. The king, being informed of their treasonable practices, endeavoured to dissuade his daughter and son-in-law from such proceedings, which might end in their ruin; and exhorted them to wait for the kingdom till his death. But they, despising his counsels and paternal admonitions, resolved to lay their claim before the senate; which Servius was obliged to summon: so that the affair came to a formal process. Tarquin reproached his father-in-law with having ascended the throne without a previous interregnum; and with having bought the votes of the people, and despised the suffrages of the senate. He then urged his own right of inheritance to the crown, and injustice of Servius, who, being only his guardian, had kept possession of it, when he himself was of an age to govern. Servius answered, That he had been lawfully elected by the people; and that, if there could be an hereditary right to the kingdom, the sons of Ancus had a much better one than the grandsons of the late king, who must himself have been an usurper. He then referred the whole to an assembly of the people: which being immediately proclaimed all over the city, the forum was soon filled; and Servius harangued the multitude in such a manner as gained all their affections. They all cried out with one voice, *Let Servius reign; let him continue to make the Romans happy.* Amidst their confused clamours, these words were likewise heard: *Let Tarquin perish; let him die; let us kill him.* This language frightened him so, that he retired to his house in great haste; while the king was conducted back to his palace with the acclamations of the people.

The ill success of this attempt cooled Tarquin's ardent desire of reigning; but his ambition made him act a new part. He undertook to regain the favour of his father-in-law, by caresses, submissions, and protestations of a sincere regard and affection for him; insomuch, that the king, who judged of the policy of others from his own, was sincerely reconciled to him, and tranquillity re-established in the royal family. But it was not long ere Tarquin, roused by the continual reproaches of his wife, began to renew his intrigues among the senators; of whom he had no sooner gained a considerable party, than he clothed himself in the royal robes, and causing the fasces to be carried before him by some of his domestics, crossed the Roman forum, entered the temple where the senate used to meet, and seated himself on the throne. Such of the senators as were in the faction he found already in their places (for he had given them private notice to be there early); and the rest, being summoned to assemble in Tarquin's name, made what haste they could to the appointed place, thinking that Servius was dead, since Tarquin assumed the title and functions of king. When they were all assembled, Tarquin made a long speech, reviling his father-in-law, and repeating the invectives against him, which he had so often uttered, calling him a slave, an usurper, a favourer of the populace, and an enemy to the senate and patricians. When he was yet speaking, Servius arrived; and, rashly giving way to the motions of his courage, without considering his strength, drew near the throne, to pull Tar-

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quin down from it. This raised a great noise in the assembly, which drew the people into the temple; but nobody ventured to part the two rivals. Tarquin therefore, being more strong and vigorous, seized the old man by the waist, and, hurrying him through the temple, threw him down from the top of the steps into the forum. The king, who was grievously wounded, raised himself up with some difficulty: but all his friends had abandoned him; only two or three of the people, touched with compassion, lent him their arms to conduct him to his palace.

As they were leading him on so slowly, the cruel Tullia appeared in the forum, whither she had hastened in her chariot on the first report of what had passed in the senate. She found her husband on the top of the steps of the temple; and, transported with joy, was the first who saluted him king. The example was immediately followed by the senators of Tarquin's party. Nor was this enough for the unnatural daughter: she took aside her husband, and suggested to him, that he would never be safe so long as the usurper of his crown was alive. Hereupon Tarquin instantly dispatched some of his domestics to take away the remains of the unfortunate king's life. The orders for the wicked parricide were no sooner given, than Tullia mounted her chariot again, with an air of triumph, to return home. The way to her house was through a narrow street, called *vicus cyprius*, or the *good street*. There the assassins had left the king's body, which was still panting. At this sight, the charioteer, struck with horror, checked his horses, and made a stop: but Tullia forced him to go on; and the blood of the father is said to have dyed the wheels of the chariot, and even the clothes of the inhuman daughter, whence the street was called ever after *vicus scleratus*.

50 Servius Tullius murdered.

51 Tarquin II. a cruel tyrant.

The new king proved a most despotic and cruel tyrant; receiving, in the very beginning of his reign, the surname of *proud*, on account of his capricious humour and haughty behaviour. All controversies whatever were decided by himself and his friends; and he banished, fined, and even executed, whom he pleased. The census and lustrum, the division of citizens into classes and centuries were abolished; and all kinds of assemblies, even those for amusement and recreation, were prohibited, both in town and country. Nay, to such a height did Tarquin carry his insolence and tyranny, that the most virtuous of the senators went into voluntary banishment; while many of those who remained were cut off on various pretences, that the king might enjoy their estates.

Tarquin could not but be sensible of the extreme danger in which he stood by losing the affections of his people in such a manner. He therefore provided a sufficient number of soldiers, by way of guard, to prevent attempts upon his person; and gave his daughter to Octavius Mamilius, one of the most considerable men among the Latins, in order to strengthen his interest by this foreign alliance, in case of a revolt among his subjects. Mamilius accordingly procured many friends to his father-in-law, but he had like to have lost them again by his haughty behaviour. He had desired the Latins to call a national council at Ferentinum, where he would meet them on a day appointed by himself. The Latins accordingly met; but after waiting for several hours, Tarquin did not appear. On this, one Turnus Herdonius, an enterprising and eloquent man, who hated Tarquin, and was jealous of Mamilius, made a speech, in which he inveighed against the haughty behaviour of Tarquin, set forth the contempt which he had put upon the Latins, and concluded with desiring the council to break up and return home without taking any further notice of him. Mamilius, however, prevailed upon them to return the day following; when Tarquin made his appearance, and told the assembly that his design in calling them together was to claim his right of commanding the Latin armies, which he said was derived from his grandfather, but which he desired to be confirmed to him by them. These words were scarce out of his mouth, when Herdonius, rising up, entered into a detail of Tarquin's tyranny and arbitrary behaviour at Rome, which, he said, the Latins would soon feel in an equal degree, if they complied with Tarquin's demand. To this speech the king made no reply at that time, but promised to answer him next day. In the mean time, however, he bribed the domestics of Herdonius to admit among his baggage a large quantity of arms; and then, telling the Latins that Herdonius's opposition proceeded only from Tarquin's having refused him his daughter in marriage, accused him of having laid a plot to cut off all the deputies there present, and to usurp a jurisdiction over the Latin cities; as a proof of which he appealed to the arms hid among the baggage of Herdonius. The accused, conscious of his innocence, desired that his baggage might be searched; which being accordingly done, and the arms found, he was hurried away without being allowed to make any defence, and thrown into a bason at the head of the spring of Ferentinum, where a hurdle being laid upon him, and stones laid upon the hurdle, he was pressed down into the water and drowned.

52 His infamous stratagem to destroy Herdonius.

In consequence of this monstrous treachery, Tarquin was looked upon by the Latins as their deliverer, and declared general of the Latin armies; soon after which, the Hernici and two tribes of the Volsci entered into an alliance with him on the same terms. In order to keep these considerates together, Tarquin, with their consent, erected a temple to Jupiter Latialis on an hill near the ruins of Alba, where he appointed certain feasts called *Feriæ Latinæ* to be held on the 27th of April, where the several nations were to sacrifice together, and on no account to commit any hostilities against each other during their continuance. The king then proceeded to make war on the rest of the Volsci who had refused to enter into an alliance with him. Some depredations which they had committed in the territories of the Latins served for a pretence to begin the war; but as Tarquin had no confidence in the Romans, his army was composed only of a small body of them who were incorporated among the Latin auxiliaries. However, he defeated the enemy, took one of their cities by storm, and gave the booty to his soldiers. He next turned his arms against the Sabines, whom he entirely defeated in two engagements, and made the whole nation tributary; for which exploits he decreed himself two triumphs, and on his return.

53 Institutes the Feriæ Latinæ.

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return to Rome he employed the populace in finishing the sewers and circus which had been begun by his grandfather Tarquin I.

54 Reduces Gabii by treachery.

In the mean time the persecutions of Tarquin against his own subjects daily drove some of the most considerable into banishment. A great number of Patricians took refuge in Gabii, a city of Latium about 13 miles from Rome; where the inhabitants, touched with compassion for their misfortunes, not only received them with kindness, but began a war with Tarquin on their account. The Gabini seem to have been the most formidable enemies whom the Romans had hitherto met with; since Tarquin was obliged to raise a prodigious bulwark to cover the city on the side of Gabii. The war lasted seven years; during which time, by the mutual devastations committed by the two armies, a great scarcity of provisions took place in Rome. The people soon grew clamorous; and Tarquin being unable either to quiet them, or to reduce the Gabini, fell upon the following dishonourable and treacherous expedient. His son Sextus Tarquinius pretended to be on very bad terms with his father, and openly inveighed against him as a tyrant; on which he was proclaimed a rebel, and publicly beaten in the forum. This being reported at Gabii, by persons sent thither on purpose, the inhabitants became very desirous of having Sextus among them; and accordingly he soon went thither, having previously obtained a solemn promise from the inhabitants never to deliver him up to his father. Here he made frequent inroads into the Roman territories, and always came back laden with spoil, his father sending against him only such weak parties as must infallibly be worsted. By this means he soon came to have such a high degree of credit among the Gabini, that he was chosen general of their army, and and was as much master at Gabii as Tarquin was at Rome. Finding then that his authority was sufficiently established, he dispatched a slave to his father for instructions; but the king, unwilling to return an explicit answer, only took the messenger into the garden, where he struck off the heads of the tallest poppies. Sextus understood that by this hint the king desired him to put to death the leading men in the city of Gabii, which he immediately put in execution; and while the city was in confusion on account of this massacre, he opened the gates to his father, who took possession of the city with all the pride of a conqueror.—The inhabitants dreaded every thing from the haughty tyranny of the Roman monarch; however, on this occasion he consulted his policy rather than his revenge; granted them their life, liberty, and estates, and even entered into a treaty of alliance with them. The articles were written on the hide of an ox, which was still to be seen in the time of Augustus, in the temple of Jupiter Fidius. After this, however, he made his son Sextus king of Gabii; sending off also his two other sons, Titus and Arunx, the one to build a city at Signia, the other at Circæum, a promontory of the Tyrrhene sea, and both these to keep the Volsci in awe.

For some time Tarquin now enjoyed a profound peace; the Romans, being accustomed to oppression and the yoke of an imperious master, making no opposition to his will. During this interval Tarquin met with the celebrated adventure of the Sibyl *; whose books were ever afterwards held in high estimation at Rome, and Tarquin appointed two persons of distinction to take care of them. These were called *Duumviri*: but their number was afterwards increased to 10, when they were called *Decemviri*; and then to 15, when they were termed *Quindecemviri*. At this time also the written civil law had its origin among the Romans; all the statutes enacted by the kings being collected into one body; which, from Papirius the name of the collector, was called the *Papirian* law. The temple of the capitol was also finished; for which purpose the most skilful architects and workmen were brought from Hetruria, the populace being obliged to serve them in the most laborious parts.

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* See *Sibyl.*

55 Books of the Sybils.

56 Downfal of the regal power.

We now come to the important revolution which put an end to the regal power at Rome, and introduced a new form of government, to which this city is allowed to owe the greatest part of her grandeur. Tarquin, as we have already seen, had left himself no friends among the rich citizens by reason of the oppression under which he made them labour; and the populace were equally disaffected on account of their being obliged to labour in his public works. Among the many persons of distinction who had been sacrificed to the avarice or suspicions of Tarquin, was one M. Junius, who had married the daughter of Tarquin I. This nobleman had a son named *L. Junius Brutus*, who escaped the cruelty of the tyrant by pretending to be an idiot, which part he had ever since continued to act. Soon after the finishing of the works abovementioned, a violent plague happening to break out at Rome, Tarquin sent his sons Titus and Arunx to consult the oracle of Delphi; and the princes took Brutus along with them, to divert themselves with his pretended folly by the way. Brutus chose for his offering to the Delphic Apollo, a stick of elder; which occasioned much laughter. However, he had the precaution to inclose a rod of gold within the stick; and to this probably it was owing that the priestess gave the princes the following riddle, that he who should first kiss his mother, should succeed Tarquin in the government of Rome. This answer had been given to their inquiries concerning the succession; upon which the two brothers either drew lots which of them should kiss their mother at their return, or agreed to do it at once that both might reign jointly: but Brutus, imagining the oracle had another meaning, fell down and kissed the earth the common mother of all living. This, in all probability, the priestess had meant; and had given the answer on purpose to have another proof of Brutus's ingenuity, which had already discovered itself by his offering of the elder-stick.

On the return of the princes to Rome, they found their father engaged in a war with the Rutuli. The treasury being exhausted by the sums which Tarquin had expended in his public works, he had marched to Ardea the capital of that nation, which lay about 20 miles from Rome, in hopes of taking it without opposition. Contrary to his expectation, however, he was obliged to besiege it in form; and this constrained him to lay a heavy tax upon his subjects, which increased the number of malcontents, and disposed every thing for a revolt. As the siege was carried on very slowly, the

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the general officers frequently made entertainments for one another in their quarters. One day, when Sextus Tarquinius was entertaining his brothers, the conversation happened to turn upon their wives: every one extolled the good qualities of his own; but Collatinus bestowed such extravagant praises on his Lucretia, that the dispute ended in a kind of quarrel. It was then resolved that they should mount their horses and surprise their wives by their unexpected return. The king's daughters-in-law were employed in feasting and diversion, and seemed much disconcerted by the appearance of their husbands; but Lucretia, though the night was far advanced, was found, with her maids about her, spinning and working in wool. She was not at all discomposed by the company whom her husband brought with him, and they were all pleased with the reception she gave them. As Lucretia was very beautiful, Sextus Tarquinius conceived a passion for her, which, resolving to satisfy at all events, he soon returned to Collatia in the absence of Lucretia's husband, and was entertained by her with great civility and respect. In the night-time he entered Lucretia's apartment, and threatened her with immediate death if she did not yield to his desires. But finding her not to be intimidated with this menace, he told her, that, if she still persisted in her refusal, he would kill one of her male slaves, and lay him naked by her when she was dead, and then declare to all the world that he had only revenged the injury of Collatinus. On this the virtuous Lucretia (who, it seems, dreaded prostitution less than the infamy attending it) submitted to the desires of Sextus; but resolved not to outlive the violence which had been offered her. She dressed herself in mourning, and took a poinard under her robe, having previously wrote to her husband to meet her at her father Lucretius's house, where she refused to discover the cause of her grief except in a full assembly of her friends and relations. Here, addressing herself to her husband Collatinus, she acquainted them with the whole affair; exhorted them to revenge the injury; and protested that she would not outlive the loss of her honour. Every one present gave her a solemn promise that they would revenge her quarrel; but while they endeavoured to comfort her, she suddenly stabbed herself to the heart with the dagger which she had concealed under her robe.

57 Lucretia, ravished by Sextus Tarquinius, kills herself.

This extravagant action inflamed beyond measure the minds of all present. Brutus, laying aside his pretended folly, drew the bloody dagger out of Lucretia's body; and, showing it to the assembly, swore by the blood upon it that he would pursue Tarquin and his family with fire and sword: nor would he ever suffer that or any other family to reign in Rome. The same oath was taken by all the company; who were so much surprised at the apparent transition of Brutus from folly to wisdom, that they did whatever he desired them. By his advice the gates of the city were shut, that nobody might go out of it to inform Tarquin of what was going forward; which, as Lucretius had been left governor of the city by Tarquin, was put in execution without difficulty. The corpse of Lucretia was then exposed to public view; and Brutus having made a speech to the people, in which he explained the mystery of his conduct in counterfeiting folly for many years past, proceeded to tell them that the patricians were come to a resolution of deposing the tyrant, and exhorted them to concur in the same design. The people testified their approbation, and called out for arms; but Brutus did not think proper to trust them with arms till he had first obtained a decree of the senate in favour of the design. This was easily procured: the senate enacted that Tarquin had forfeited all the prerogatives belonging to the regal authority, condemned him and all his posterity to perpetual banishment, and devoted to the gods of hell every Roman who should hereafter by word or deed endeavour his restoration; and this decree was unanimously confirmed by the curiæ.

58 Tarquin deposed.

59 The form of government changed.

Tarquin being thus deposed, the form of government became the next object. Lucretius was for the present declared *Inter Rex*; but Brutus being again consulted, declared, that though it was by no means proper for the state to be without supreme magistrates, yet it was equally necessary that the power should not be centered in one man, and that it should not be perpetual. For this reason he proposed, that two magistrates, called *consuls*, should be elected annually; that the state should thenceforth have the name of *republic*; that the ensigns of royalty should be abolished; and that the only ensigns of consular dignity should be an ivory chair, a white robe, and 12 lictors for their attendants. However, that he might not utterly abolish the name of king, he proposed that this title should be given to him who had the superintendency of religious matters, who should thenceforth be called *rex sacrorum*, or *king of sacred things*.

This scheme of Brutus being approved of, Brutus and Collatinus were proposed by Lucretius as the two first consuls, and unanimously accepted by the people, who thought it was impossible to find more implacable enemies to the Tarquins. They entered on their office in the year 508 B. C.; and Tullia, perceiving that now all was lost, thought proper to leave the city and retire to her husband at Ardea. She was suffered to depart without molestation, though the populace hooted at her and cursed her as she went along. Tarquin, in the mean time, being informed by some who had got out of Rome before the gates were shut, that Brutus was raising commotions to his prejudice, returned in haste to the city, attended only by his sons and a few friends; but, finding the gates shut, and the people in arms on the walls, he returned again to the camp: but here again, to his surprise, he found that the consuls had taken the opportunity of gaining over the army to their interest; so that, being refused admittance into the camp also, he was forced to fly for refuge, at the age of 76, with his wife and three sons, to Gabii, where Sextus had been made king. Here he continued for some time: but not finding the Latins very forward to revenge his cause, he retired into Hetruria; where, being the country of his mother's family, he hoped to find more friends, and a readier assistance for attempting the recovery of his throne.

60 Tullius leaves Rome.

61 State of the Roman empire at this time.

The Romans now congratulated themselves on their happy deliverance from tyranny. However, as Tarquin had by his policy procured himself many friends abroad, these now became enemies to the Roman name; and, by the defection of their allies, the Roman

Rome. man dominions were left in much the same state as they had been in the time of Romulus. The territory of Rome had always been confined to a very narrow compass. Though almost constantly victorious in war for 243 years, they had not yet gained land enough to supply their city with provisions. The main strength of the state lay in the number of the citizens of Rome; which the custom of transplanting the inhabitants of the conquered cities thither had so prodigiously increased, that it put the Romans in a condition of usurping the authority over other nations, the most inconsiderable of which had an extent of territory far exceeding theirs. By frequent depredations and incursions they so harrassed the petty states of Latium and Hetruria, that many of them were constrained to enter into treaties with Rome, by which they obliged themselves to furnish her with auxiliaries whenever she should be pleased to invade and pillage the lands of her other neighbours. Submissions of this kind the Romans called *making alliances* with them, and these useful alliances supplied the want of a larger territory: but now, upon the change of her government, all the allies of Rome forsook her at once, and either stood neuter, or espoused the cause of the banished king; so that she was now obliged to maintain her liberties as she best might.

The new consuls in the mean time took the most effectual methods they could for securing the liberties of the republic. The army which had been employed in the siege of Ardea, marched home under the conduct of Herminius and Horatius, who concluded a truce with the Ardeates for 15 years. The consuls then again assembled the people by centuries, and had the decree of Tarquin's banishment confirmed; a *rex sacrorum* was elected to preside at the sacrifices, and many of the laws of Servius Tullius were revived, to the great joy of the people, who were thus restored to their ancient right of voting in all important affairs. Tarquin, however, resolved not to part with his kingdom on such easy terms. Having wandered from city to city in order to move compassion, he at length made Tarquinii the seat of his residence; where he engaged the inhabitants to send an embassy to Rome, with a modest, submissive letter from himself, directed to the Roman people. The ambassadors represented in such strong terms to the senate how reasonable it was to let the king be heard before he was condemned, and the danger which threatened the state from the neighbouring powers if that common justice were refused, that the consuls inclined to bring these agents before the people, and to leave the decision thereof to the curiæ; but Valerius, who had been very active in the revolution, strenuously opposed this, and by his influence in the senate got it prevented. As that illustrious body had been greatly thinned by the murders committed by Tarquin, new members were elected from among the knights, and the ancient number of 300 again completed. The old senators had been called *patres* or *fathers*; and as the names of the new ones were now written on the same roll, the whole body received the name of *patres conscripti*.

62 Tarquin writes to the Roman people.

The old king was not to be foiled by a single attempt. He prevailed on the inhabitants of Tarquinii to send a second embassy to Rome, under pretence of demanding the estates of the exiles, but with private instructions to get the consuls assassinated. The restoration of the estates of the exiles was opposed by Brutus, but Collatinus was for complying with it; whereupon Brutus accused his colleague of treachery, and of a design to bring back the tyrant. The matter was then referred to the people, where it was carried by one vote in favour of the Tarquins. But whilst the people were employed in loading carriages with the effects of the exiles, and in selling what could not be carried off, the ambassadors found means to draw some of the nearest relations of the consuls into a plot with them. These were three young noblemen of the Aquilian family (the sons of Collatinus's sister), and two of the Vitellii (whose sister Brutus had married); and these last engaged Titus and Tiberius, the two sons of Brutus, in the same conspiracy. They all bound themselves by solemn oaths, with the dreadful ceremony of drinking the blood of a murdered man and touching his entrails. They met at the house of the Aquilii, where they wrote letters to Tarquin and gave them to the ambassadors. But though they used all imaginable precaution, their proceedings were overheard by one Vindicius a slave, who immediately communicated the whole to Valerius; upon which all the criminals were apprehended. Brutus stood judge over his own sons; and, notwithstanding the intercession of the whole assembly, and the tears and lamentations of his children, commanded them to be beheaded; nor would he depart till he saw the execution of the sentence. Having performed this piece of heroic barbarity, he quitted the tribunal, and left Collatinus to perform the rest. Collatinus, however, being inclined to spare his nephews, allowed them a day to clear themselves; and caused Vindicius, the only witness against them, to be delivered up to his masters. This roused the indignation of the people in general, especially of Valerius, who had promised to protect the witness, and therefore he refused to deliver him up to the lictors. The multitude called aloud for Brutus to return; which, when he had done, he told them that he had executed his two sons in consequence of his own paternal authority over them, but that it belonged to the people to determine the fate of the rest. Accordingly, by a decree of the curiæ, all the delinquents suffered as traitors except the ambassadors, who were spared out of respect to their character. The slave Vindicius had his liberty granted him; and was presented with 25,000 ases of brass, in value about 80 l. 14 s. 7 d. of our money. The decree for restoring the estates of the exiled Tarquins was annulled, their palaces were destroyed, and their lands divided among the indigent people. The public only retained a piece of ground, near the Campus Martius, which the king had usurped. This they consecrated to Mars, and it afterwards became a common field where the Roman youth afterwards exercised themselves in running and wrestling. But after this consecration, the superstitious Romans scrupled to use the corn which they found there ready reaped to their hands: so that, with some trees, it was thrown into the Tiber; and the water being low, it stopped in the middle of the river, and began to form a fine island named afterwards *Insula Sacra*.

63 A conspiracy formed in his favour.

64 Brutus causes two of his own sons to be beheaded.

The behaviour of Brutus towards his two sons struck such a terror into the Romans, that scarce any person durst

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durst oppose him; and therefore, as he hated Collatinus, he openly accused him before the people, and without ceremony deposed him from the consulship, banishing him at the same time from Rome. The multitude acquiesced in every thing he said, and refused to hear Collatinus speak in his own defence; so that the consul was on the point of being driven out with ignominy and disgrace, when Lucretius interposed, and prevailed upon Brutus to allow his colleague quietly to resign the fasces, and retire of his own accord from the city. Brutus then, to remove all suspicions of personal enmity, procured him a present of 20 talents out of the public treasury, to which he added five of his own. Collatinus then retired to Lavinium, where he lived in peace, and at last died of old age.

65 Deposes his colleague Collatinus.

After the abdication of Collatinus, Valerius was chosen in his room; and as his temper agreed much better with Brutus than that of Collatinus, the two consuls lived in great harmony. Nothing, however, could make the dethroned king forego the hope of recovering his kingdom by force. He first engaged the Volsci and Tarquinienses to join their forces in order to support his rights. The consuls marched out without delay to meet them. Brutus commanded the horse and Valerius the foot, drawn up in a square battalion. The two armies being in sight of each other, Brutus advanced with his cavalry, at the same time that Arunx, one of Tarquin's sons, was coming forward with the enemy's horse, the king himself following with the legions. Arunx no sooner discovered Brutus, than he made towards him with all the fury of an enraged enemy. Brutus advanced towards him with no less speed; and as both were actuated only by motives of hatred, without thoughts of self-preservation, both of them were pierced through with their lances. The death of the two generals served as a prelude to the battle, which continued with the utmost fury till night, when it could not be known which side had got the victory, or which had lost the greatest number of men. A report was spread, however, that a voice had been heard out of a neighbouring wood, declaring the Romans conquerors; and this, probably a stratagem of Valerius, operated so powerfully on the superstitious minds of the Volsci, that they left their camp in confusion, and returned to their own country. It is said that Valerius, having caused the dead to be numbered, found that the Volsci had lost 11,300 men, and the Romans only one short of that number.

66 The Volsci and Tarquinienses declare in favour of Tarquin.

67 Brutus and Arunx kill each other.

Valerius being left without a colleague in the consulship, and having for some reasons delayed to choose one, began to be suspected by the people of aspiring at the sovereignty; and these suspicions were in some measure countenanced by his building a fine house on the steep part of the hill Palatinus, which overlooked the forum, and was by them considered as a citadel. But of this Valerius was no sooner informed, than he caused this house to be pulled down, and immediately called an assembly of the people for the election of a consul, in which he left them entirely free. They chose Lucretius, and, being ashamed of having suspected Valerius, they complimented him with a large ground-plot in an agreeable place, where they built him a house. The new consul died a few days after his promotion, so that Valerius was once more left sole governor. In the interval betwixt the death of Lucretius and the choice of another consul, Valerius gave the people so many striking proofs of his attachment to their interest, that they bestowed upon him the surname of *Poplicola* or *Popular;* nor was he ever called by another name afterwards.

When Poplicola's year of consulship expired, the Romans thought fit, in consequence of the critical situation of affairs, to elect him a second time, and joined with him T. Lucretius, the brother of the famous Lucretia. They began with restoring the census and lustrum; and found the number of Roman citizens, at or above the age of puberty, to amount to 130,000. As they apprehended an attack from the Latins on account of Tarquin, they were at great pains to fortify Sinquirinum or Singliuria, an important post on that side. Contrary to their expectations, however, the Latins remained quiet; but an haughty embassy was received from Porsena king of Clusium in Hetruria, commanding them either to take back the Tarquins to Rome, or to restore them their estates. To the first of these demands the consuls returned an absolute refusal: and, as to the second, they answered, that it was impracticable; a part of those estates having been consecrated to Mars, and the rest divided among indigent people, from whom they could not be recovered. The imminent danger which now threatened the city, procured Valerius the honour of a third consulship; and with him was joined Horatius Pulvilius, who had enenjoyed the dignity for a few months before in the interval betwixt the death of Lucretius and the expiration of the first consulate.

68 Porsena invades the Roman territories.

While the Romans were making the most vigorous preparations for defence, Porsena, attended by his son Arunx and the exiles, marched towards the city at the head of a formidable army, which was quickly joined by a considerable body of Latins under Mamilius, the son-in-law of Tarquin. The consuls and the senate took all imaginable care to supply the common people with provisions, lest famine should induce them to open the gates to Tarquin; and they desired the country people to lodge their effects in the fort Janiculum, which overlooked the city, and which was the only fortified place possessed by the Romans on that side the Tiber. Porsena, however, soon drove the Romans out of this fort; upon which the consuls made all their troops pass the river, and drew them up in order of battle to defend the bridge, while Porsena advanced to engage them. The victory was a long time doubtful; but at last the Romans fled. Horatius Cocles, nephew to the consul, with Sp. Lartius and T. Herminius, who had commanded the right-wing, posted themselves at the entrance of the bridge, and for a long time bravely defended it: but at last, the defensive arms of Lartius and Herminius being broken, they retired; and then Horatius desiring them to advise the consuls from him to cut the bridge at the other end, he for a while sustained the attack of the enemy alone. At last, being wounded in the thigh, and the signal given that the bridge was almost broken down, he leaped into the river, and swam across it through a shower of darts. The Romans, in token of gratitude for this eminent service, erected a statue to him in the temple of Vulcan, gave him as much land as he himself with one yoke of oxen could plough in one day; and each of the inhabitants, to the number of 300,000, gave him the value

69 And defeat their army.

70 Bravery of Horatius Cocles.

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of as much food as each consumed in a day. But notwithstanding all this, as he had lost one eye, and from his wounds continued lame throughout the remainder of his life, these defects prevented his ever being raised to the consulate, or invested with any military command.

The city was not yet fully invested; but as it was very difficult to find provisions for such a multitude, the inhabitants soon began to be in want. Porsena being informed of their difficulties, told them that he would supply them with provisions if they would take back their old masters; but to this they replied, that hunger was a less evil than slavery and oppression. The constancy of the Romans, however, was on the point of failing, when a young patrician, named *Mutius Cordus*, with the consent of the senate and consuls, undertook to assassinate Porsena. He got access to the Hetrurian camp, disguised like a peasant, and made his way to the king's tent. It happened to be the day on which the troops were all reviewed and paid; and Porsena's secretary, magnificently dressed, was fitting on the same tribunal with the king. Mutius, mistaking him for Porsena, instantly leaped upon the tribunal and killed him. He then attempted to make his escape; but being seized and brought back, he owned his design; and with a countenance expressive of desperate rage and disappointment, thrust his hand which had missed the blow into a pan of burning coals which stood by, and there held it for a considerable time. On this, Porsena, changing his resentment into admiration, granted him his life and liberty, and even restored him the dagger with which he intended to have stabbed himself. Mutius took it with his left-hand, having lost the use of the other; and from this time had the name of *Scævola*, or "left-handed." He then, in order to induce Porsena to break up the siege, invented a story that 300 young Romans, all of them as resolute as himself, had sworn to take away the life of the king of Hetruria, or to perish in the attempt. This had the desired effect; Porsena sent deputies to Rome, whose only demands were, that the Romans should restore the estates of the Tarquins, or give them an equivalent, and give back the seven small towns which had been formerly taken from the Veientes. The latter of these demands was cheerfully complied with; but the former was still refused, until Porsena should hear the strong reasons they had to urge against it. A truce being agreed on, deputies were sent to the Hetrurian camp to plead the Roman cause against the Tarquins, and with them ten young men, and as many virgins, by way of hostages for performing the other article.

71 Attempt of Mutius Cordus to assassinate Porsena.

The reception which Porsena gave the deputies, raised the jealousy of the Tarquins; who still retaining their ancient pride, refused to admit Porsena for a judge between them and the Romans. But the king, without any regard to their opposition, resolved to satisfy himself, by an exact inquiry, whether the protection he had given the Tarquins was just. But while the cause was ready to be opened before the Roman deputies, news were brought, that the young women whom the Romans had sent as hostages, had ventured to swim across the Tiber, and were returned to Rome. They had gone to bathe in the river, and Clælia happening to turn her eyes towards her native city, that sight raised in her a desire of returning to it. She therefore ventured to swim cross the river; and having encouraged her companions to follow her, they all got safe to the opposite shore, and returned to their fathers houses. The return of the hostages gave the consul Poplicola great uneasiness; he was afraid lest this rash action might be imputed to want of fidelity in the Romans. To remove therefore all suspicions, he sent a deputation to the Hetrurian camp, assuring the king that Rome had no share in the foolish attempt of the young women; and promising to send them immediately back to the camp from whence they had fled. Porsena was easily appeased; but the news of the speedy return of the hostages being known in the camp, the Tarquins, without any regard to the truce, or respect to the king their protector, lay in ambush on the road to surprise them. Poplicola having put himself at the head of the Roman troops who escorted them, sustained the attack of the Tarquins, though sudden and unexpected, till his daughter Valeria rode full speed to the Hetrurian camp, and gave notice of the danger her father and companions were in; and then Arunx, the king's son, flying with a great body of cavalry to their relief, put the aggressors to the rout.

72 Adventure of Clælia.

73 Treachery of the Tarquins.

This notorious piece of treachery in the Tarquins gave Porsena strong suspicions of the badness of their cause. He therefore assembled the chief commanders of the Hetrurians; and having heard in their presence the complaints of the Romans, and the justification of their proceedings against the Tarquins, he was so struck with horror at recital of the crimes the Tarquins were charged with, that he immediately ordered them to leave his camp; declaring, that he renounced his alliance with them, and would no longer continue the hospitality he had shown them. He then commanded the ten young virgins to be brought before him, and inquired who was the first author and chief manager of the enterprize. They all kept silence, till Clælia herself, with an air of intrepidity, confessed, that she alone was guilty, and that she had encouraged the others by her advice. Upon this, the king, extolling her resolution above the bravery of Horatius and the intrepidity of Mutius, made her a present of a fine horse, with sumptuous furniture. After this he concluded a peace with the Romans, and restored to them all their hostages; declaring, that their bare word was to him a sufficient security for the performance of the articles.

74 Porsena abandons their cause.

75 Concludes a peace with the Romans, and relieves them.

And now Porsena being about to return to Clusium, gave, before his departure, a further testimony of his respect and friendship for the Romans. He knew that Rome was greatly distressed for want of provisions; but being afraid to offend the inhabitants by relieving them in a direct manner, he ordered his soldiers to leave behind them their tents and provisions, and to carry nothing with them but their arms. As his camp abounded with all sorts of provisions, Rome was hereby much relieved in her wants. The moveables and corn of the Hetrurians were sold by auction to private persons; and on this occasion the Romans took up the custom of making a proclamation by an herald, whenever any effects belonging to the public were to be sold, in the following words, *These are Porsena's goods*. The design of this was to preserve the memory of that prince's kindness. The senate, not satisfied with this, erected a statue of the king near the comitium, and sent an embassy to him with a present of a throne adorned with ivory,

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ivory, a sceptre, a crown of gold, and a triumphal robe.

Thus the Romans escaped the greatest danger they had hitherto been in. However, they did not yet enjoy tranquillity. The Sabines revolted, and continued the war for some time with great obstinacy: but being defeated in several engagements, they were at last obliged to submit; and scarce was this war ended, when another began with the Latins, who now declared for king Tarquin. Before they began this war, however, an embassy was sent to Rome, the purport of which was, that the Romans should raise the siege of Fidenæ which had revolted, and receive the Tarquins; who, on their part, should grant a general amnesty. The ambassadors were to allow the Romans a whole year to consider on these overtures; and to threaten them with a war in case they refused to comply with them. The chief view of Tarquin and his partisans in promoting this embassy, was, to lay hold of that opportunity to raise a sedition in the city. To the embassadors therefore, of the Latins he joined some of his own emissaries, who, on their arrival in the city, found two sorts of people disposed to enter into their measures; to wit, the slaves, and the meaner citizens.

76 The Latins declare for Tarquin.

77 A dangerous conspiracy against the state.

The slaves had formed a conspiracy the year before to seize the Capitol, and set fire to the city in several quarters at the same time. But the plot being discovered, those who were concerned in it had been all crucified, and this execution had highly provoked the whole body of slaves. As to the meaner citizens, who were for the most part overwhelmed with debt, and cruelly used by their creditors, they were well apprised that there could happen no change in the government but to their advantage. These were the conspirators pitched upon, and to them were given the following parts to act: the citizens were to make themselves masters of the ramparts and gates of the city, at an appointed hour of the night; and then to raise a great shout as a signal to the slaves, who had engaged to massacre their masters at the same instant: the gates of the city were then to be opened to the Tarquins, who were to enter Rome while it was yet reeking with the blood of the senators. The conspiracy was ripe for execution, when Tarquin's principal agents, Publius and Marcus, both of his own name and family, being terrified with frightful dreams, had not courage enough to proceed in their design, till they had consulted a diviner. However, they did not discover to him the conspiracy; but only asked him in general terms, what success they might expect in a project they had formed. The soothsayer, without the least hesitation, returned the following answer: *Your project will end in your ruin; disburden yourselves of so heavy a load.* Hereupon the Tarquins, fearing lest some of the other conspirators should be beforehand with them in informing, went immediately to S. Sulpitius, the only consul then at Rome, and discovered the whole matter to him. The consul greatly commended them, and detained them in his house, till, by private inquiries, he was assured of the truth of their depositions. Then he assembled the senate, and gave the Latin ambassadors their audience of leave, with an answer to their proposals; which was, that the Romans would neither receive the Tarquins, nor raise the siege of Fidenæ, being all to a man ready to sacrifice their lives in defence of their liberties, and willing to undergo any dangers rather than submit to the government of a tyrant.

78 How discovered.

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The ambassadors being dismissed with this answer, and conducted out of the city, Sulpitius laid open to the fathers the dreadful conspiracy. It struck them with horror: but they were all at a loss in what manner they should apprehend and punish the guilty; since, by the law of Poplicola, there was an appeal to the people in all capital cases; and the two witnesses, who were strangers, might be excepted against by Roman citizens. In this perplexity they left the whole conduct of this critical affair to Sulpitius; who took a method which he thought would equally serve to prove the guilt, and punish the guilty. He engaged the two informers to assemble the conspirators, and to appoint a rendezvous at midnight in the forum, as if they designed to take the last measures for the execution of the enterprize. In the mean time he used all proper means to secure the city, and ordered the Roman knights to hold themselves ready, in the houses adjoining to the forum, to execute the orders they should receive. The conspirators met at the time and place appointed by the two Tarquins; and the knights, upon a signal agreed on beforehand, invested the forum, and blocked up all the avenues to it so closely, that it was impossible for any of the conspirators to make their escape. As soon as it was light, the two consuls appeared with a strong guard on the tribunal; for Sulpitius had sent to his collegue Manius, who was besieging Fidenæ, desiring him to hasten to the city with a chosen body of troops. The people were convened by curiæ, and acquainted with the conspiracy which had been formed against the common liberty. The accused were allowed to make their defence, if they had any thing to offer against the evidence; but not one of them denying the fact, the consuls repaired to the senate, where sentence of death was pronounced against the conspirators, in case the people approved it.

79 The conspirators punished.

This decree of the senate being read to and approved by the assembly, the people were ordered to retire, and the conspirators were delivered up to the soldiers, who put them all to the sword. The peace of Rome was thought sufficiently secured by this stroke of severity; and therefore, though all the conspirators were not punished with death, it was judged proper not to make any further inquiries. The two informers were rewarded with all the privileges of Roman citizens, 100,000 ases, and 20 acres of land. Three festival-days were appointed for expiations, sacrifices, and public games, by way of thanksgiving to the gods. But the general joy was disturbed by a melancholy accident: as the people were conducting Manius Tullius the consul from the circus to his house, he fell from his chariot, and died three days after.

The city of Fidenæ was not yet reduced: it held out during the following consulship of T. Æbutius and P. Veturius; but was taken the next year by T. Lartius, who, together with Q. Cœlius, was raised to the consular dignity. The Latins, enraged at the loss of this town, began to complain of their leading men; which opportunity Tarquin and Mamilius improved so far, as to make all the Latin cities, 24 in number, enter into

Rome. into an alliance against Rome, and to bind themselves by oath never to violate their engagements. The Latins made vast preparations, as did likewise the Romans; but the latter could procure no assistance from their neighbours. As the Latin nation was much superior to them in strength, they sent deputies to solicit succours from the several states with which they were surrounded: but their negociations proved every where unsuccessful; and, what was worse than all, the republic had rebellious sons in her own bosom, who refused to lend their aid in defence of their country. The poorer sort of people, and the debtors, refused to take
80 the military oaths, or to serve; alleging their poverty, Disturbances at Rome. and the fruitless hazards they ran in fighting for the defence of a city, where they were oppressed and enslaved by their creditors. This spirit of mutiny spread among the inferior classes, most of them refusing to list themselves, unless their debts were all remitted by a decree of the senate; nay, they began to talk of leaving the city, and settling elsewhere.

The senate, apprehending a general insurrection, assembled to deliberate on the means of quieting those domestic troubles. Some were for a free remission of all debts, as the safest expedient at that juncture; others urged the dangerous consequences of such a condescension, advising them to list such only as were willing to serve, not doubting but those who refused their assistance, would offer it of their own accord when it was no longer desired. Several other expedients were proposed: but at length this prevailed; to wit, that all actions for debts should be suspended till the conclusion of the war with the Latins. But this the indigent debtors thought only a suspension of their misery; and therefore it had not the intended effect on the minds of the unruly multitude. The senate might indeed have prosecuted the ringleaders of the sedition; but the law of Poplicola, called the *Valerian law*, which allowed appeals to the assembly of the people, was a protection for the seditious, who were sure of being acquitted by the accomplices of their rebellion. The senate therefore, to elude the effect of a privilege that put such a restraint upon their power, resolved to create one supreme magistrate, who, with the title of *dictator*, should have an absolute power for a time: but as this could not be done without striking at the law of Poplicola, and transferring the power of the people in criminal cases to a magistrate superior to all laws, it was necessary to use artifice, in order to obtain the consent of the curiæ. They therefore represented to them in a public assembly, that, in so difficult a conjuncture, when they had their domestic quarrels to decide, and at the same
81 time a powerful enemy to repulse, it would be ex- A dictator created. pedient to put the commonwealth under a single governor, who, superior to the consul themselves, should be the arbiter of the laws, and, as it were, the father of his country; that his power should have no limits: but, however, lest he should abuse it, they ought not to trust him with it above six months.

The people, not foreseeing the consequences of this change, agreed to it; but the greatest difficulty was to find a man duly qualified in all respects for so great a trust. T. Lartius, one of the consuls, seemed to be of all men the most unexceptionable; but the senate, fearing to offend his colleague by an invidious preference, gave the consuls the power of choosing a dictator, and obliged them to name one of themselves, not doubting but Clœlius would yield to the superior talents of his colleague; nor were they disappointed in their expectation. But Lartius, with the same readiness, name Clœlius; and the only contest was, which of the two should raise the other to the supreme authority. Each persisted obstinately in remitting the dignity to his colleague, till Cœlius, starting up on a sudden, abdicated the consulship, and, after the manner of an interrex, proclaimed Titus Lartius dictator, who thereupon was obliged to take upon him the government of the republic.

Lartius indeed took as much state upon him, after 82 He chooses a general of horse. he had entered upon his office, as he had shown modesty in refusing it. He began by creating, without the participation either of the senate or people, a general of the Roman horse; an office which lasted only during the dictatorship, and which all subsequent dictators revived immediately after their election. Sp. Cassius, formerly consul, and honoured with a triumph, was the person he advanced to this second station in the republic. Lartius, having by this means secured the Roman knights, resolved, in the next place, to make the people respect and fear him. With this view he never appeared in public, without being attended by 24 lictors, to whose fasces he again added the axes which Poplicola had caused to be taken from them. The novelty of this sight was alone sufficient to awe the seditious, and, without executions, to spread consternation throughout Rome. The murmurs of the inferior classes being by this means silenced, the dictator commanded a census to be taken, according to the institution of king Servius. Every one, without exception, brought in his name, age, the particulars of 83 his estate, &c. and there appeared to be in Rome Number of the Romans. 150,700 men who were past the age of puberty. Out of these the dictator formed four armies: the first he commanded himself; the second he gave to Clœlius his late colleague; the third to Sp. Cassius his general of the horse; and the fourth he left in Rome, under the command of his brother Sp. Lartius, who was to guard the city. The Latins not being so forward in their preparations as was expected, all their hostilities against Rome this campaign amounted to no more than the sending a detachment into the Roman territory to lay it waste. The dictator gained some advantage over that party; and the great humanity with which he treated the prisoners and wounded, disposed the Latins to listen the more readily to the overtures which he at the same time made them for a suspension of hostilities. At length a truce was agreed on for a year; and then Lartius, seeing the republic restored to its former tranquility, resigned the dictatorship, though the time appointed for its duration was not yet expired.

The following consulship of Sempronius Atratinus and Minutius Angurinus, produced nothing memorable. But the next year the truce expired, when Aulus Posthumius and T. Virginius took possession of the consulship. Both Romans and Latins were busied in making the necessary preparations for war. The nobility of Latium, who were for the most part in the interest of the Tarquins, having found means to exclude the citizens from the Latin diets, carried all

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before them in those assemblies: whereupon many of the citizens removed with their families to Rome, where they were well received. The Latins being bent upon war, the senate, notwithstanding the perfect harmony that reigned between them and the people, thought it expedient to create a dictator. The two consuls were therefore impowered to name one of themselves to that dignity; whereupon Virginius readily yielded it to his colleague Posthumius, as the more able commander. The new dictator, having created Æbutius Elva his general of the horse, and divided his army into four bodies, left one of them, under the command of Sempronius, to guard the city; and with the other three, commanded by himself, Virginius, and Æbutius, marched out against the Latins, who, with an army of 40,000 foot and 3000 horse, under the command of Sextus Tarquinius, Titus Tarquinius, and Mamilius, had already made themselves masters of Corbio, a strong-hold belonging to the republic, and put the garrison to the sword. Posthumius encamped in the night on a steep hill near the lake Regillus, and Virginius on another hill over-against him. Æbutius was ordered to march silently in the night, with the cavalry and light-armed infantry, to take possession of a third hill upon the road, by which provisions must be brought to the Latins.

84 Battle of Regillus.

Before Æbutius had fortified his new camp, he was vigorously attacked by Lucius Tarquinius, whom he repulsed three times with great loss, the dictator having sent him a timely reinforcement. After this, Æbutius intercepted two couriers sent by the Volsci to the Latin generals, and, by letters found upon them, discovered, that a considerable army of the Volsci and Hernici were to join the Latin forces in three days. Upon this intelligence, Posthumius drew his three bodies of troops together, which amounted in all to no more than 24,000 foot and 1000 horse, with a design to engage the enemy before the arrival of the succours they expected. Accordingly he encouraged his men, and, with his army in battle-array, advanced to the place where the enemy was encamped. The Latins, who were much superior to the Romans in numbers, and besides began to want provisions, did not decline the engagement. Titus Tarquinius, at the head of the Roman exiles and deserters, was in the centre, Mamilius in the right wing, and Sextus Tarquinius in the left. In the Roman army the dictator commanded in the centre, Æbutius in the left wing, and Virginius in the right.

The first body which advanced was that of the dictator; and, as soon as it began to march, T. Tarquinius, singling out the dictator, ran full speed against him. The dictator did not decline the encounter, but, flying at his adversary, wounded him with a javelin in the right side. Upon this, the first line of the Latins advanced to cover their general; but he being carried out of the field, they made but a faint resistance when charged by the troops of the dictator. They were destitute of a leader; and therefore began to retire, when Sextus Tarquinius, taking the place of his brother, brought them back to the charge, and renewed the fight with such vigour, that the victory in the centre was still doubtful. On the side of Mamilius and Ebutius, both parties, encouraged by the example of their leaders, fought with incredible bravery and resolution. After a long and bloody contest, the two generals agreed to determine the doubtful victory by a single combat. Accordingly the champions pushed on their horses against each other. Æbutius with his lance wounded Mamilius in the breast; and Mamilius with his sword Æbutius in the right arm. Neither of the wounds were mortal; but, both generals falling from their horses, put an end to the combat. Marcus Valerius, the brother of Poplicola, supplying the place of Æbutius, endeavoured, at the head of the Roman horse, to break the enemy's battalions; but was repulsed by the cavalry of the Roman royalists. At the same time Mamilius appeared again in the van, with a considerable body of horse and light-armed infantry. Valerius, with the assistance of his two nephews, the sons of Poplicola, and a chosen troop of volunteers, attempted to break through the Latin battalions, in order to engage Mamilius; but, being surrounded by the Roman exiles, he received a mortal wound in his side, fell from his horse, and died. The dead body was carried off by the two sons of Poplicola, in spite of the utmost efforts of the exiles, and delivered to Valerius's servants, who conveyed it to the Roman camp; but the young heroes being afterwards invested on all sides, and overpowered by numbers, were both killed on the spot. Upon their death, the left wing of the Romans began to give ground, but were soon brought back by Posthumius; who, with a body of Roman knights, flying to their assistance, charged the royalists with such fury, that they were, after an obstinate resistance, obliged to give way, and retire in the utmost confusion. In the mean time Titus Horminius, one of the dictator's lieutenants, having rallied those who had fled, fell upon some close battalions of the enemy's right wing, which still kept their ground under the command of Mamilius, killed him with his own hand, and put that body to flight. But while he was busy in stripping the body of his enemy, he received himself a wound, of which he died soon after.

Sextus Tarquinius in the mean time maintained the fight with great bravery, at the head of the left wing, against the consul Virginius; and had even broke thro' the right wing of the Roman army, when the dictator attacked him unexpectedly with his victorious squadrons. Then Sextus, having lost at once all hopes of victory, threw himself, like one in despair, into the midst of the Roman knights, and there sunk under a multitude of wounds, after he had distinguished himself in a most eminent manner. The death of the three generals was followed by the entire defeat of the Latin army. Their camp was taken and plundered, and most of their troops cut in pieces; for, of the 43,000 men who came into the field, scarce 10,000 returned home. The next morning the Volsci and Hernici came, according to their agreement, to assist the Latins; but finding, upon their arrival, how matters had gone, some of them were for falling upon the Romans before they could recover from the fatigue of the preceding day; but others thought it more safe to send ambassadors to the dictator, to congratulate him on his victory, and assure him that they had left their own country with no other design than to assist Rome in so dangerous a war. Posthumius, by producing their couriers and letters, gave them to understand

85 The Latins entirely defeated, and their camp taken.

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ſtand that he was well apprifed of their deſigns and treacherous proceedings. However, out of a regard to the law of nations, he ſent them back unhurt, with a challenge to their generals to fight the next day: but the Volſci, and their confederates, not caring to engage a victorious army, decamped in the night, and returned to their reſpective countries before break of day.

86 The whole nation ſubmits.

The Latins, having now no remedy but an entire ſubmiſſion, ſent ambaſſadors to ſolicit a peace at Rome, yielding themſelves abſolutely to the judgment of the ſenate. As Rome had long ſince made it a maxim to ſpare the nations that ſubmitted, the motion of Titus Lartius, the late dictator, prevailed; and the ancient treaties with the Latins were renewed, on condition, however, that they ſhould reſtore the priſoners they had taken, deliver up the deſerters, and drive the Roman exiles out of Latium. Thus ended the laſt war which the Romans waged with their neighbours on account of their baniſhed king; who, being now abandoned by the Latins, Hetrurians, and Sabines, retired into Campania, to Ariſtodemus tyrant of Cumæ, and there died, in the 90th year of his age and 14th of his exile.

27 Tarquin dies.

The Romans were no ſooner freed from theſe dangerous wars, than they began to oppreſs one another, and thoſe domeſtic feuds took place which continued more or leſs during the whole time of the republic. The firſt diſturbances were occaſioned by the oppreſſion of the plebeians who were debtors to the patricians. The ſenate, who were at the head of the patricians, choſe to the conſulate one Appius Claudius, who violently oppoſed the pretenſions of the plebeians; but gave him for his colleague one P. Servilius, who was of a quite contrary opinion and diſpoſition. The conſequence of this was, that the conſuls diſagreed; the ſenate did not know what to determine, and the people were ready to revolt. In the midſt of theſe diſturbances, an army of the Volſci advanced towards Rome; the people refuſed to ſerve; and had not Servilius procured ſome troops who ſerved out of a perſonal affection to himſelf, the city would have been in great danger.

88 New diſturbances at Rome.

But though the Volſci were for this time driven back, they had no intention of dropping their deſigns; they engaged in an alliance with them the Hernici and Sabines. In the mean time, the diſputes at Rome continued with as much violence as ever. Nay, though they were expreſsly told that the Volſcian army was on its way to beſiege the city, the plebeians abſolutely refuſed to march againſt them; ſaying, that it was the ſame thing whether they were chained by their own countrymen or by the enemy. In this extremity Servilius promiſed, that when the enemy were repulſed the ſenate would remit all the debts of the plebeians. This having engaged them to ſerve, the conſul marched out at their head, defeated the enemy in a pitched battle, and took their capital, giving it up to be plundered by his ſoldiers without reſerving any part for the public treaſury.

Whatever might have been the reaſons of Servilius for this ſtep, it furniſhed Appius with a pretence for refuſing him a triumph, as a man of a ſeditious diſpoſition, who aimed at popularity by an exceſſive indulgence and profuſeneſs to his ſoldiers. Servilius, incenſed at this injuſtice, and encouraged by the acclamations of the people, decreed himſelf a triumph in ſpite of Appius and the ſenate. After this he marched againſt the Aurunci, who had entered Latium; and, in conjunction with Poſthumius Regillens, he utterly defeated them, and obliged them to retire into their own country. But neither the ſervices of the general nor his ſoldiers could mollify the ſenate and patrician party. Appius even doubled the ſeverity of his judgments, and impriſoned all thoſe who had been ſet at liberty during the war. The priſoners cried for relief to Servilius: but he could not obtain the accompliſhment of thoſe promiſes which the ſenate never had meant to perform; neither did he chooſe to quarrel openly with the whole patrician body; ſo that, ſtriving to preſerve the friendſhip of both parties, he incurred the hatred of the one, and the contempt of the other. Perceiving therefore that he had loſt all his intereſt with the plebeians, he joined with the patricians againſt them; but the plebeians ruſhing tumultuouſly into the forum, made ſuch a noiſe, that no ſentence pronounced by the judges could be heard, and the utmoſt confuſion prevailed through the whole city. Several propoſals were made to accommodate matters; but through the obſtinacy of Appius and the majority of the ſenators, they all came to nothing. In the mean time it was neceſſary to raiſe an army againſt the Sabines, who had invaded the territories of the republic; but the people refuſed to ſerve. Manius Valerius, however, brother to the celebrated Poplicola, once more prevailed upon them to march out againſt the common enemy; having previouſly obtained aſſurances from the ſenate that their grievances ſhould be redreſſed. But no ſooner had victory declared in favour of the Romans, than the ſenate, apprehending that the ſoldiers at their return would challege Valerius, who had been nominated dictator, for the performance of their promiſes, deſired him and the two conſuls to detain them ſtill in the field, under pretence that the war was not quite finiſhed. The conſuls obeyed; but the dictator, whoſe authority did not depend on the ſenate, diſbanded his army, and declared his ſoldiers free from the oath which they had taken; and as a further proof of his attachment to the plebeians, he choſe out of that order 400, whom he inveſted with the dignity of knights. After this he claimed the accompliſhment of the promiſes made by the ſenate: but inſtead of performing them, he had the mortification to hear himſelf loaded with reproaches; on which he reſigned his office as dictator, and acquainted the people with his inability to fulfil his engagements to them. No ſooner were theſe tranſactions known in the army, than the ſoldiers, to a man, deſerted the conſuls and other officers, and retired to a hill called afterwards *Mons Sacer*, three miles from Rome, where they continued to obſerve an exact diſcipline, offering no ſort of violence whatever. The ſenate, after taking proper meaſures for the defence of the city, ſent a deputation to the malecontents; but it was anſwered with contempt. In ſhort, all things tended to a civil war, when at laſt matters were compromiſed by the inſtitution of tribunes of the people, who had power to prevent the paſſing of any law that might be prejudicial to the people, and whoſe perſons were declared ſacred, inſomuch that whoever offered the leaſt violence to the perſon of a tribune was declared

89 The ſoldiers revolt, but all the troubles are ended by creating tribunes of the people.

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red accurſed, his effects were to be conſecrated to Ceres, and he himſelf might be killed with impunity; and all the Romans were to engage themſelves, in their own name and that of their poſterity, never to repeal this law. The people, after theſe regulations, erected an altar to Jupiter the Terrible, on the top of the hill where their camp had ſtood; and when they had offered ſacrifices to the god, and conſecrated the place of their retreat, they returned to Rome, led by their new magiſtrates and the deputies of the ſenate.

Thus the Roman conſtitution, which had originally been monarchic, and from thence had paſſed into an ariſtocracy, began now to verge towards a democracy. The tribunes immediately after their election obtained permiſſion from the ſenate to elect two perſons as their miniſters or aſſiſtants, who ſhould eaſe them a little in the great multiplicity of their affairs. Theſe were called *plebeian ædiles;* and afterwards came to have the inſpection of the public baths, aqueducts, with many other offices originally belonging to the conſuls, after which they were called ſimply *ædiles.*

All oppoſition to the making of regular levies being now at an end, the conſul Cominius led an army againſt the Volſci. He defeated them in battle, and took from them Longula and Poluſca; after which he beſieged Corioli, a city ſtrongly fortified, and which might be called their capital. He carried this place, and gained a victory over the Antiates, the ſame day: but Caius Marcius, an eminent patrician, had all the glory of both actions. The troops detached by the conſul to ſcale the walls of Corioli being repulſed in their firſt aſſault, Marcius rallied the runaways, led them on afreſh to the charge, drove back the enemy within their walls, and, entering the city with them, made himſelf maſter of it. This exploit atchieved, he with all expedition put himſelf in the foremoſt ranks of the conſul's main army, that was juſt going to engage with the Antiates, who were come to the relief of the place; and there he behaved with equal bravery, and had equal ſucceſs.

90 Bravery of Caius Marcius Coriolanus.

The next day the conſul, having erected his tribunal before his tent, called the ſoldiers together. His whole ſpeech to them was little more than a panegyric upon Marcius. He put a crown upon his head; aſſigned him a tenth part of all the ſpoil; and in the name of the republic, made him a preſent of a fine horſe with ſtately furniture, giving him leave at the ſame time to chooſe out any ten of the priſoners for himſelf; and laſtly, he allotted him as much money as he could carry away. Of all theſe offers, Marcius accepted only the horſe, and one captive of the ten, an old friend of his family, that he might give him his liberty. To add to the glory of the brave warrior, the conſul beſtowed on him the ſurname of *Coriolanus*, transferring thereby from himſelf to Marcius all the honour of the conqueſt of Corioli. Cominius, at his return to Rome, diſbanded his army; and war was ſucceeded by works of religion, public games, and treaties of peace. A cenſus and a luſtrum cloſed the events of this memorable conſulſhip. There appeared to be in Rome at this time no more than 110,000 men fit to bear arms; a number by many thouſands leſs than at the laſt enrollment. Doubtleſs great numbers had run away to avoid being ſlaves to their creditors.

91 Diminution of the number of the Romans.

Under the following adminiſtration of T. Geganius and P. Minucius, Rome was terribly afflicted by a famine, occaſioned chiefly by the neglect of ploughing and ſowing during the late troubles; for the ſedition had happened after the autumnal equinox, about ſowing-time, and the accommodation was not made till juſt before the winter ſolſtice. The ſenate diſpatched agents into Hetruria, Campania, the country of the Volſci, and even into Sicily, to buy corn. Thoſe who embarked for Sicily met with a tempeſt which retarded their arrival at Syracuſe; where they were conſtrained to paſs the winter. At Cumæ, the tyrant Ariſtodemus ſeized the money brought by the commiſſaries; and they themſelves with difficulty ſaved their lives by flight. The Volſci, far from being diſpoſed to ſuccour the Romans, would have marched againſt them, if a ſudden and moſt deſtructive peſtilence had not defeated their purpoſe. In Hetruria alone the Roman commiſſaries met with ſucceſs. They ſent a conſiderable quantity of grain from thence to Rome in barks: but this was in a ſhort time conſumed, and the miſery became exceſſive: the people were reduced to eat any thing they could get; and nature in ſo great extremity loathed nothing.

92 A famine in the city.

During this diſtreſs a deputation came from Velitræ a Volſcian city, where the Romans had formerly planted a colony, repreſenting that nine parts in ten of its inhabitants had been ſwept away by a plague, and praying the Romans to ſend a new colony to re-people it. The conſcript fathers without much heſitation granted the requeſt, preſſed the departure of the colony, and without delay named three leaders to conduct it.

93 A colony ſent to Velitræ.

The people at firſt were very well pleaſed with the propoſal, as it gave them a proſpect of relief in their hunger: but when they reflected on the terrible havoc the plague had made among the old inhabitants of Velitræ, they began to fear that the place might be ſtill infected; and this apprehenſion became ſo univerſal, that not one of them would conſent to go thither. Nevertheleſs the ſenate at length publiſhed a decree that all the citizens ſhould draw lots; and that thoſe to whoſe lot it fell to be of the colony, ſhould inſtantly march for Velitræ, or ſuffer the ſevereſt puniſhments for their diſobedience: fear and hunger made the people comply; and the fathers, a few days after, ſent away a ſecond colony to Norba, a conſiderable city of Latium. But the patricians were diſappointed as to the benefit they expected from theſe meaſures. The plebeians who remained in Rome, being more and more preſſed by hunger and want, grew daily more angry with the ſenate. At firſt they aſſembled in ſmall companies to vent their wrath in abuſive complaints; and at length, in one great body, ruſhed all together into the forum, calling out upon their tribunes for ſuccour.

The tribunes made it their buſineſs to heighten the general diſcontent. Having convened the people, Spurius Icilius, chief of the college of tribunes, inveighed moſt bitterly againſt the ſenate; and when he had ended his harangue, exhorted others to ſpeak freely their thoughts; particularly, and by name, calling upon Brutus and Sicinnius, the ringleaders of the former ſedition, and now ædiles. Theſe men, far from attempting to extinguiſh the fire, added freſh fuel to it: And the more to inflame the ſpirits of the multitude, they enumerated all the paſt inſults which the people had

94 Diſturbances raiſed by the tribunes.

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had suffered from the nobles. Brutus concluded his harangue with loudly threatening, that if the plebeians would follow his advice, he would soon oblige those men who had caused the present calamity to find a remedy for it: after which, the assembly was dismissed.

The next day, the consuls, greatly alarmed at this commotion, and apprehending from the menaces of Brutus some very mischievous event, thought it advisable to convene the senators, that they might consider of the best means to avert the impending evil. The fathers could not agree in opinion. Some were for employing soft words and fair promises to quiet and gain over the most turbulent. But Appius's advice prevailed: which was, that the consuls should call the people together, assure them that the patricians had not brought upon them the miseries they suffered, and promise, on the part of the senate, all possible care to provide for their necessities; but at the same time, should reprove the disturbers of the public peace, and threaten them with the severest punishments if they did not amend their behaviour.

When the consuls, towards the close of the day, having assembled the people, would have signified to them the disposition and intention of the senate, they were interrupted by the tribunes. A dispute ensued, in which no order or decency was observed on either side. Several speaking at the same time, and with great vociferation, no one could be well understood by the audience. The consuls judged, that being the superior magistrates, their authority extended to all assemblies of the citizens. On the other side, it was pretended, that the assemblies of the people were the province of the tribunes, as the senate was that of the consuls.

The dispute grew warm, and both parties were ready to come to blows; when Brutus having put some questions to the consuls, ended it for that time. Next day he proposed a law which was carried, that no person whatever should interrupt a tribune when speaking in an assembly of the people; by which means the influence and power of the popular party was considerably increased, and the tribunes became formidable opponents to the consuls and patricians. An opportunity soon offered for both parties to try their strength. A great fleet of ships laden with corn from Sicily, a great part of which was a present from Gelon the king of that country to the Romans, and the rest purchased by the senate with the public money, raised their spirits once more.

95 e power the ple in- ffes.

But Coriolanus incurred their resentment, by insisting that it should not be distributed till the grievances of the senate were removed. For this, the tribunes summoned him to a trial before the people, under pretence that he aspired at the sovereignty.

96 olanus ished.

When the appointed day was come, all persons were filled with the greatest expectations, and a vast concourse from the adjacent country assembled and filled up the forum. Coriolanus, upon this, presented himself before the people with a degree of intrepidity that merited better fortune. His graceful person, his persuasive eloquence, the cries of those whom he had saved from the enemy, inclined the auditors to relent. But being confounded with a new charge which he did not expect, of having embezzled the plunder of Antium, the tribunes immediately took the votes, and Coriolanus was condemned to perpetual exile.

This sentence against their bravest defender, struck the whole body of the senate with sorrow, consternation, and regret. Coriolanus alone, in the midst of the tumult, seemed an unconcerned spectator. He returned home, followed by the lamentations of hundreds of the most respectable senators and citizens of Rome, to take a lasting leave of his wife, his children, and his mother Veturia. Thus recommending his little children to their care, he left the city, without followers or fortune, to take refuge with Tullus Attius, a man of great power among the Volscians, who took him under his protection, and espoused his quarrel.

97 He leaves the city, and joins the Volsci.

The first thing to be done, was to induce the Volsci to break the league which had been made with Rome; and for this purpose Tullus sent many of his citizens thither, in order to see some games at that time celebrating; but at the same time gave the senate private information, that the strangers had dangerous intentions of burning the city. This had the desired effect; the senate issued an order, that all strangers, whoever they were, should depart from Rome before sun-set. This order Tullus represented to his countrymen as an infraction of the treaty; and procured an embassy to Rome, complaining of the breach, and demanding back all the territories belonging to the Volscians, of which they had been violently dispossessed; declaring war in case of a refusal: but this message was treated by the senate with contempt.

98 Gains great advantages over the Romans.

War being thus declared on both sides, Coriolanus and Tullus were made generals of the Volscians; and accordingly invaded the Roman territories, ravaging and laying waste all such lands as belonged to the plebeians, but letting those of the senators remain untouched. In the mean time the levies went on very slowly at Rome; the two consuls, who were re-elected by the people, seemed but little skilled in war, and even feared to encounter a general whom they knew to be their superior in the field. The allies also showed their fears, and slowly brought in their succours; so that Coriolanus continued to take their towns one after the other. Fortune followed him in every expedition; and he was now so famous for his victories, that the Volsci left their towns defenceless to follow him into the field. The very soldiers of his colleague's army came over to him, and would acknowledge no other general. Thus finding himself unopposed in the field, and at the head of a numerous army, he at length invested the city of Rome itself, fully resolved to besiege it. It was then that the senate and the people unanimously agreed to send deputies to him, with proposals of restoration, in case he should draw off his army. Coriolanus received their proposals at the head of his principal officers, and, with the sternness of a general that was to give the law, refused their offers.

99 Invests the city.

Another embassy was now sent forth, conjuring him not to exact from his native city aught but what became Romans to grant. Coriolanus, however, still persisted in his former demands, and granted them but three days in which to finish their deliberations. In this exigence, all that was left was another deputation still more solemn than either of the former, composed of the pontiffs, the priests, and the augurs. These, cloathed in their habits of ceremony, and with a grave and

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and mournful deportment, iſſued from the city, and entered the camp of the conqueror: but all in vain, they found him ſevere and inflexible as before.

When the people ſaw them return ineffectually, they began to give up the commonwealth as loſt. Their temples were filled with old men, with women and children, who, proſtrate at their altars, put up their ardent prayers for the preſervation of their country. Nothing was to be heard but anguiſh and lamentation, nothing to be ſeen but ſcenes of affright and diſtreſs. At length it was ſuggeſted to them, that what could not be effected by the interceſſion of the ſenate or the adjuration of the prieſts, might be brought about by the tears of his wife or the commands of his mother. This deputation ſeemed to be reliſhed by all; and even the ſenate itſelf gave it the ſanction of their authority. Veturia, the mother of Coriolanus, at firſt made ſome heſitation to undertake ſo pious a work: however, ſhe at laſt undertook the embaſſy, and ſet forward from the city, accompanied by many of the principal matrons of Rome, with Volumnia his wife, and his two children. Coriolanus, who at a diſtance diſcovered this mournful train of females, was reſolved to give them a denial, and called his officers round him to be witneſs of his reſolution; but, when told that his mother and his wife were among the number, he inſtantly came down from his tribunal to meet and embrace them. At firſt, the womens tears and embraces took away the power of words; and the rough ſoldier himſelf, hard as he was, could not refrain from ſharing in their diſtreſs. Coriolanus now ſeemed much agitated by contending paſſions; while his mother, who ſaw him moved, ſeconded her words by the moſt perſuaſive eloquence, her tears: his wife and children hung round him, intreating for protection and pity; while the fair train, her companions, added their lamentations, and deplored their own and their country's diſtreſs. Coriolanus for a moment was ſilent, feeling the ſtrong conflict between honour and inclination; at length, as if rouzed from his dream, he flew to take up his mother, who had fallen at his feet, crying out, "O my mother, thou haſt ſaved Rome, but loſt thy ſon." He accordingly gave orders to draw off the army, pretending to the officers that the city was too ſtrong to be taken. Tullus, who had long envied his glory, was not remiſs in aggravating the lenity of his conduct to his countrymen. Upon their return, Coriolanus was ſlain in an inſurrection of the people, and afterwards honourably buried, with late and ineffectual repentance.

100 But abandons the enterprize at the interceſſion of his mother.

102 Is aſſaſſinated by the Volſci.

The year following, the two conſuls of the former year, Manlius and Fabius, were cited by the tribunes to appear before the people. The Agrarian law, which had been propoſed ſome time before, for equally dividing the lands of the commonwealth among the people, was the object invariably purſued, and they were accuſed of having made unjuſtifiable delays in putting it off.

102 New diſturbances.

It ſeems the Agrarian law was a grant the ſenate could not think of giving up to the people. The conſuls, therefore, made many delays and excuſes, till at length they were once more obliged to have recourſe to a dictator; and they fixed upon Quintus Cincinnatus, a man who had for ſome time given up all views of ambition, and retired to his little farm, where the deputies of the ſenate found him holding the plough, and dreſſed in the mean attire of a labouring huſbandman. He appeared but little elevated with the addreſſes of ceremony and the pompous habits they brought him; and, upon declaring to him the ſenate's pleaſure, he teſtified rather a concern that his aid ſhould be wanted. However, he departed for the city, where both parties were ſtrongly enflamed againſt each other: but he was reſolved to ſide with neither; only, by a ſtrict attention to the intereſts of his country, inſtead of gaining the confidence of faction, to obtain the eſteem of all. Thus, by threats and well-timed ſubmiſſion, he prevailed upon the tribunes to put off their law for a time, and carried himſelf ſo as to be a terror to the multitude whenever they refuſed to enliſt; and their greateſt encourager whenever their ſubmiſſion deſerved it. Thus, having reſtored that tranquillity to the people which he ſo much loved himſelf, he again gave up the ſplendours of ambition, to enjoy it with a greater reliſh in his little farm.

103 Quelled by Cincinnatus.

Cincinnatus was not long retired from his office when a freſh exigence of the ſtate once more required his aſſiſtance. The Æqui and the Volſci, who, tho' ſtill worſted, ſtill were for renewing the war, made new inroads into the territories of Rome. Minutius, one of the conſuls who ſucceeded Cincinnatus, was ſent to oppoſe them; but being naturally timid, and rather more afraid of being conquered than deſirous of victory, his army was driven into a defile between two mountains, from which, except through the enemy, there was no egreſs. This, however, the Æqui had the precaution to fortify; by which the Roman army was ſo hemmed in on every ſide, that nothing remained but ſubmiſſion to the enemy, famine, or immediate death. Some knights, who found means of getting away privately through the enemy's camp, were the firſt that brought the account of this diſaſter to Rome. Nothing could exceed the conſternation of all ranks of people when informed of it. The ſenate at firſt thought of the other conſul; but not having ſufficient experience of his abilities, they unanimouſly turned their eyes upon Cincinnatus, and reſolved to make him dictator. Cincinnatus, the only perſon on whom Rome could now place her whole dependence, was found, as before, by the meſſengers of the ſenate, labouring in his little field with cheerful induſtry. He was at firſt aſtoniſhed at the enſigns of unbounded power, with which the deputies came to inveſt him; but ſtill more at the approach of the principal of the ſenate, who came out to meet him. A dignity ſo unlooked for, however, had no effect upon the ſimplicity or the integrity of his manners: and being now poſſeſſed of abſolute power, and called upon to nominate his maſter of the horſe, he choſe a poor man named *Tarquitius*, one who, like himſelf, deſpiſed riches when they led to diſhonour. Upon entering the city, the dictator put on a ſerene look, and intreated all thoſe who were able to bear arms to repair before ſun-ſet to the Campus Martius (the place where the levies were made) with neceſſary arms, and proviſions for five days. He put himſelf at the head of theſe; and, marching all night with great expedition, he arrived before day within ſight of the enemy.

104 Who ſaves a conſular army from deſtruction.

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enemy. Upon his approach, he ordered his soldiers to raise a loud shout, to apprize the consul's army of the relief that was at hand. The Æqui were not a little amazed when they saw themselves between two enemies; but still more when they perceived Cincinnatus making the strongest entrenchments beyond them, to prevent their escape, and inclosing them as they had inclosed the consul. To prevent this, a furious combat ensued; but the Æqui being attacked on both sides, and unable to resist or fly, begged a cessation of arms. They offered the dictator his own terms: he gave them their lives; but obliged them, in token of servitude, to pass under the yoke, which was two spears set upright, and another across, in the form of a gallows, beneath which the vanquished were to march. Their captains and generals he made prisoners of war, being reserved to adorn his triumph. As for the plunder of the enemy's camp, that he gave entirely up to his own soldiers, without reserving any part for himself, or permitting those of the delivered army to have a share. Thus, having rescued a Roman army from inevitable destruction, having defeated a powerful enemy, having taken and fortified their city, and, still more, having refused any part of the spoil, he resigned his dictatorship, after having enjoyed it but fourteen days. The senate would have enriched him; but he declined their proffers, choosing to retire once more to his farm and his cottage, content with temperance and fame.

But this repose from foreign invasion did not lessen the tumults of the city within. The clamours for the Agrarian law still continued, and still more fiercely, when Sicinius Dentatus, a plebeians, advanced in years, but of an admirable person and military deportment, came forward to enumerate his hardships and his merits. This old soldier made no scruple of extolling the various merits of his youth; but indeed his atchievements supported ostentation. He had served his country in the wars forty years; he had been an officer thirty, first a centurion, and then a tribune: he had fought 120 battles, in which, by the force of his single arm, he had saved a multitude of lives: he had gained fourteen civic, three mural, and eight golden crowns, besides eighty-three chains, sixty bracelets, eighteen gilt spears, and twenty-three horse-trappings, whereof nine were for killing the enemy in single combat: moreover, he had received forty-five wounds, all before, and none behind. These were his honours: yet, notwithstanding all this, he had never received any share of those lands which were won from the enemy, but continued to drag on a life of poverty and contempt; while others were possessed of those very territories which his valour had won, without any merit to deserve them, or ever having contributed to the conquest. A case of so much hardship had a strong effect upon the multitude; they unanimously demanded that the law might be passed, and that such merit should not go unrewarded. It was in vain that some of the senators rose up to speak against it; their voices were drowned by the cries of the people. When reason, therefore, could no longer be heard, passion, as usual, succeeded; and the young patricians, running furiously into the throng, broke the balloting urns, and dispersed the multitude that offered to oppose them. For this they were some time after fined by the tribunes; but their resolution, nevertheless, for the present, put off the Agrarian law.

105 Bravery of Sicinius Dentatus.

106 Violent disturbances.

The commonwealth of Rome had now for near 60 years been fluctuating between the contending orders that composed it, till at length, each side, as if weary, were willing to respire a while from the mutual exertions of their claims. The citizens, now, therefore, of every rank, began to complain of the arbitrary decisions of their magistrates, and wished to be guided by a written body of laws, which being known might prevent wrongs as well as punish them. In this both the senate and the people concurred, as hoping that such laws would put an end to the commotions that so long had harrassed the state. It was thereupon agreed, that ambassadors should be sent to the Greek cities in Italy, and to Athens, to bring home such laws from thence, as by experience had been found most equitable and useful. For this purpose, three senators, Posthumius, Sulpicius, and Manlius, were fixed upon, and galleys assigned to convoy them, agreeable to the majesty of the Roman people. While they were upon this commission abroad, a dreadful plague depopulated the city at home, and supplied the interval of their absence with other anxiety than that of wishes for their return. In about a year the plague ceased, and the ambassadors returned, bringing home a body of laws, collected from the most civilized states of Greece and Italy, which being afterwards formed into ten tables, and two more being added, made that celebrated code called the *laws of the Twelve Tables*, many fragments of which remain to this day.

107 Ambassadors sent to Athens to bring new laws from thence.

108 Decemviri elected.

The ambassadors were no sooner returned, than the tribunes required, that a body of men should be chosen to digest their new laws into proper form, and to give weight to the execution of them. After long debates whether this choice should not be partly made from the people as well as the patricians, it was at last agreed that ten of the principal senators should be elected, whose power continuing for a year, should be equal to that of kings and consuls, and that without any appeal. The persons chosen were, Appius and Genutius, who had been elected consuls for the ensuing year; Posthumius, Sulpicius, and Manlius, the three ambassadors; Sextus and Romulus, former consuls; with Julius Veturius, and Horatius, senators of the first consideration.

The decemviri being now invested with absolute power, agreed to take the reins of government by turns, and that each should dispense justice for a day.

109 They become absolute.

These magistrates, for the first year, wrought with extreme application: and their work being finished, it was expected that they would be contented to give up their offices; but having known the charms of power, they were now unwilling to resign it: they therefore pretended that some laws were yet wanting to complete their design, and intreated the senate for a continuance of their offices; to which that body assented.

But they soon threw off the mask of moderation; and, regardless either of the approbation of the senate or the people, resolved to continue themselves, against all order, in the decemvirate. A conduct so notorious produced discontents; and these were as sure to produce fresh acts of tyranny. The city was become almost a desert, with respect to all who had any thing to lose,

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lose; and the decemvirs rapacity was then only discontinued, when they wanted fresh objects to exercise it upon. In this state of slavery, proscription, and mutual distrust, not one citizen was found to strike for his country's freedom; these tyrants continued to rule without controul, being constantly guarded, not with their lictors alone, but a numerous crowd of dependents, clients, and even patricians, whom their vices had confederated round them.

110 Invasion of the Æqui and Volsci.

In this gloomy situation of the state, the Æqui and Volsci, those constant enemies of the Romans, undertook their incursions, resolved to profit by the intestine divisions of the people, and advanced within about ten miles of Rome.

But the decemviri, being put in possession of all the military as well as of the civil power, divided their army into three parts; whereof one continued with Appius in the city, to keep it in awe; the other two were commanded by his colleagues, and were led, one against the Æqui, and the other against the Sabines. The Roman soldiers had now got into a method of punishing the generals whom they disliked, by suffering themselves to be vanquished in the field. They put it in practice upon this occasion, and shamefully abandoned their camp upon the approach of the enemy.

111 The Romans defeated.

Never was the news of a victory more joyfully received at Rome than the tidings of this defeat: the generals, as is always the case, were blamed for the treachery of their men: some demanded that they should be deposed; others cried out for a dictator to lead the troops to conquest: but among the rest, old Sicinius Dentatus the tribune spoke his sentiments with his usual openness; and treating the generals with contempt, showed all the faults of their discipline in the camp and of their conduct in the field. Appius, in the mean time, was not remiss in observing the disposition of the people. Dentatus in particular was marked out for vengeance, and, under pretence of doing him particular honour, he was appointed legate, and put at the head of the supplies which were sent from Rome to reinforce the army. The office of legate was held sacred among the Romans, as in it were united the authority of a general with the reverence due to the priesthood. Dentatus, no way suspecting his design, went to the camp with alacrity, where he was received with all the external marks of respect. But the generals soon found means of indulging their desire of revenge. He was appointed at the head of 100 men to go and examine a more commodious place for encampment, as he had very candidly assured the commanders that their present situation was wrong. The soldiers, however, who were given as his attendants, were assassins; wretches who had long been ministers of the vengeance of the decemviri, and who now engaged to murder to him, though with all those apprehensions which his reputation, as he was called the *Roman Achilles*, might be supposed to inspire. With these designs they led him from the way into the hollow bosom of a retired mountain, where they began to set upon him from behind. Dentatus now too late perceived the treachery of the decemviri, and was resolved to sell his life as dearly as he could; he therefore put his back to a rock, and defended himself against those who pressed most closely. Though now grown old, he had still the remains of his former valour, and killed no less than fifteen of the assailants, and wounded thirty. The assassins now therefore, terrified at his amazing bravery, showered in their javelins upon him at a distance; all which he received in his shield with undaunted resolution. The combat, tho' so unequal in numbers, was managed for some time with doubtful success, till at length his assailants bethought themselves of ascending the rock against which he stood, and thus poured down stones upon him from above. This succeeded; the old soldier fell beneath their united efforts, after having shown by his death, that he owed it to his fortitude, and not his fortune, that he had come off so many times victorious. The decemviri pretended to join in the general sorrow for so brave a man, and decreed him a funeral with the first military honours; but the greatness of their apparent distress, compared with their known hatred, only rendered them still more detestable to the people.

112 Murder of Sicinius Dentatus.

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113 Tragical story of Virginia.

But a transaction still more atrocious than the former, served to inspire the citizens with a resolution to break all measures of obedience, and at last to restore freedom. Appius, who still remained at Rome, sitting one day on his tribunal to dispense justice, saw a maiden of exquisite beauty, and aged about 15, passing to one of the public schools, attended by a matron her nurse. Conceiving a violent passion for her, he resolved to obtain the gratification of his desire, whatever should be the consequence, and found means to inform himself of her name and family. Her name was *Virginia*, the daughter of Virginius a centurion, then with the army in the field; and she had been contracted to Icilius, formerly a tribune of the people, who had agreed to marry her at the end of the present campaign. Appius, at first, resolved to break this match, and to espouse her himself: but the laws of the Twelve Tables had forbidden the patricians to intermarry with the plebeians; and he could not infringe these, as he was the enacter of them. Nothing therefore remained but a criminal enjoyment; which, as he was long used to the indulgence of his passions, he resolved to obtain. After having vainly tried to corrupt the fidelity of her nurse, he had recourse to another expedient, still more guilty. He pitched upon one Claudius, who had long been the minister of his pleasures, to assert the beautiful maid was his slave, and to refer the cause to his tribunal for decision. Claudius behaved exactly according to his instructions; for entering into the school, where Virginia was playing among her female companions, he seized upon her as his property, and was going to drag her away by force, but was prevented by the people drawn together by her cries. At length, after the first heat of opposition was over, he led the weeping virgin to the tribunal of Appius, and there plausibly exposed his pretensions. He asserted that she was born in his house, of a female slave, who sold her to the wife of Virginius, who had been barren. That he had several credible evidences to prove the truth of what he said; but that, until they could come together, it was but reasonable the slave should be delivered into his custody, being her proper master. Appius seemed to be struck with the justice of his claims. He observed, that if the reputed father himself were present, he might indeed be willing to delay the delivery of the maiden.

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He no ſooner arrived at the camp, followed by a number of his friends, but he informed the army of all that was done, ſtill holding the bloody knife in his hand. He aſked their pardon, and the pardon of the gods, for having committed ſo raſh an action, but aſcribed it all to the dreadful neceſſity of the times. The army, already prediſpoſed, immediately with ſhouts echoed their approbation; and decamping, left their generals behind, to take their ſtation once more upon mount Aventine, whither they had retired about 40 years before. The other army, which had been to oppoſe the Sabines, ſeemed to feel a like reſentment, and came over in large parties to join them.

114 The decemvirate abolifhed.

Appius, in the mean time, did all he could to quell the diſturbances in the city; but finding the tumult incapable of controul, and perceiving that his mortal enemies, Valerius and Horatius, were the moſt active in oppoſition, at firſt attempted to find ſafety by flight; nevertheleſs, being encouraged by Oppius, who was one of his colleagues, he ventured to aſſemble the ſenate, and urged the puniſhment of all deſerters. The ſenate, however, were far from giving him the relief he ſought for; they foreſaw the dangers and miſeries that threatened the ſtate, in caſe of oppoſing the incenſed army; they therefore diſpatched meſſengers to them, offering to reſtore their former mode of government. To this propoſal all the people joyfully aſſented, and the army gladly obeyed. Appius and Oppius, one of his colleagues, both died by their own hands in priſon. The other eight decemvirs went into voluntary exile; and Claudius, the pretended maſter of Virginia, was driven out after them.

115 New diſturbances.

The tribunes now grew more turbulent: they propoſed two laws; one to permit plebeians to intermarry with patricians; and the other, to permit them to be admitted to the conſulſhip alſo. The ſenators received theſe propoſals with indignation, and ſeemed reſolved to undergo the utmoſt extremities rather than ſubmit to enact them. However, finding their reſiſtance only increaſe the commotions of the ſtate, they at laſt conſented to paſs the law concerning intermarriages, hoping that this conceſſion would ſatisfy the people. But they were to be appeaſed but for a very ſhort time: for, returning to their old cuſtom of reſuſing to enliſt upon the approach of an enemy, the conſuls were forced to hold a private conference with the chief of the ſenate; where, after many debates, Claudius propoſed an expedient, as the moſt probable means of ſatisfying the people in the preſent conjuncture. This was, to create ſix or eight governors in the room of conſuls, whereof one half at leaſt ſhould be patricians. This project was eagerly embraced by the people; yet ſo fickle were the multitude, that though many of the plebeians ſtood, the choice wholly fell upon the patricians, who offered themſelves as candidates. Theſe new magiſtrates were called *military tribunes;* they were at firſt but three, afterwards they were increaſed to four, and at length to ſix. They had

116 Military tribunes elected.

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had the power and enſigns of conſuls; yet that power being divided among a number, each ſingly was of leſs authority. The firſt that were choſen only continued in office about three months, the augurs having found ſomething amiſs in the ceremonies of their election.

The military tribunes being depoſed, the conſuls once more came into office; and, in order to lighten the weight of buſineſs which they were obliged to ſuſtain, a new office was erected, namely, that of *cenſors*, to be choſen every fifth year. Their buſineſs was to take an eſtimate of the number and eſtates of the people, and to diſtribute them into their proper claſſes; to inſpect into the lives and manners of their fellow-citizens; to degrade ſenators for miſconduct; to diſmount knights; and to turn down plebeians from their tribes into an inferior, in caſe of miſdemeanour. The two firſt cenſors were Papirius and Sempronius, both patricians; and from this order they continued to be elected for near 100 years.

117 The office cenſor inſtituted.

This new creation ſerved to reſtore peace for ſome time among the orders; and a triumph gained over the Volſcians by Geganius the conſul, added to the univerſal ſatisfaction that reigned among the people.

This calm, however, was but of ſhort continuance: for, ſome time after, a famine preſſing hard upon the poor, the uſual complaints againſt the rich were renewed; and theſe, as before, proving ineffectual, produced new ſeditions. The conſuls were accuſed of neglect, in not having laid in proper quantities of corn: they, however, diſregarded the murmurs of the populace, content with exerting all their care in attempts to ſupply the preſſing neceſſities. But though they did all that could be expected from active magiſtrates, in providing and diſtributing proviſions to the poor; yet Spurius Mælius, a rich knight, who had bought up all the corn of Tuſcany, by far outſhone them in liberality. This demagogue, inflamed with a ſecret deſire of becoming powerful by the contentions in the ſtate, diſtributed corn in great quantities among the poorer ſort each day, till his houſe became the aſylum of all ſuch as wiſhed to exchange a life of labour for one of lazy dependence. When he had thus gained a ſufficient number of partizans, he procured large quantities of arms to be brought into his houſe by night, and formed a conſpiracy, by which he was to obtain the command, while ſome of the tribunes, whom he had found means to corrupt, were to act under him, in ſeizing upon the liberties of his country. Minucius ſoon diſcovered the plot; and informing the ſenate thereof, they immediately formed a reſolution of creating a dictator, who ſhould have the power of quelling the conſpiracy, without appealing to the people. Cincinnatus, who was now 80 years old, was choſen once more to reſcue his country from impending danger. He began by ſummoning Mælius to appear; who refuſed to obey. He next ſent Ahala, the maſter of his horſe, to force him; who, meeting him in the forum, and preſſing Mælius to follow him to the dictator's tribunal, upon his refuſal Ahala killed him upon the ſpot. The dictator applauded the reſolution of his officer, and commanded the conſpirator's goods to be ſold, and his houſe to be demoliſhed, diſtributing his ſtores among the people.

118 Diſturbances by Mælius a knight.

119 Who is killed.

The tribunes of the people were much enraged at the death of Mælius; and, in order to puniſh the ſenate at the next election, inſtead of conſuls, inſiſted upon reſtoring their military tribunes. With this the ſenate were obliged to comply. The next year, however, the government returned to its ancient channel, and conſuls were choſen.

120 The deſtruction of Veii reſolved.

The Veientes had long been the rivals of Rome; they had ever taken the opportunity of its internal diſtreſſes to ravage its territories, and had even threatened its ambaſſadors, ſent to complain of theſe injuries, with outrage. In war they had been extremely formidable, and had cut off almoſt all the Fabian family; who, to the number of 306 perſons, had voluntarily undertaken to defend the frontiers againſt their incurſions. It ſeemed now therefore determined, that the city of Veii, whatever it ſhould coſt, was to fall; and the Romans accordingly ſat regularly down before it, prepared for a long and painful reſiſtance. The ſtrength of the place, or the unſkilfulneſs of the beſiegers, may be inferred from the continuance of the ſiege, which laſted for 10 years; during which time the army continued encamped round it, lying in winter under tents made of the ſkins of beaſts, and in ſummer driving on the operations of the attack. Various was the ſucceſs, and many were the commanders that directed the ſiege: ſometimes all the beſiegers works were deſtroyed, and many of their men cut off by ſallies from the town; ſometimes they were annoyed by an army of Veians, who attempted to bring aſſiſtance from without. A ſiege ſo bloody ſeemed to threaten depopulation to Rome itſelf, by draining its forces continually away; ſo that a law was obliged to be made for all the bachelors to marry the widows of the ſoldiers who were ſlain. In order to carry it on with greater vigour, Furius Camillus was created dictator, and to him was intruſted the ſole power of managing the long protracted war. Camillus, who, without intrigue or any ſolicitation, had raiſed himſelf to the firſt eminence in the ſtate, had been made one of the cenſors ſome time before, and was conſidered as the head of that office; he was afterwards made a military tribune, and had in this poſt gained ſeveral advantages over the enemy. It was his great courage and abilities in the above offices that made him thought moſt worthy to ſerve his country on this preſſing occaſion. Upon his appointment, numbers of the people flocked to his ſtandard, confident of ſucceſs under ſo experienced a commander. Conſcious, however, that he was unable to take the city by ſtorm, he ſecretly wrought a mine into it with vaſt labour, which opened into the midſt of the citadel. Certain thus of ſucceſs, and finding the city incapable of relief, he ſent to the ſenate, deſiring that all who choſe to ſhare in the plunder of Veii ſhould immediately repair to the army. Then giving his men directions how to enter at the breach, the city was inſtantly filled with his legions, to the amazement and conſternation of the beſieged, who, but a moment before, had reſted in perfect ſecurity. Thus, like a ſecond Troy, was the city of Veii taken, after a 10 years ſiege, and with its ſpoils enriched the conquerors; while Camillus himſelf, tranſported with the honour of having ſubdued the rival of his native city, triumphed after the manner of the kings of Rome, having his chariot drawn by four milk-white horſes; a diſtinction which did not fail to dif-

121 Is taken by Camillus.

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disgust the majority of the spectators, as they considered those as sacred, and more proper for doing honour to their gods than their generals.

122 His generosity to the Falisci.

His usual good fortune attended Camillus in another expedition against the Falisci; he routed their army, and besieged their capital city Falerii, which threatened a long and vigorous resistance. Here a schoolmaster, who had the care of the children belonging to the principal men of the city, having found means to decoy them into the Roman camp, offered to put them into the hands of Camillus as the surest means of inducing the citizens to a speedy surrender. The general was struck with the treachery of a wretch whose duty it was to protect innocence, and not to betray it; and immediately ordered him to be stript, his hands tied behind him, and in that ignominious manner to be whipped into the town by his own scholars. This generous behaviour in Camillus effected more than his arms could do: the magistrates of the town immediately submitted to the senate, leaving to Camillus the conditions of their surrender; who only fined them in a sum of money to satisfy his army, and received them under the protection and into the alliance of Rome.

Notwithstanding the veneration which the virtues of Camillus had excited abroad, they seemed but little adapted to bring over the respect of the turbulent tribunes at home, as they raised some fresh accusation against him every day. To their other charges they added that of his having concealed a part of the plunder of Veii, particularly two brazen gates, for his own use; and appointed him a day on which to appear before the people. Camillus, finding the multitude exasperated against him upon many accounts, detesting their ingratitude, resolved not to wait the ignominy of a trial; but, embracing his wife and children, prepared to depart from Rome. He had already passed as far as one of the gates, unattended on his way, and unlamented. There he could suppress his indignation

123 He goes into voluntary exile.

no longer; but, turning his face to the capitol, and lifting up his hands to heaven, intreated all the gods that his country might one day be sensible of their injustice and ingratitude; and so saying he passed forward to take refuge at Ardea, where he afterwards learned that he had been fined 1500 ases by the tribunes at home.

124 Italy invaded by the Gauls.

The Romans indeed soon had reason to repent their usage of Camillus; for now a more formidable enemy than ever they had met with threatened the republic: an inundation of Gauls, leaving their native woods, under the command of one Brennus, wasted every thing with fire and sword. It is said that one Cœditius, a man of the lowest rank, pretended to have heard a miraculous voice, which pronounced distinctly these words: "Go to the magistrates, and tell them that the Gauls draw near." The meanness of the man made his warning despised; tho', when the event showed the truth of his prediction, Camillus erected a temple to the unknown deity, and the Romans invented for him the name of *Aius Loeutius*. Messenger after messenger arrived with the news of the progress and devastations of the Gauls; but the Romans behaved with as much security as if it had been impossible for them to have felt the effects of their depredations. At last envoys arrived at Rome, imploring the assistance of the republic against an army of Gauls, which had made an irruption into Italy, and now besieged their city. The occasion of the irruption and siege was this: Arunx, one of the chief men of Clusium in Hetruria, had been guardian to a young lucumo, or lord of a lucumony, and had educated him in his house from his infancy. The lucumo, as soon as he was of an age to feel the force of a passion, fell in love with his guardian's wife; and, upon the first discovery of their intrigue, conveyed her away. Arunx endeavoured to obtain reparation for the injury he had received; but the lucumo, by his interest and money, gained over the magistrates: so that the injured guardian, finding no protectors in Hetruria, resolved to make his application to the Gauls. The people among all the Celtic nations, to whom he chose to address himself, were the Senones; and, in order to engage them in his quarrel, he acquainted them with the great plenty of Italy, and made them taste of some Italian wines. Upon this the Senones resolved to follow him; and a numerous army was immediately formed, which passing the Alps, under the conduct of their Hetrurian guide, and leaving the Celtæ in Italy unmolested, fell upon Umbria, and possessed themselves of all the country from Ravenna to Picenum. They were about six years in settling themselves in their new acquisitions, while the Romans were carrying on the siege of Veii. At length Arunx brought the Senones before Clusium, in order to besiege that place, his wife and her lover having shut themselves up there.

125 Occasion of their invasion.

126 The Romans send an embassy to them.

The senate, being unwilling to engage in an open war with a nation which had never offended them, sent an embassy of three young particians, all brothers, and of the Fabian family, to bring about an accommodation between the two nations. These ambassadors, being arrived at the camp of the Gauls, and conducted into the council, offered the mediation of Rome; and demanded of Brennus, the leader of the Gauls, What injury the Clusini had done him; or what pretensions any people from a remote country could have upon Hetruria? Brennus answered proudly, that his right lay in his sword, and that all things belonged to the brave; but that, without having recourse to this primitive law of nature, he had a just complaint against the Clusians, who, having more lands than they could cultivate, had refused to yield to him those they left untilled: And what other motives had you yourselves, Romans, (said he), to conquer so many neighbouring nations? You have deprived the Sabines, the Albans, the Fideuates, the Æqui, and the Volsci, of the best part of their territories. Not that we accuse you of injustice; but it is evident, that you thought this to be the prime and most ancient of all laws, to make the weak give way to the strong. Forbear therefore to interest yourselves for the Clusini, or allow us to take the part of the people you have subdued."

127 Imprudent conduct of the ambassadors.

The Fabii were highly provoked at so haughty an answer; but, dissembling their resentment, desired leave to go into the town, under pretence of conferring with the magistrates. But they were no sooner there, than they began to stir up the inhabitants to a vigorous defence; nay, forgetting their character, they put themselves at the head of the besieged in a sally, in which

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which Q. Fabius, the chief of the ambaſſadors, flew with his own hand one of the principal officers of the Gauls. Hereupon Brennus, calling the gods to witneſs the perfidiouſneſs of the Romans, and their violating the law of nations, immediately broke up the ſiege of Cluſium, and marched leiſurely to Rome, having ſent an herald before him to demand that thoſe ambaſſadors, who had ſo manifeſtly violated the law of nations, ſhould be delivered up to him. The Roman ſenate was greatly perplexed between their regard for the law of nations, and their affection for the Fabii. The wiſeſt of the ſenate thought the demand of the Gauls to be but juſt and reaſonable: however, as it concerned perſons of great conſequence and credit, the conſcript fathers referred the affair to the people aſſembled by curiæ. As the Fabian family was very popular, the curiæ were ſo far from condemning the three brothers, that, at the next election of military tribunes, they were choſen the firſt. Brennus, looking upon the promotion of the Fabii as an high affront on his nation, haſtened his march to Rome.

128 The Gauls require them to be delivered up to them, but are refuſed.

As his army was very numerous, the inhabitants of the towns and villages through which he paſſed left their habitations at his approach; but he ſtopped no-where, declaring that his deſign was only to be revenged on the Romans. The ſix military tribunes, to wit, Q. Fabius, Cæſo Fabius, Caius Fabius, Q. Sulpitius, Q. Servilius, and Sextus Cornelius, marched out of Rome at the head of 40,000 men, without either ſacrificing to the gods, or conſulting the auſpices; eſſential ceremonies among a people that drew their courage and confidence from the propitious ſigns which the augurs declared to them. As moſt of the military tribunes were young, and men of more valour than experience, they advanced boldly againſt the Gauls, whoſe army was 70,000 ſtrong. The two armies met near the river Allia, about 60 furlongs from Rome. The Romans, that they might not be ſurrounded by the enemy, extended their wings ſo far as to make their centre very thin. Their beſt troops, to the number of 24,000 men, they poſted between the river and the adjoining hills; the reſt they placed on the hills. The Gauls firſt attacked the latter, who being ſoon put into confuſion, the forces in the plain were ſtruck with ſuch terror, that they fled without drawing their ſwords. In this general diſorder, moſt of the ſoldiers, inſtead of returning to Rome, fled to Veii: ſome were drowned as they endeavoured to ſwim croſs the Tiber; many fell in the purſuit by the ſword of the conquerors; and ſome got to Rome, which they filled with terror and conſternation, it being believed there that all the reſt were cut off. The day after the battle, Brennus marched his troops into the neighbourhood of Rome, and encamped on the banks of the Anio. Thither his ſcouts brought him word, that the gates of the city lay open, and that not one Roman was to be ſeen on the ramparts. This made him apprehenſive of ſome ambuſcade, it being unreaſonable to ſuppoſe that the Romans would abandon their city to be plundered and ſacked without making any reſiſtance. On this conſideration he advanced ſlowly, which gave the Romans an opportunity to throw into the capitol all the men who were fit to bear arms. They carried into it all the proviſions they could get; and, that they might laſt the longer, admitted none into the place but ſuch as were capable of defending it.

129 The Romans entirely defeated.

130 They retire into the capitol.

As for the city, they had not ſufficient forces to defend it; and therefore the old men, women, and children, ſeeing themſelves abandoned, fled to the neighbouring towns. The Veſtals, before they left Rome, took care to hide every thing appropriated to the gods which they could not carry off. The two palladiums, and the ſacred fire, they took with them. When they came to the Janiculus, one Albinius, a plebeian, who was conveying his wife and children in a carriage to a place of ſafety, ſeeing the ſacred virgins bending under their load, and their feet bloody, made his family alight, put the prieſteſſes and their gods into the carriage, and conducted them to Cære, a city of Hetruria, where they met with a favourable reception. The Veſtals remained at Cære, and there continued to perform the uſual rites of religion; and hence thoſe rites were called *ceremonies*. But while the reſt of the citizens at Rome were providing for their ſafety, about 80 of the moſt illuſtrious and venerable old men, rather than fly from their native city, choſe to devote themſelves to death by a vow, which Fabius the high pontiff pronounced in their names. The Romans believed, that, by theſe voluntary devotements to the infernal gods, diſorder and confuſion was brought among the enemy. Of theſe brave old men ſome were pontifices, others had been conſuls, and others generals of armies, who had been honoured with triumphs. To complete their ſacrifice with a ſolemnity and pomp becoming the magnanimity and conſtancy of the Romans, they dreſſed themſelves in their pontifical, conſular, and triumphal robes; and repairing to the forum, ſeated themſelves there in their curule chairs, expecting the enemy and death with the greateſt conſtancy.

131 Origin of the word *ceremonies*.

132 Rome pillaged and burnt.

At length Brennus, having ſpent three days in uſeleſs precautions, entered the city the fourth day after the battle. He found the gates open, the walls without defence, and the houſes without inhabitants. Rome appeared to him like a mere deſart; and this ſolitude increaſed his anxiety. He could not believe, either that all the Romans were lodged in the capitol, or that ſo numerous a people ſhould abandon the place of their nativity. On the other hand, he could no-where ſee any armed men but on the walls of the citadel. However, having firſt ſecured all the avenues to the capitol with ſtrong bodies of guards, he gave the reſt of his ſoldiers leave to diſperſe themſelves all over the city and plunder it. Brennus himſelf advanced into the forum with the troops under his command, in good order; and there he was ſtruck with admiration at the unexpected ſight of the venerable old men who had devoted themſelves to death. Their magnificent habits, the majeſty of their countenances, the ſilence they kept, their modeſty and conſtancy at the approach of his troops, made them take them for ſo many deities: for they continued as motionleſs as ſtatues, and ſaw the enemy advance without ſhowing the leaſt concern. The Gauls kept a great while at an awful diſtance from them, being afraid to come near them. But at length one ſoldier, bolder than the reſt, having out of curioſity touched the beard of M. Papirius, the venerable old man, not being uſed to ſuch familiarity, gave him a blow on the head with his ivory ſtaff. The ſoldier in revenge immedi-

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mediately killed him; and the rest of the Gauls following his example, slaughtered all those venerable old men without mercy.

After this the enemy set no bounds to their rage and fury. They plundered all places, dragging such of the Romans as had shut themselves up in their houses into the streets, and there putting them to the sword, without distinction of age or sex. Brennus then invested the capitol; but being repulsed with great loss, in order to be revenged of the Romans for their resistance, he resolved to lay the city in ashes. Accordingly, by his command, the soldiers set fire to the houses, demolished the temples and public edifices, and rased the walls to the ground. Thus was the famous city of Rome entirely destroyed; nothing was to be seen in the place where it stood, but a few little hills covered with ruins, and a wide waste, in which the Gauls who invested the capitol were encamped. Brennus, finding he should never be able to take a place which nature had so well fortified, otherwise than by famine, turned the siege into a blockade. But in the mean time, his army being distressed for want of provisions, he sent out parties to pillage the fields, and raise contributions in the neigbouring cities. One of these parties appeared before Ardea, where the great Camillus had now spent two years in a private life. Notwithstanding the affront he had received at Rome, the love he bore his country was not in the least diminished. The senate of Ardea being met to deliberate on the measures to be taken with relation to the Gauls, Camillus, more afflicted at the calamities of his country than at his own banishment, desired to be admitted into the council, where, with his eloquence, he prevailed upon the Ardeates to arm their youth in their own defence, and refuse the Gauls admittance into their city.

133 They invest the capitol.

Hereupon the Gauls encamped before the city; and as they despised the Ardeates after they had made themselves masters of Rome, they preserved neither order nor discipline in the camp, but spent whole days in drinking. Hereupon Camillus, having easily persuaded the youth of the city to follow him, marched out of Ardea in a very dark night, surprised the Gauls drowned in wine, and made a dreadful slaughter of them. Those who made their escape under the shelter of the night fell next day into the hands of the peasants, by whom they were massacred without mercy. This defeat of the enemy revived the courage of the Romans scattered about the country, especially of those who had retired to Veii after the unfortunate battle of Allia. There was not one of them who did not condemn himself for the exile of Camillus, as if he had been the author of it; and looking upon that great man as their last resource, they resolved to choose him for their leader. Accordingly, they sent without delay ambassadors to him, beseeching him to take into his protection the fugitive Romans, and the wrecks of the defeat at Allia. But Camillus would not accept of the command of the troops, till the people assembled by curiæ had legally conferred it upon him. He thought the public authority was lodged in the hands of those who were shut up in the citadel, and therefore would undertake nothing at the head of the Roman troops till a commission was brought him from thence.

134 A great number of them cut off by Camillus.

To do this was very difficult, the place being invested on all sides by the enemy. However, one Pontius Cominius, a man of mean birth, but bold, and very ambitious of glory, undertook it. He put on a light habit, and, providing himself with cork to keep the longer above water, threw himself into the Tiber above Rome in the beginning of the night, and suffered himself to be carried down with the stream. At length he came to the foot of the capitol, and landed at a steep place where the Gauls had not thought it necessary to post any centinels. There he mounted with great difficulty to the rampart of the citadel; and having made himself known to the guard, he was admitted into the place, and conducted to the magistrates. The senate being immediately assembled, Pontius gave them an account of Camillus's victory; and in the name of all the Romans at Veii, demanded that great captain for their general. There was not much time spent in debates: the curiæ being called together, the act of condemnation which had been passed on Camillus was abrogated, and he named dictator with one voice. Pontius was immediately dispatched with the decree; and the same good fortune which had attended him to the capitol accompanied him in his return. Thus was Camillus, from the state of banishment, raised at once to be sovereign magistrate of his country. His promotion to the command was no sooner known, but soldiers flocked from all parts to his camp; insomuch that he soon saw himself at the head of above 40,000 men, partly Romans and partly allies, who all thought themselves invincible under so great a general.

135 He is chosen dictator.

While he was taking proper measures to raise the blockade of the citadel, some Gauls rambling round the place, perceived on the side of the hill the print of Pontius's hands and feet. They observed likewise, that the moss on the rocks was in several places torn up. From these marks they concluded, that somebody had lately gone up to and returned from the capitol. The Gauls immediately made their report to Brennus of what they had observed; and that experienced commander laid a design, which he imparted to nobody, of surprising the place by the same way that the Roman had ascended. With this view he chose out of the army such soldiers as had dwelt in mountainous countries, and been accustomed from their youth to climb precipices. These he ordered, after he had well examined the nature of the place, to ascend in the night the same way that was marked out for them; climbing two a-breast, that one might support the other in getting up the steep parts of the precipice. By this means they advanced with much difficulty from rock to rock, till they arrived at the foot of the wall. They proceeded with such silence, that they were not discovered or heard, either by the centinels who were upon guard in the citadel, or even by the dogs, that are usually awaked and alarmed at the least noise. But though they eluded the sagacity of the dogs, they could not escape the vigilance of the geese. A flock of these birds was kept in a court of the capitol in honour of Juno, and near her temple. Notwithstanding the want of provisions in the garrison, they had been spared out of religion; and as these creatures are naturally quick of hearing, they were alarmed at the first approach of the Gauls; so that running up and down, with their cackling

136 The Gauls endeavour to surprise the capitol.

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cackling and beating of their wings, they awaked Manlius, a gallant soldier, who some years before had been consul. He sounded an alarm, and was the first man who mounted the rampart, where he found two Gauls already upon the wall. One of these offered to discharge a blow at him with his battle-ax; but Manlius cut off his right hand at one blow, and gave the other such a push with his buckler, that he threw him headlong from the top of the rock to the bottom. He, in his fall, drew many others with him; and, in the mean time, the Romans crowding to the place, pressed upon the Gauls, and tumbled them one over another. As the nature of the ground would not suffer them to make a regular retreat, or even to fly, most of them, to avoid the swords of the enemy, threw themselves down the precipice, so that very few got safe back to their camp.

137 But are discovered and repulsed.

As it was the custom of the Romans at that time not to suffer any commendable action to go unrewarded, the tribune Sulpitius assembled his troops the next morning, in order to bestow the military rewards on those who, the night before, had deserved them. Among these, Manlius was first named, and, in acknowledgment of the important service he had just rendered the state, every soldier gave him part of the corn which he received sparingly from the public stock, and a little measure of wine out of his scanty allowance. An inconsiderable present indeed in itself, but very acceptable at that time to the person on whom it was bestowed. The tribune's next care was to punish the negligent: accordingly the captain of the guard, who ought to have had an eye over the centinels, was condemned to die, and, pursuant to his sentence, thrown down from the top of the capitol. The Romans extended their punishments and rewards even to the animals. Geese were ever after had in honour at Rome, and a flock of them always kept at the expence of the public. A golden image of a goose was erected in memory of them, and a goose every year carried in triumph upon a soft litter finely adorned; whilst dogs were held in abhorrence by the Romans, who every year impaled one of them on a branch of elder.

The blockade of the capitol had already lasted seven months; so that the famine began to be very sensibly felt both by the besieged and besiegers. Camillus, since his nomination to the dictatorship, being master of the country, had posted strong guards on all the roads; so that the Gauls dared not stir out, for fear of being cut to pieces. Thus Brennus, who besieged the capitol, was besieged himself, and suffered the same inconveniences which he made the Romans undergo. Besides, a plague raged in his camp, which was placed in the midst of the ruins of the demolished city, his men lying confusedly among the dead carcases of the Romans, whom they had slain, and not buried. So great a number of them died in one quarter of the city, that it was afterwards called *Busta Gallica*, or the place where the dead bodies of the Gauls were burnt. But, in the mean time, the Romans in the capitol were more pinched with want than the Gauls. They were reduced to the last extremity, and at the same time ignorant both of the lamentable condition to which the enemy's army was brought, and of the steps Camillus was taking to relieve them. That great general only waited for a favourable opportunity to fall upon the enemy; but, in the mean time, suffered them to pine away in their infected camp, not knowing the extreme want the Romans endured in the capitol, where they were so destitute of all sorts of provisions, that they could no longer subsist. Matters being brought to this sad pass on both sides, the centinels of the capitol, and those of the enemy's army, began to talk to one another of an accommodation. Their discourses came at length to the ears of their leaders, who were not averse to the design.

The senate, not knowing what was become of Camillus, and finding themselves hard pinched by hunger, resolved to enter upon a negotiation, and empowered Sulpitius, one of the military tribunes, to treat with the Gauls; who made no great difficulty in coming to terms, they being no less desirous than the Romans to put an end to the war. In a conference, therefore, between Brennus and Sulpitius, an agreement was made, and sworn to. The Romans were to pay to the Gauls 1000 pounds weight of gold, that is, 45,000 l. sterling; and the latter were to raise the siege of the capitol, and quit all the Roman territories. On the day appointed, Sulpitius brought the sum agreed on, and Brennus the scales and weights; for there were no gold or silver coins at that time, metals passing only by weight. We are told, that the weights of the Gauls were false, and their scales untrue; which Sulpitius complaining of, Brennus, instead of redressing the injustice, threw his sword and belt into the scale where the weights were; and when the tribune asked him the meaning of so extraordinary a behaviour, the only answer he gave was, *Væ victis!* "Wo to the conquered!" Sulpitius was so stung with this haughty answer, that he was for carrying the gold back into the capitol, and sustaining the siege to the last extremity; but others thought it advisable to put up the affront, since they had submitted to a far greater one, which was to pay any thing at all.

138 The Romans agree to pay 1000 pounds of gold for their ransom.

During these disputes of the Roman deputies among themselves and with the Gauls, Camillus advanced with his army to the very gates of the city; and being there informed of what was doing, he commanded the main body to follow him slowly and in good order, while he, with the choicest of his men, hastened to the place of the parly. The Romans, overjoyed at his unexpected arrival, opened to make room for him as the supreme magistrate of the republic, gave him an account of the treaty they had made with the Gauls, and complained of the wrong Brennus did them in the execution of it. They had scarce done speaking, when Camillus cried out, "Carry back this gold into the capitol, and you, Gauls, retire with your scales and weights. Rome must not be redeemed with gold, but with steel." Brennus replied, That he contravened a treaty which was concluded and confirmed with mutual oaths. "Be it so, (answered Camillus); yet it is of no force, having been made by an inferior magistrate, without the privity or consent of the dictator. I, who am invested with the supreme authority over the Romans, declare the contract void." At these words Brennus flew into a rage; and both sides drawing their swords, a confused scuffle ensued among the ruins of the houses, and in the narrow lanes. The Gauls, after an inconsiderable

139 Camillus drives away the Gauls.

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rable loſs, thought fit to retire within their camp; which they abandoned in the night, not caring to engage Camillus's whole army, and, having marched eight miles, encamped on the Gabinian way. Camillus purſued them as ſoon as it was day, and, coming up with them, gave them a total overthrow. The Gauls, according to Livy, made but a ſaint reſiſtance, being diſheartened at the loſs they had ſuſtained the day before. It was not, ſays that author, ſo much a battle as a ſlaughter. Many of the Gauls were ſlain in the action, more in the purſuit; but the greater number were cut off, as they wandered up and down in the fields, by the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages. In ſhort, there was not one ſingle Gaul left to carry to his countrymen the news of this fatal cataſtrophe. The camp of the barbarians was plundered; and Camillus, loaded with ſpoils, returned in triumph to the city, the ſoldiers in their ſongs ſtyling him, *Romulus, Father of his country*, and *Second founder of Rome*.

140 The Gauls entirely cut off.

As the houſes of Rome were all demoliſhed, and the walls razed, the tribunes of the people renewed, with more warmth than ever, an old project which had occaſioned great diſputes. They had formerly propoſed a law for dividing the ſenate and government between the cities of Veii and Rome. Now this law was revived; nay, moſt of the tribunes were for entirely abandoning their old ruined city, and making Veii the ſole ſeat of the empire. The people were inclined to favour the project, Veii offering them a place fortified by art and nature, good houſes ready built, a wholeſome air, and a fruitful territory. On the other hand, they had no materials for rebuilding a whole city, were quite exhauſted by miſfortunes, and even their ſtrength was greatly diminiſhed. This gave them a reluctance to ſo great an undertaking, and emboldened the tribunes to utter ſeditious harangues againſt Camillus, as a man too ambitious of being the reſtorer of Rome. They even inſinuated that the name of Romulus, which had been given him, threatened the republic with a new king. But the ſenate took the part of Camillus, and, being deſirous to ſee Rome rebuilt, continued him, contrary to cuſtom, a full year in the office of dictator; during which time he made it his whole buſineſs to ſuppreſs the ſtrong inclination of the people to remove to Veii. Having aſſembled the curiæ, he expoſtulated with them upon the matter; and, by arguments drawn from prudence, religion, and glory, prevailed upon them to lay aſide all thoughts of leaving Rome. As it was neceſſary to have the reſolution of the people confirmed by the ſenate, the dictator reported it to the conſcript fathers, leaving every one at full liberty to vote as he pleaſed. While L. Lucretius, who was to give his opinion the firſt, was beginning to ſpeak, it happened that a centurion, who with his company had been upon guard, and was then marching by the ſenate-houſe, cried out aloud, "Plant your colours, enſign; this is the beſt place to ſtay in." Theſe words were conſidered as dictated by the gods themſelves; and Lucretius, taking occaſion from them to urge the neceſſity of ſtaying at Rome, "An happy omen, (cried he); I adore the gods who gave it." The whole ſenate applauded his words; and a decree was paſſed without oppoſition for rebuilding the city.

141 Diſputes about removing to Veii.

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Though the tribunes of the people were defeated by Camillus in this point, they reſolved to exerciſe their authority againſt another patrician, who had indeed deſerved puniſhment. This was Q. Fabius, who had violated the law of nations, and thereby provoked the Gauls, and occaſioned the burning of Rome. His crime being notorious, he was ſummoned by C. Martius Rutilus before the aſſembly of the people, to anſwer for his conduct in his embaſſy. The criminal had reaſon to fear the ſevereſt puniſhment: but his relations gave out that he died ſuddenly; which generally happened when the accuſed perſon had courage enough to prevent his condemnation, and the ſhame of a public puniſhment. On the other hand, the republic gave an houſe ſituated on the capitol to M. Manlius, as a monument of his valour, and of the gratitude of his fellow-citizens. Camillus cloſed this year by laying down his dictatorſhip: whereupon an interregnum enſued, during which he governed the ſtate alternately with P. Cornelius Scipio; and it fell to his lot to preſide at the election of new magiſtrates, when L. Valerius Poplicola, L. Virginius Tricoſtus, P. Cornelius Coſſus, A. Manlius Capitolinus, L. Æmilius Mamercinus, and L. Poſthumius Albinus, were choſen. The firſt care of theſe new magiſtrates was to collect all the ancient monuments of the religion and civil laws of Rome which could be found among the ruins of the demoliſhed city. The laws of the twelve tables, and ſome of the laws of the kings, had been written on braſs, and fixed up in the forum; and the treaties made with ſeveral nations had been engraved on pillars erected in the temples. Pains were therefore taken to gather up the ruins of theſe precious monuments; and what could not be found was ſupplied by memory. The pontifices, on their part, took care to re-eſtabliſh the religious ceremonies, and made alſo a liſt of lucky and unlucky days.

142 Marcus Manlius rewarded.

And now the governors of the republic applied themſelves wholly to rebuild the city. Plutarch tells us, that as the workmen were digging among the ruins of the temple of Mars, they found Romulus's augural ſtaff untouched by the flames; and that this was looked upon as a prodigy, from whence the Romans inferred that their city would continue for ever. The expence of building private houſes was partly defrayed out of the public treaſure. The ædiles had the direction of the works; but ſo little taſte for order or beauty, that the city, when rebuilt, was even leſs regular than in the time of Romulus. And though in Auguſtus's time, when Rome became the capital of the known world, the temples, palaces, and private houſes, were built in a more magnificent manner than before; yet even then theſe new decorations did not rectify the faults of the plan upon which the city had been built after its firſt demolition.

143 The city rebuilt.

Rome was ſcarce reſtored, when her citizens were alarmed by the news that all her neighbours were combining to her deſtruction. The Æqui, the Volſci, the Hetrurians, and even her old friends the Latins and the Hernici, entered into an alliance againſt her, in hopes of oppreſſing her before ſhe had recovered her ſtrength. The republic, under this terror, nominated

144 A general combination againſt the Romans.

Rome. Camillus dictator a third time. This great commander, having appointed Servilius to be his general of horse, summoned the citizens to take arms, without excepting even the old men. He divided the new levies into three bodies. The first, under the command of A. Manlius, he ordered to encamp under the walls of Rome; the second he sent into the neighbourhood of Veii; and marched himself at the head of the third, to relieve the tribunes, who were closely besieged in their camp by the united forces of the Volsci and Latins. Finding the enemy encamped near Lanuvium, on the declivity of the hill Marcius, he posted himself behind it, and, by lighting fires, gave the distressed Romans notice of his arrival. The Volsci and Latins, when they understood that Camillus was at the head of an army newly arrived, were so terrified, that they shut themselves up in their camp, which they fortified with great trees cut down in haste. The dictator, observing that this barrier was of green wood, and that every morning there arose a great wind, which blew full upon the enemy's camp, formed the design of taking it by fire. With this view he ordered one part of his army to go by break of day with fire-brands to the windward side of the camp, and the other to make a brisk attack on the opposite side. By this means the enemy was entirely defeated, and their camp taken. Camillus then commanded his men to extinguish the flames, in order to save the booty, with which he rewarded his army. He then left his son in the camp, to guard the prisoners; and, entering the country of the Æqui, made himself master of their capital city Bola. From thence he marched against the Volsci; whom he entirely reduced, after they had waged war with the Romans for the space of 107 years. Having subdued this untractable people, he penetrated into Hetruria, in order to relieve Sutrium, a town in that country in alliance with Rome, and besieged by a numerous army of Hetrurians. But, notwithstanding all the expedition Camillus could use, he did not reach the place before it had capitulated. The Sutrini, being greatly distressed for want of provisions, and exhausted with labour, had surrendered to the Hetrurians, who had granted them nothing but their lives, and the cloaths on their backs. In this destitute condition they had left their own country, and were going in search of new habitations, when they met Camillus leading an army to their relief.

145 Camillus defeats the Volsci and Latins,

146 And the Hetrurians.

The unfortunate multitude no sooner saw the Romans, but they threw themselves at the dictator's feet, who, moved at this melancholy sight, desired them to take a little rest, and refresh themselves, adding, that he would soon dry up their tears, and transfer their sorrows from them to their enemies. He imagined, that the Hetrurians would be wholly taken up in plundering the city, without being upon their guard, or observing any discipline. And herein he was not mistaken. The Hetrurians did not dream that the dictator could come so speedily from such a distance to surprise them; and therefore were wholly employed in plundering the houses and carrying off the booty, or feasting on the provisions they had found in them. Many of them were put to the sword, and an incredible number made prisoners; and the city was restored to its ancient inhabitants, who had not waited in vain for the performance of the dictator's promise. And now, after these glorious exploits, which were finished in so short a time, the great Camillus entered Rome in triumph a third time. Rome.

Camillus having resigned his dictatorship, the republic chose six new military tribunes, Q. Quinctius, Q. Servius, L. Julius, L. Aquilius, L. Lucretius, and Ser. Sulpitius. During their administration the country of the Æqui was laid waste, in order to put it out of their power to revolt anew; and the two cities of Cortuosa and Contenebra, in the lucumony of the Tarquinienses, were taken from the Hetrurians, and entirely demolished. At this time it was thought proper to repair the capitol, and add new works to that part of the hill where the Gauls had endeavoured to scale the citadel. These works were esteemed very beautiful, as Livy informs us, even in the time of Augustus, after the city was embellished with most magnificent decorations.

And now Rome being reinstated in her former flourishing condition, the tribunes of the people, who had been for some time quiet, began to renew their seditious harangues, and revive the old quarrel about the division of the conquered lands. The patricians had appropriated to themselves the Pomptin territory lately taken from the Volsci, and the tribunes laid hold of this opportunity to raise new disturbances. But, the citizens being so drained of their money that they had not enough left to cultivate new farms and stock them with cattle, the declamations of the tribunes made no impression upon their minds; so that the project vanished. As for the military tribunes, they owned that their election had been defective; and, lest the irregularities of the former comitia should be continued in the succeeding ones, they voluntarily laid down their office. So that, after a short interregnum, during which M. Manlius, Ser. Sulpitius, and L. Valerius Potitus, governed the republic, six new military tribunes L. Papirius, C. Sergius, L. Æmilius, L. Menenius, L. Valerius, and C. Cornelius, were chosen for the ensuing year, which was spent in works of peace. A temple, which had been vowed to Mars during the war with the Gauls, was built, and consecrated by T. Quinctius, who presided over the affairs of religion. As there had hitherto been but few Roman tribes beyond the Tiber which had a right of suffrage in the comitia, four new ones were added, under the name of the *Stellatina*, *Tramontina*, *Sabatina*, and *Arniensis*; so that the tribes were now in all 25, which enjoyed the same rights and privileges.

147 Unbounded power conferred on Camillus.

The expectation of an approaching war induced the centuries to choose Camillus one of the military tribunes for the next year. His colleagues were Ser. Cornelius, Q. Servilius, L. Quinctius, L. Horatius, and P. Valerius. As all these were men of moderation, they agreed to invest Camillus with the sole management of affairs in time of war; and accordingly in full senate transferred all their power into his hands; so that he became in effect dictator. It had been already determined in the senate to turn the arms of the republic against the Hetrurians; but, upon advice that the Antiates had entered the Pomptin territory, and obliged the Romans who had taken possession of it to retire, it was thought necessary to humble them before the republic engaged in any other enterprise. The Antiates had joined the Latins and Hernici near Satricum; so that the Romans, being terrified at their pro-

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prodigious numbers, shewed themselves very backward to engage: which Camillus perceiving, he instantly mounted his horse, and riding through all the ranks of the army, encouraged them by a proper speech; after which he dismounted, took the next standard-bearer by the hand, led him towards the enemy, and cried out, *Soldiers, advance.* The soldiery were ashamed not to follow a general who exposed himself to the first attack; and therefore, having made a great shout, they fell upon the enemy with incredible fury. Camillus, in order to increase their eagerness still more, commanded a standard to be thrown into the middle of the enemy's battalions; which made the soldiers, who were fighting in the first ranks, exert all their resolution to recover it. The Antiates, not being able any longer to make head against the Romans, gave way, and were entirely defeated. The Latins and Hernici separated from the Volsci, and returned home. The Volsci, seeing themselves thus abandoned by their allies, took refuge in the neighbouring city of Satricum; which Camillus immediately invested, and took by assault. The Volsci threw down their arms, and surrendered at discretion. He then left his army under the command of Valerius; and returned to Rome to solicit the consent of the senate, and to make the necessary preparations for undertaking the siege of Antium.

148 Who gives the Antiates, &c. a great defeat.

149 His other successes.

But, while he was proposing this affair to the senate, deputies arrived from Nepet and Sutrium, two cities in alliance with Rome in the neighbourhood of Hetruria, demanding succours against the Hetrurians, who threatened to besiege these two cities, which were the keys of Hetruria. Hereupon the expedition against Antium was laid aside, and Camillus commanded to hasten to the relief of the allied cities, with the troops which Servilius had kept in readiness at Rome in case of an emergency. Camillus immediately set out for the new war; and, upon his arrival before Sutrium, found that important place not only besieged, but almost taken, the Hetrurians having made themselves masters of some of the gates, and gained possession of all the avenues leading to the city. However, the inhabitants no sooner heard that Camillus was come to their relief, but they recovered their courage, and, by barricadoes made in the streets, prevented the enemy from making themselves masters of the whole city. Camillus in the mean time, having divided his army into two bodies, ordered Valerius to march round the walls, as if he designed to scale them, while he with the other undertook to charge the Hetrurians in the rear, force his way into the city, and shut up the enemy between the besieged and his troops. The Romans no sooner appeared but the Hetrurians betook themselves to a disorderly flight through a gate which was not invested. Camillus's troops made a dreadful slaughter of them within the city, while Valerius put great numbers of them to the sword without the walls. From reconquering Sutrium, Camillus hastened to the relief of Nepet. But that city being better affected to the Hetrurians than to the Romans, had voluntarily submitted to the former. Wherefore Camillus, having invested it with his whole army, took it by assault, put all the Hetrurian soldiers without distinction to the sword, and condemned the authors of the revolt to die by the axes of the lictors. Thus ended Camillus's military tribuneship, in which he acquired no less reputation than he had done in the most glorious of his dictatorships.

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In the following magistracy of six military tribunes, a dangerous sedition is said to have taken place thro' the ambition of Marcus Manlius, who had saved the capitol from the Gauls in the manner already related. Though this man had pride enough to despise all the other great men in Rome, yet he envied Camillus, and took every opportunity of magnifying his own exploits beyond those of the dictator. But not finding such a favourable reception from the nobility as he defired, he concerted measures with the tribunes of the people, and strove to gain the affections of the multitude. Not content with renewing the proposal for the distribution of conquered lands, he also made himself an advocate for insolvent debtors, of whom there was now a great number, as most of the lower class had been obliged to borrow money in order to rebuild their houses. The senate, alarmed at this opposition, created A. Cornelius Cossus dictator, for which the war with the Volsci afforded them a fair pretence. Manlius, however, still continued to inflame the people against the patricians. Besides the most unbounded personal generosity, he held assemblies at his own house (in the citadel), where he confidently gave out that the senators, not content with being the sole possessors of those lands which ought to have been equally divided among all the citizens, had concealed, with an intent to appropriate it to their own use, all the gold which was to have been paid to the Gauls, and which would alone be sufficient to discharge the debts of all the poor plebeians; and he moreover promised to show in due time where this treasure was concealed. For this assertion he was brought before the dictator; who commanded him to discover where the pretended treasure was, or to confess openly before the whole assembly that he had slandered the senate. Manlius replied, that the dictator himself, and the principal persons in the senate, could only give the proper intelligence of this treasure, as they had been the most active in securing it. Upon this he was committed to prison; but the people made such disturbance, that the senate were soon after fain to release him. By this he was emboldened to continue his former practices; till at last the senate gave an order to the military tribunes to take care that the commonwealth suffered no detriment from the pernicious projects of Marcus Manlius, and even gave them authority to assassinate him, if they found it necessary so to do. At last, however, he was publicly accused of aspiring to be king; however, the people, it is said, were so struck with gratitude, on account of his having delivered the capitol from the Gauls, that they could not resolve to condemn him. But the military tribunes, who, it seems, were bent on his destruction, having appointed the assembly to be held without the city, there obtained their wish. Manlius was thrown headlong from the capitol itself: it was thenceforth decreed that no patrician should dwell in the capitol or citadel; and the Manlian family resolved that no member of it should ever afterwards bear the prænomen of *Marcus*. No sooner was Manlius dead, however, than the people lamented his fate; and because a plague broke out soon after, they imputed it to the anger of the gods on

150 Ambition of M. Manlius.

151 Who is condemned and executed.

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on account of the deſtruction of the hero who had ſaved the ſtate (A).

The Romans, having now triumphed over the Sabines, the Etrurians, the Latins, the Hernici, the Æqui, and the Volſcians, began to look for greater conqueſts. They accordingly turned their arms againſt the Samnites, a people about 100 miles eaſt from the city, deſcended from the Sabines, and inhabiting a large tract of ſouthern Italy, which at this day makes a conſiderable part of the kingdom of Naples. Valerius Corvus and Cornelius were the two conſuls, to whoſe care it firſt fell to manage this dreadful contention between the rival ſtates.

152 War with the Samnites.

Valerius was one of the greateſt commanders of his time; he was ſurnamed Corvus, from a ſtrange circumſtance of being aſſiſted by a crow in a ſingle combat, in which he fought and killed a Gaul of a gigantic ſtature. To his colleague's care it was conſigned to lead an army to Samnium, the enemy's capital, while Corvus was ſent to relieve Capua, the capital of the Campanians. The Samnites were the braveſt men the Romans had ever yet encountered, and the contention between the two nations was managed on both ſides with the moſt determined reſolution. But the fortune of Rome prevailed; the Samnites at length fled, averring, that they were not able to withſtand the fierce looks and the fire-darting eyes of the Romans. The other conſul, however, was not at firſt ſo fortunate; for having unwarily led his army into a defile, he was in danger of being cut off, had not Decius, a tribune of the army, poſſeſſed himſelf of an hill which commanded the enemy: ſo that the Samnites, being attacked on either ſide, were defeated with great ſlaughter, no leſs than 30,000 of them being left dead upon the field of battle.

Some time after this victory, the ſoldiers who were ſtationed at Capua mutinying, forced Quintius, an old and eminent ſoldier, who was then reſiding in the country, to be their leader; and, conducted by their rage more than their general, came within eight miles of the city. So terrible an enemy, almoſt at the gates, not a little alarmed the ſenate; who immediately created Valerius Corvus dictator, and ſent him forth with another army to oppoſe them. The two armies were now drawn up againſt each other, while fathers and ſons beheld themſelves prepared to engage in oppoſite cauſes: but Corvus, knowing his influence among the ſoldiery, inſtead of going forward to meet the mutineers in an hoſtile manner, went with the moſt cordial friendſhip to embrace and expoſtulate with his old acquaintances. His conduct had the deſired effect. Quintius, as their ſpeaker, only deſired to have their defection from their duty forgiven; and as for himſelf, as he was innocent of their conſpiracy, he had no reaſon to ſolicit pardon for his offences.

A war between the Romans and the Latins followed ſoon after; but as their habits, arms, and language, were the ſame, the moſt exact diſcipline was neceſſary to prevent confuſion in the engagement. Orders, therefore, were iſſued by Manlius the conſul, that no ſoldier ſhould leave his ranks upon whatever provocation; and that he ſhould be certainly put to death who ſhould offer to do otherwiſe. With theſe injunctions, both armies were drawn out in array, and ready to begin; when Metius, the general of the enemy's cavalry, puſhed forward from his lines, and challenged any knight in the Roman army to ſingle combat. For ſome time there was a general pauſe, no ſoldier offering to diſobey his orders, till Titus Manlius, the conſul's own ſon, burning with ſhame to ſee the whole body of the Romans intimidated, boldly ſallied out againſt his adverſary. The ſoldiers on both ſides for a while ſuſpended the general engagement, to be ſpectators of this fierce encounter. Manlius killed his adverſary; and then deſpoiling him of his armour, returned in triumph to his father's tent, where he was preparing and giving orders relative to the engagement. Howſoever he might have been applauded by his fellow-ſoldiers, being as yet doubtful of the reception he ſhould find from his father, he came, with heſitation, to lay the enemy's ſpoils at his feet, and with a modeſt air inſinuated, that what he did was entirely from a ſpirit of hereditary virtue. But he was ſoon dreadfully made ſenſible of his error, when his father, turning away, ordered him to be led publicly forth before the army, and there to have his head ſtruck off on account of his diſobeying orders. The whole army was ſtruck with horror at this unnatural mandate: fear for a while kept them in ſuſpenſe; but when they ſaw their young champion's head ſtruck off, and his blood ſtreaming upon the ground, they could no longer contain their execrations and their groans. His dead body was carried forth without the camp, and being adorned with the ſpoils of the vanquiſhed enemy, was buried with all the pomp of military diſtreſs.

153 A bloody battle with the Latins.

In the mean time, the battle joined with mutual fury; and as the two armies had often fought under the ſame leaders, they combated with all the animoſity of a civil war. The Latins chiefly depended on their bodily ſtrength; the Romans, on their invincible courage and conduct. Forces ſo nearly matched ſeemed only to require the protection of their deities, to turn the ſcale of victory; and, in fact, the augurs had foretold, that whatever part of the Roman army ſhould be diſtreſſed, the commander of that part ſhould devote himſelf for his country, and die as a ſacrifice to the immortal gods. Manlius commanded the right wing, and Decius led on the left. Both ſides fought for ſome time with doubtful ſucceſs, as their courage was equal; but, after a time, the left wing of the Roman army began to give ground. It was then that Decius, who commanded there, reſolved to devote himſelf for his country, and to offer his own life as an atonement to ſave his army. Thus determined, he called out to Manlius with a loud voice, and demanded his inſtructions, as he was the chief pontiff, how to devote himſelf, and the form of the words he ſhould uſe. By his directions, therefore, being clothed in a long robe, his head covered, and his arms ſtretched forward, ſtanding upon a javelin, he devoted himſelf to the celeſtial and infernal gods for

(A) The above accounts are exactly conformable to what is to be found in the beſt Latin hiſtorians; nevertheleſs they are far from being reckoned univerſally authentic. Mr Hooke, in his annotations on the death of M. Manlius, has given very ſtrong reaſons againſt believing either that Camillus reſcued the gold from the Gauls, or that Manlius was condemned. See *Hooke's Roman Hiſtory*, Vol. II. p. 326, *et ſeq.*

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for the safety of Rome. Then arming himself, and mounting on horseback, he drove furiously into the midst of the enemy, carrying terror and consternation wherever he came, till he fell covered with wounds. In the mean time, the Roman army considered his devoting himself in this manner as an assurance of success: nor was the superstition of the Latins less powerfully influenced by his resolution; a total rout began to ensue: the Romans pressed them on every side; and so great was the carnage, that scarce a fourth part of the enemy survived the defeat. This was the last battle of any consequence that the Latins had with the Romans: they were forced to beg a peace upon hard conditions; and two years after, their strongest city, Pædum, being taken, they were brought under an entire submission to the Roman power.

154 Rome almost totally destroyed and subdued.

A signal disgrace which the Romans sustained about this time in their contest with the Samnites, made a pause in their usual good fortune, and turned the scale for a while in the enemy's favour. The senate having denied the Samnites peace, Pontius their general was resolved to gain by stratagem what he had frequently lost by force. Accordingly, leading his army into a defile called *Claudium*, and taking possession of all its outlets, he sent 10 of his soldiers, habited like shepherds, with directions to throw themselves in the way the Romans were to march. The Roman consul met them, and taking them for what they appeared, demanded the route the Samnite army had taken: they, with seeming indifference, replied, that they were gone to Luceria, a town in Apulia, and were then actually besieging it. The Roman general, not suspecting the stratagem that was laid against him, marched directly by the shortest road, which lay through the defiles, to relieve the city; and was not undeceived till he saw his army surrounded, and blocked up on every side. Pontius thus having the Romans entirely in his power, first obliged the army to pass under the yoke, having been previously stripped of all but their garments; he then stipulated that they should wholly quit the territories of the Samnites, and that they should continue to live upon terms of former confederacy. The Romans were constrained to submit to this ignominious treaty, and marched into Capua disarmed and half naked. When the army arrived at Rome, the whole city was most surprisingly afflicted at their shameful return; nothing but grief and resentment was to be seen, and the whole city was put into mourning.

But this was a transitory calamity: the war was carried on as usual for many years; the power of the Samnites declining every day, while that of the Romans continually increased. Under the conduct of Papirius Cursor, who was at different times consul and dictator, repeated triumphs were gained. Fabius Maximus also had his share in the glory of conquering them; and Decius, the son of that Decius whom we saw devoting himself for his country about 40 years before, followed the example of his father, and rushed into the midst of the enemy, imagining that he could save the lives of his countrymen with the loss of his own.

155 Pyrrhus king of Epirus invited into Italy by the Tarentines.

The success of the Romans against the Samnites alarmed all Italy. The Tarentines in particular, who had long plotted underhand against the republic, now openly declared themselves; and invited into Italy Pyrrhus king of Epirus, in hopes of being able by his means to subdue the Romans. The offer was readily accepted by that ambitious monarch, who had nothing less in view than the conquest of all Italy. Their ambassadors carried magnificent presents for the king, with instructions to acquaint him, that they only wanted a general of fame and experience; and that, as for troops, they could themselves furnish a numerous army of 20,000 horse and 350,000 foot, made up of Lucanians, Messapians, Samnites, and Tarentines. As soon as the news of this deputation were brought to the Roman camp, Æmilius, who had hitherto made war on the Tarentines but gently, in hopes of adjusting matters by way of negociation, took other measures, and began to commit all sorts of hostilities. He took cities, stormed castles, and laid the whole country waste, burning and destroying all before him. The Tarentines brought their army into the field; but Æmilius soon obliged them to take refuge within their walls. However, to induce them to lay aside the design of receiving Pyrrhus, he used the prisoners he had taken with great moderation, and even sent them back without ransom. These highly extolled the generosity of the consul, insomuch that many of the inhabitants were brought over to the Roman party, and they all began to repent of their having rejected a peace and sent for Pyrrhus.

But in the mean time the Tarentine ambassadors arriving in Epirus, pursuant to the powers they had received, made an absolute treaty with the king; who immediately sent before him the famous Cyneas, with 3000 men, to take possession of the citadel of Tarentum. This eloquent minister soon found means to depose Agis, whom the Tarentines had chosen to be their general and the governor of the city, though a sincere friend to the Romans. He likewise prevailed upon the Tarentines to deliver up the citadel into his hands; which he no sooner got possession of, than he dispatched messengers to Pyrrhus, soliciting him to hasten his departure for Italy. In the mean time the consul Æmilius, finding that he could not attempt any thing with success against the Tarentines this campaign, resolved to put his troops into winter quarters in Apulia, which was not far from the territory of Tarentum, that was soon to become the seat of the war. As he was obliged to pass through certain defiles, with the sea on one side, and high hills on the other, he was there attacked by the Tarentines and Epirots from great numbers of barks fraught with balistæ (that is, engines for throwing stones of a vast weight), and from the hills, on which were posted a great many archers and slingers. Hereupon Æmilius placed the Tarentine prisoners between him and the enemy; which the Tarentines perceiving, soon left off molesting the Romans, out of compassion to their own countrymen; so that the Romans arrived safe in Apulia, and there took up their winter-quarters.

The next year Æmilius was continued in the command of his own troops, with the title of *proconsul*; and was ordered to make war upon the Salentines, who had declared for the Tarentines. The present exigence of affairs obliged the Romans to enlist the proletarii, who were the meanest of the people, and therefore by way of contempt called *proletarii*, as being thought incapable

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capable of doing the ſtate any other ſervice than that of peopling the city, and ſtocking the republic with ſubjects. Hitherto they had never been ſuffered to bear arms; but were now, to their great ſatisfaction, enrolled as well as others. In the mean time Pyrrhus arrived at Tarentum, having narrowly eſcaped ſhipwreck; and being conducted into the city by his faithful Cyneas, was received there with loud acclamations.

156 Pyrrhus obliges the Tarentines to learn the art of war.

The Tarentines, who were entirely devoted to their pleaſures, expected that he ſhould take all the fatigues of the war on himſelf, and expoſe only his Epirots to danger. And indeed Pyrrhus for ſome days diſſembled his deſign, and ſuffered the Tarentines to indulge without reſtraint in their uſual diverſions. But his ſhips, which had been diſperſed all over the Ionian ſea, arriving one after another, and with them the troops which he had put on board at Epirus, he began to reform the diſorders that prevailed in the city. The theatre was the place to which the idle Tarentines reſorted daily in great numbers, and where the incendiaries ſtirred up the people to ſedition with their harangues: he therefore cauſed it to be ſhut up, as he did likewiſe the public gardens, porticoes, and places of exerciſe, where the inhabitants uſed to entertain themſelves with news, and ſpeak with great freedom of their governors, cenſuring their conduct, and ſettling the goverment according to their different humours, which occaſioned great diviſions, and rent the city into various factions. As they were a very voluptuous and indolent people, they ſpent whole days and nights in feaſts, maſquerades, plays, &c. Theſe therefore Pyrrhus abſolutely prohibited, as no leſs dangerous than the aſſemblies of prating politicians. They were utter ſtrangers to military exerciſes, and the art of handling arms; but Pyrrhus having cauſed an exact regiſter to be made of all the young men who were fit for war, picked out the ſtrongeſt amongſt them, and incorporated them among his own troops, ſaying, that he would take it upon himſelf to give them courage. He exerciſed them daily for ſeveral hours; and on that occaſion behaved with an inexorable ſeverity, inflicting exemplary puniſhment on ſuch as did not attend or failed in their duty. By theſe wiſe meaſures he prevented ſeditions among the citizens, and inured their youth to military diſcipline; and becauſe many, who had not been accuſtomed to ſuch ſeverity and rigour, withdrew from their native country, Pyrrhus, by a public proclamation, declared all thoſe capitally guilty, who ſhould attempt to abandon their country, or abſent themſelves from the common muſters.

The Tarentines, being now ſenſible that Pyrrhus was determined to be their maſter, began loudly to complain of his conduct; but he, being informed of whatever paſſed among them by his ſpies, who inſinuated themſelves into all companies, privately diſpatched the moſt factious, and ſent thoſe whom he ſuſpected, under various pretences, to his ſon's court in Epirus.

In the mean time P. Valerius Lævinus, the Roman conſul, entering the country of the Lucanians, who were in alliance with the Tarentines, committed great ravages there; and having taken and fortified one of their caſtles, waited in that neighbourhood for Pyrrhus. The king, though he had not yet received any ſuccours from the Samnites, Meſſapians, and other allies of the Tarentines, thought it highly diſhonourable to continue ſhut up in a city, while the Romans were ravaging the country of his friends. He therefore took the field with the troops he had brought with him from Epirus, ſome recruits of Tarentum, and a ſmall number of Italians. But before he began hoſtilities, he wrote a letter to Lævinus, commanding him to diſband his army; and on his refuſal immediately marched towards thoſe parts where Lævinus was waiting for him. The Romans were encamped on the hither ſide of the river Siris; and Pyrrhus appearing on the oppoſite bank, made it his firſt buſineſs to reconnoitre the enemy's camp in perſon, and ſee what appearance they made. With this view he croſſed the river, attended by Megacles, one of his officers and chief favourites; and having obſerved the conſul's intrenchments, the manner in which he had poſted his advanced guards, and the good order of his camp, he was greatly ſurpriſed; and addreſſing Megacles, "Theſe people (ſaid he), are not ſuch barbarians as we take them to be: let us try them before we condemn them." On his return, he changed his reſolution of attacking them; and, ſhutting himſelf up in his intrenchments, waited for the arrival of the confederate troops. In the mean time, he poſted ſtrong guards along the river, to prevent the enemy from paſſing it, and continually ſent out ſcouts to diſcover the deſigns and watch the motions of the conſul. Some of theſe being taken by the advanced guards of the Romans, the conſul himſelf led them through his camp, and having ſhewed them his army, ſent them back to the king, telling them, that he had many other troops to ſhow them in due time.

157 His firſt battle with the Romans.

Lævinus being determined to draw the enemy to a battle before Pyrrhus received the reinforcements he expected, having harangued his troops, marched to the banks of the Siris; and there drawing up his infantry in battalia, ordered the cavalry to file off and march a great way about, in order to find a paſſage at ſome place not defended by the enemy. Accordingly they paſſed the river without being obſerved; and falling upon the guards which Pyrrhus had poſted on the banks over-againſt the conſular army, gave the infantry an opportunity of croſſing the river on bridges which Lævinus had prepared for that purpoſe. But before they got over, Pyrrhus, haſtening from his camp, which was at ſome diſtance from the river, hoped to cut the Roman army in pieces while they were diſordered with the difficulties of paſſing the river and climbing up the ſteep banks; but the cavalry covering the infantry, and ſtanding between them and the Epirots, gave them time to form themſelves on the banks of the river. On the other hand, Pyrrhus drew up his men as faſt as they came from the camp, and performed ſuch deeds of valour, that the Romans thought him worthy of the great reputation he had acquired.

As the cavalry alone had hitherto engaged, Pyrrhus, who confided moſt in his infantry, haſtened back to the camp, in order to bring them to the charge; but took two precautions before he began the attack: the firſt was, to ride through the ranks, and ſhow himſelf to the whole army; for his horſe having been killed under him in the firſt onſet, a report had been ſpread

Rome. ſpread that he was ſlain: the ſecond was, to change his habit and helmet with Megacles; for having been known in the engagement of the horſe by the richneſs of his attire and armour, many of the Romans had aimed at him in particular, ſo that he was with the utmoſt difficulty taken and ſaved, after his horſe had been killed under him. Thus diſguiſed, he led his phalanx againſt the Roman legions, and attacked them with incredible fury. Lævinus ſuſtained the ſhock with great reſolution, ſo that the victory was for many hours warmly diſputed. The Romans gave ſeveral times way to the Epirots, and the Epirots to the Romans; but both parties rallied again, and were brought back to the charge by their commanders. Megacles, in the attire and helmet of Pyrrhus, was in all places, and well ſupported the character he had aſſumed. But his diſguiſe at laſt proved fatal to him: for a Roman knight, by name *Dexter*, taking him for the king, followed him wherever he went; and having found an opportunity of diſcharging a blow at him, ſtruck him dead on the ſpot, ſtript him of his helmet and armour, and carried them in triumph to the conſul, who, by ſhowing to the Epirots the ſpoils of their king, ſo terrified them, that they began to give ground. But Pyrrhus, appearing bare-headed in the firſt files of his phalanx, and riding through all the lines, undeceived his men, and inſpired them with new courage.

The advantage ſeemed to be pretty equal on both ſides, when Lævinus ordered his cavalry to advance; which Pyrrhus obſerving, drew up twenty elephants in the front of his army, with towers on their backs full of bowmen. The very ſight of thoſe dreadful animals chilled the bravery of the Romans, who had never before ſeen any. However, they ſtill advanced, till their horſes, not being able to bear the ſmell of them, and frightened at the ſtrange noiſe they made, either threw their riders, or carried them on full ſpeed in ſpite of their utmoſt efforts. In the mean time the archers, diſcharging ſhowers of darts from the towers, wounded ſeveral of the Romans in that confuſion, while others were trod to death by the elephants. Notwithſtanding the diſorder of the cavalry, the legionaries ſtill kept their ranks, and could not be broken, till Pyrrhus attacked them in perſon at the head of the Theſſalian horſe. The onſet was ſo furious, that they were forced to yield, and retire in diſorder. The king of Epirus reſtrained the ardour of his troops, and would not ſuffer them to purſue the enemy: an elephant, which had been wounded by a Roman ſoldier named *Minucius*, having cauſed a great diſorder in his army, this accident favoured the retreat of the Romans, and gave them time to repaſs the river, and take refuge in Apulia. The Epirot remained maſter of the field, and had the pleaſure to ſee the Romans fly before him: but the victory coſt him dear, a great number of his beſt officers and ſoldiers having been ſlain in the battle; whence he was heard to ſay after the action, that he was both conqueror and conquered, and that if he gained ſuch another victory he ſhould be obliged to return to Epirus alone.

159 The Romans defeated.

His firſt care after the action was to bury the dead, with which the plain was covered; and herein he made no diſtinction between the Romans and his own Epirots. In viewing the bodies of the former, he obſerved, that none of them had received diſhonourable wounds; that they had all fallen in the poſts aſſigned them, ſtill held their ſwords in their hands, and ſhowed, even after death, a certain martial air and fierceneſs in their faces; and on this occaſion it was that he uttered thoſe famous words: "O that Pyrrhus had the Romans for his ſoldiers, or the Romans Pyrrhus for their leader! together, we ſhould ſubdue the whole world." Rome.

159 Pyrrhus reduces ſeveral towns.

The king of Epirus underſtood the art of war too well not to reap what advantage he could from his victory. He broke into the countries in alliance with the Romans, plundered the lands of the republic, and made incurſions even into the neighbourhood of Rome. Many cities opened their gates to him, and in a ſhort time he made himſelf maſter of the greateſt part of Campania. While he was in that fruitful province, ſubſiſting his troops there at the expence of the Romans, he was joined by the Samnites, Luconians, and Meſſapians, whom he had ſo long expected. After having reproached them for their delay, he gave them a good ſhare of the ſpoils he had taken from the enemy; and having by this means gained their affections, he marched without loſs of time to lay ſiege to Capua: but Lævinus, having already received a reinforcement of two legions, threw ſome troops into the city; which obliged Pyrrhus to drop his deſign, and, leaving Capua, to march ſtraight to Naples. Lævinus followed him, haraſſing his troops on their march; and at length, by keeping his army in the neighbourhood, forced him to give over all thoughts of making himſelf maſter of that important city. The king then, all on a ſudden, took his route towards Rome by the Latin way, ſurpriſed Fregellæ, and, marching through the country of the Hernici, ſat down before Prœneſte. There, from the top of an hill, he had the pleaſure of ſeeing Rome; and is ſaid to have advanced ſo near the walls, that he drove a cloud of duſt into the city. But he was ſoon forced to retire by the other conſul T. Coruncanius, who, having reduced Hetruria, was juſt then returned with his victorious army to Rome. The king of Epirus therefore, having no hopes of bringing the Hetrurians into his intereſt, and ſeeing two conſular armies ready to fall upon him, raiſed the ſiege of Prœneſte, and haſtened back into Campania; where, to his great ſurpriſe, he found Lævinus with a more numerous army than that which he had defeated on the banks of the Siris. The conſul went to meet him, with a deſign to try the fate of another battle; which Pyrrhus being unwilling to decline, drew up his army, and, to ſtrike terror into the Roman legions, ordered his men to beat their bucklers with their lances, and the leaders of the elephants to force them to make a hideous noiſe. But the noiſe was returned with ſuch an univerſal ſhout by the Romans, that Pyrrhus, thinking ſo much alacrity on the part of the vanquiſhed too ſure a prognoſtic of victory, altered his mind; and, pretending that the auguries were not favourable, retired to Tarentum, and put an end to the campaign.

160 He inclines to peace.

While Pyrrhus continued quiet at Tarentum, he had time to reflect on the valour and conduct of the Romans; which made him conclude, that the war in which he was engaged muſt end in his ruin and diſgrace,

Rome. grace, if not terminated by an advantageous peace. He was therefore overjoyed when he heard that the senate had determined to send an honourable embassy to him, not doubting but their errand was to propose terms of peace. The ambassadors were three men of distinguished merit; to wit, Cornelius Dolabella, who was famous for the signal victory he had gained over the Senones, Fabricius, and Æmilius Papus, who had been his colleague in the consulate two years before. When they were admitted to an audience, the only thing they demanded was a surrender of the prisoners, either by the way of exchange, or at such a ransom as should be agreed on; for Pyrrhus, in the late battle, had made 1800 prisoners, most of them Roman knights and men of distinction in the republic. They had fought with great bravery, till their horses, frightened with the roaring of the king's elephants, had either thrown them or obliged them to dismount; by which unforeseen accident they had fallen into the enemy's hands. The senate therefore, pitying the condition of those brave men, had determined, contrary to their custom, to redeem them. Pyrrhus was greatly surprised and disappointed when he found that they had no other proposals to make; but, concealing his thoughts, he only answered, that he would consider of it, and let them know his resolution. Accordingly he assembled his council: but his chief favourites were divided in their opinions. Milo, who commanded in the citadel of Tarentum, was for coming to no composition with the Romans; but Cyneas, who knew his master's inclination, proposed not only sending back the prisoners without ransom, but dispatching an embassy to Rome to treat with the senate of a lasting peace. His advice was approved, and he himself appointed to go on that embassy. After these resolutions, the king acquainted the ambassadors, that he intended to release the prisoners without ransom, since he had already riches enough, and desired nothing of the republic but her friendship. Afterwards he had several conferences with Fabricius, whose virtue he had tried with mighty offers of riches and grandeur; but finding him proof against all temptations, he resolved to try whether his intrepidity and courage were equal to his virtue. With this view, he caused an elephant to be placed behind a curtain in the hall where he received the Roman ambassador. As Fabricius had never seen one of those beasts, the king, taking a turn or two in the hall with him, brought him within the elephant's reach, and then caused the curtain to be drawn all on a sudden, and that monstrous animal to make his usual noise, and even lay his trunk on Fabricius's head. But the intrepid Roman, without betraying the least fear or concern, "Does the great king, (said he, with surprising calmness), who could not stagger me with his offers, think to frighten me with the braying of a beast?" Pyrrhus, astonished at his immoveable constancy, invited him to dine with him; and on this occasion it was that, the conversation turning upon Epicurean philosophy, Fabricius made that celebrated exclamation, "O that Pyrrhus, both for Rome's sake and his own, had placed his happiness in the boasted indolence of Epicurus."

Every thing Pyrrhus heard or saw of the Romans, increased his earnestness for peace. He sent for the three ambassadors, released 200 of the prisoners without ransom, and suffered the rest, on their parole, to return to Rome to celebrate the Saturnalia, or feasts of Saturn, in their own families. Having by this obliging behaviour gained the good-will of the Roman ambassadors, he sent Cyneas to Rome almost at the same time that they left Tarentum. The instructions he gave this faithful minister, were, to bring the Romans to grant these three articles: 1. That the Tarentines should be included in the treaty made with the king of Epirus. 2. That the Greek cities in Italy should be suffered to enjoy their laws and liberties. 3. That the republic should restore to the Samnites, Lucanians, and Bruttians, all the places she had taken from them. Upon these conditions, Pyrrhus declared himself ready to forbear all further hostilities, and conclude a lasting peace. With these instructions Cyneas set out for Rome; where, partly by his eloquence, partly by rich presents to the senators and their wives, he soon gained a good number of voices. When he was admitted into the senate, he made an harangue worthy of a disciple of the great Demosthenes; after which, he read the conditions Pyrrhus proposed, and, with a great deal of eloquence, endeavoured to show the reasonableness and moderation of his master's demands. Asked leave for Pyrrhus to come to Rome to conclude and sign the treaty. The senators were generally inclined to agree to Pyrrhus's terms: but nevertheless, as several senators were absent, the determination of the affair was postponed to the next day; when Appius Claudius, the greatest orator and most learned civilian in Rome, old and blind as he was, caused himself to be carried to the senate, where he had not appeared for many years; and there, partly by his eloquence, partly by his authority, so prepossessed the minds of the senators against the king of Epirus, and the conditions he offered, that, when he had done speaking, the conscript fathers unanimously passed a decree, the substance of which was, That the war with Pyrrhus should be continued; that his ambassador should be sent back that very day; that the king of Epirus should not be permitted to come to Rome; and that they should acquaint his ambassador, that Rome would enter into no treaty of peace with his master, till he had left Italy.

161 The Romans refuse to treat.

Cyneas, surprised at the answer given him, left Rome the same day, and returned to Tarentum to acquaint the king with the final resolution of the senate. Pyrrhus would have willingly concluded a peace with them upon honourable terms; but, as the conditions they offered were not by any means consistent with the reputation of his arms, he began, without loss of time, to make all due preparations for the next campaign. On the other hand, the Romans having raised to the consulate P. Sulpicius Saverrio, and P. Decius Mus, dispatched them both into Apulia, where they found Pyrrhus encamped near a little town called *Asculum*. There the consuls, joining their armies, fortified themselves at the foot of the Apennines, having between them and the enemy a large deep stream which divided the plain. Both armies continued a great while on the opposite banks, before either ventured to pass over to attack the other. The Epirots allowed the Romans to cross the stream, and drew up in the plain. On the other hand, Pyrrhus placed his men

Rome.

162 Another title.

men likewise in order of battle in the same plain; and all the ancients do him the justice to say, that no commander ever understood better the art of drawing up an army, and directing its motions. In the right wing he placed his Epirots, and the Samnites; in his left, the Lucanians, Bruttians, and Salentines; and his phalanx in the centre. The centre of the Roman army consisted of four legions, which were to engage the enemy's phalanx; on their wings were posted the light-armed auxiliaries, and the Roman horse. The consuls, in order to guard their troops against the fury of the elephants, had prepared chariots, armed with long points of iron in the shape of forks, and filled with soldiers carrying firebrands, which they were directed to throw at the elephants, and by that means frighten them, and set their wooden towers on fire. These chariots were posted over-against the king's elephants, and ordered not to stir till they entered upon action. To this precaution the Roman generals added another, which was, to direct a body of Apulians to attack Pyrrhus's camp in the heat of the engagement, in order to force it, or at least draw off part of the enemy's troops to defend it. At length the attack began, both parties being pretty equal in number; for each of them consisted of about 40,000 men. The phalanx sustained, for a long time, the furious onset of the legions with incredible bravery: but at length being forced to give way, Pyrrhus commanded his elephants to advance, but not on the side where the Romans had posted their chariots; they marched round, and, falling upon the Roman horse, soon put them into confusion. Then the phalanx, returning with fresh courage to the charge, made the Roman legions in their turn give ground. On this occasion Decius was killed, so that one consul only was left to command the two Roman armies. But while all thing seemed to favour Pyrrhus, the body of Apulians, which we have mentioned above, falling unexpectedly on the camp of the Epirots, obliged the king to dispatch a strong detachment to defend his intrenchments. Upon the departure of these troops, some of the Epirots, imagining that the camp was taken, began to lose courage, and retire; those who were next to them followed their example, and in a short time the whole army gave way. Pyrrhus having attempted several times in vain to rally his forces, returned to the charge with a small number of his friends and the most courageous of his officers. With these he sustained the fury of the victorious legions, and covered the retreat of his own men. But being, after a most gallant behaviour, dangerously wounded, he retired at last with his small band in good order, leaving the Romans masters of the field. As the sun was near setting, the Romans being extremely fatigued, and a great number of them wounded, the consul Sulpicius, not thinking it advisable to pursue the enemy, founded a retreat, repassed the stream, and brought his troops back to the camp. Sulpicius appeared in the field of battle the next day, with a design to bring the Epirots to a second engagement; but finding they had withdrawn in the night to Tarentum, he likewise retired, and put his troops into winter-quarters in Apulia.

163 Pyrrhus defeated, and dangerously wounded.

Both armies continued quiet in their quarters during winter; but early in the spring took the field anew. The Romans were commanded this year by two men of great fame, whom they had raised to the consulate the second time: these were the celebrated C. Fabricius, and Q. Æmilius Papus; who no sooner arrived in Apulia, than they led their troops into the territory of Tarentum. Pyrrhus, who had received considerable reinforcements from Epirus, met them near the frontiers, and encamped at a small distance from the Roman army. While the consuls were waiting here for a favourable opportunity to give battle, a messenger from Nicias, the king's physician, delivered a letter to Fabricius; wherein the traitor offered to take off his master by poison, provided the consul would promise him a reward proportionable to the greatness of the service. The virtuous Roman, being filled with horror at the bare proposal of such a crime, immediately communicated the affair to his colleague; who readily joined with him in writing a letter to Pyrrhus, wherein they warned him, without discovering the criminal, to take care of himself, and be upon his guard against the treacherous designs of those about him. Pyrrhus, out of a deep sense of gratitude for so great a benefit, released immediately, without ransom, all the prisoners he had taken. But the Romans, disdaining to accept either a favour from an enemy, or a recompence for not committing the blackest treachery, declared, that they would not receive their prisoners but by way of exchange; and accordingly sent to Pyrrhus an equal number of Samnite and Tarentine prisoners.

164 The king's physician offers to poison him, but is discovered by the Romans.

As the king of Epirus grew every day more weary of a war which he feared would end in his disgrace, he sent Cyneas a second time to Rome, to try whether he could, with his artful harangues, prevail upon the conscript fathers to hearken to an accommodation, upon such terms as were consistent with his honour. But the ambassador found the senators steady in their former resolution, and determined not to enter into a treaty with his master till he had left Italy, and withdraw from thence all his forces. This gave the king great uneasiness; for he had already lost most of his veteran troops and best officers, and was sensible that he should lose the rest if he ventured another engagement. While he was revolving these melancholy thoughts in his mind, ambassadors arrived at his camp from the Syracusians, Agrigentines, and Leontines, imploring the assistance of his arms to drive out the Carthaginians, and put an end to the troubles which threatened their respective states with utter destruction. Pyrrhus, who wanted only some honourable pretence to leave Italy, laid hold of this; and, appointing Milo governor of Tarentum, with a strong garrison to keep the inhabitants in awe during his absence, set sail for Sicily with 30,000 foot and 2500 horse, on board a fleet of 200 ships. Here he was at first attended with great success; but the Sicilians, disgusted at the resolution he had taken of passing over into Africa, and much more at the enormous exactions and extortions of his ministers and courtiers, had submitted partly to the Carthaginians, and partly to the Mamertines. When Carthage heard of this change, new troops were raised all over Africa, and a numerous army sent into Sicily to recover the cities which Pyrrhus had taken. As the Sicilians daily deserted from him in crowds, he was no way in a condition, with his

165 Pyrrhus goes into Sicily.

Rome. his Epirots alone, to withstand so powerful an enemy; and therefore, when deputies came to him from the Tarentines, Samnites, Bruttians, and Lucanians, representing to him the losses they had sustained since his departure, and remonstrating, that, without his assistance, they must fall a sacrifice to the Romans, he laid hold of that opportunity to abandon the island, and return to Italy. His fleet was attacked by that of Carthage; and his army, after their landing, by the Mamertines. But Pyrrhus having, by his heroic bravery, escaped all danger, marched along the sea-shore, in order to reach Tarentum that way. As he passed through the country of the Locrians, who had not long before massacred the troops he had left there, he not only exercised all sorts of cruelty on the inhabitants, but plundered the temple of Proserpine to supply the wants of his army. The immense riches which he found there, were, by his order, sent to Tarentum by sea; but the ships that carried them being dashed against the rocks by a tempest, and the mariners all lost, this proud prince being convinced, says Livy, that the gods were not imaginary beings, caused all the treasure, which the sea had thrown upon the shore, to be carefully gathered up, and replaced in the temple: nay, to appease the wrath of the angry goddess, he put all those to death who had advised him to plunder her temple. However, superstition made the ancients ascribe to this act of impiety all the misfortunes which afterwards befel that unhappy prince.

166 He returns into Italy.

Pyrrhus at length arrived at Tarentum; but of the army he had carried into Sicily, he brought back into Italy only 2000 horse, and not quite 20,000 foot. He therefore reinforced them with the best troops he could raise in the countries of the Samnites, Lucanians, and Bruttians; and hearing that the two new consuls, Curius Dentatus and Cornelius Lentulus, had divided their forces, the one invading Lucania, and the other Samnium, he likewise divided his army into two bodies, marching with the choice of his Epirots against Dentatus, in hopes of surprising him in his camp near Beneventum. But the consul, having notice of his approach, went out of his intrenchments with a strong detachment of legionaries to meet him; repulsed his van-guard, put many of the Epirots to the sword, and took some of their elephants. Curius encouraged with this success, marched his army into the Taurasian fields, and drew it up in a plain which was wide enough for his troops, but too narrow for the Epirot phalanx, the phalangites being so crowded that they could not handle their arms without difficulty. But the king's eagerness to try his strength and skill with so renowned a commander, made him engage at that great disadvantage. Upon the first signal the action began; and one of the king's wings giving way, the victory seemed to incline to the Romans. But that wing where the king fought in person repulsed the enemy, and drove them back quite to their intrenchments. This advantage was in great part owing to the elephants; which Curius perceiving, commanded a corps de reserve which he had posted near the camp, to advance and fall upon the elephants. These carrying burning torches in one hand, and their swords in the other, threw the former at the elephants, and with the latter defended themselves against their guides; by which means they were both forced to give way. The elephants being put to flight broke into the phalanx, close as it was, and there caused a general disorder; which was increased by a remarkable accident: for it is said, that a young elephant being wounded, and thereupon making a dreadful noise, the mother quitting her rank, and hastening to the assistance of her young one, put those who still kept their ranks into the utmost confusion. But, however that be, it is certain that the Romans obtained at last a complete victory. Orosius and Eutropius tell us, that Pyrrhus's army consisted of 80,000 foot, and 6000 horse, including his Epirots and allies; whereas the consular army was scarce 20,000 strong. Those who exaggerate the king's loss say, that the number of the slain on his side amounted to 30,000 men; but others reduce it to 20,000. All writers agree, that Curius took 1200 prisoners, and eight elephants. This victory, which was the most decisive Rome had ever gained, brought all Italy under subjection, and paved the way for those vast conquests which afterwards made the Romans masters of the whole known world.

167 Is utterly defeated by Curius Dentatus.

Pyrrhus being no way in a condition, after the great losses he had sustained, to keep the field, retired to Tarentum, attended only by a small body of horse, leaving the Romans in full possession of his camp; which they so much admired, that they made it ever after a model to form theirs by. And now the king of Epirus resolved to leave Italy as soon as possible; but concealed his design, and endeavoured to keep up the drooping spirits of his allies, by giving them hopes of speedy succours from Greece. Accordingly he dispatched ambassadors into Ætolia, Illyricum, and Macedon, demanding supplies of men and money. But the answers from those courts not proving favourable, he forged such as might please those whom he was willing to deceive; and by this means supported the courage of his friends, and kept his enemy in play. When he could conceal his departure no longer, he pretended to be on a sudden in a great passion at the dilatoriness of his friends in sending him succours; and acquainted the Tarentines, that he must go and bring them over himself. However, he left behind him a strong garison in the citadel of Tarentum, under the command of the same Milo who had kept it for him during his stay in Sicily. In order to keep this governor in his duty, he is said to have made him a very strange present, *viz.* a chair covered with the skin of Nicias, the treacherous physician, who had offered Fabricius to poison his master. After all these disguises and precautions, Pyrrhus at last set sail for Epirus, and arrived safe at Acroceraunium with 8000 foot and 500 horse; after having spent, to no purpose, six years in Italy and Sicily.

168 He abandons his allies,

Though, from the manner in which Pyrrhus took his leave, his Italian allies had little reason to expect any further assistance from him, yet they continued to amuse themselves with vain hopes, till certain accounts arrived of his being killed at the siege of Argos, as has been related under the article EPIRUS. This threw the Samnites into despair: so that they put all to the issue of a general battle; in which they were defeated with such dreadful slaughter, that the nation is said to have been almost exterminated. This overthrow was soon followed by the submission of the Lucanians, Bruttians, Tarentines, Sarcinates, Picentes, and Salentines; so that Rome now became mistress of all the nations

169 Who are subdued, and the Romans become masters of all Italy.

Rome.

nations from the remoteſt parts of Hetruria to the Ionian ſea, and from the Tyrrhenian ſea to the Adriatic. All theſe nations, however, did not enjoy the ſame privileges. Some were entirely ſubject to the republic, and had no laws but what they received from thence; others retained their old laws and cuſtoms, but in ſubjection to the republic: ſome were tributary; and others allies, who were obliged to furniſh troops at their own expence when the Romans required. Some had the privilege of Roman citizenſhip, their ſoldiers being incorporated in the legions; while others had a right of ſuffrage in the elections made by the centuries. Theſe different degrees of honour, privileges, and liberty, were founded on the different terms granted to the conquered nations when they ſurrendered, and were afterwards increaſed according to their fidelity and the ſervices they did the republic.

170 Other conſuetſs made by the Romans.

The Romans now became reſpected by foreign nations, and received ambaſſadors from Ptolemy Philadelphus king of Egypt, and from Apollonia a city of Macedon. Senſible of their own importance, they now granted protection to whatever nation requeſted it of them; but this not with a view of ſerving one party, but that they might have an opportunity of ſubjecting both. In this manner they aſſiſted the Mamertines againſt Hiero king of Syracuſe, which brought on the wars with the Carthaginians, which terminated in the total deſtruction of that ancient republic, as has been related under the article CARTHAGE. The interval between the firſt and ſecond Punic wars was by the Romans employed in reducing the Boii and Ligurians, who had revolted. Theſe were Gauliſh nations, who had always been very formidable to the Romans, and now gave one of their conſuls a notable defeat. However, he ſoon after ſufficiently revenged himſelf, and defeated the enemy with great ſlaughter; though it was not till ſome time after, and with a good deal of difficulty, that they were totally ſubdued. During this interval alſo, the Romans ſeized on the iſlands of Sardinia, Corſica, and Malta; and in the year 219 B. C. the two former were reduced to the form of a province. Papirius, who had ſubdued Corſica, demanded a triumph; but not having intereſt enough to obtain it, he took a method entirely new to do himſelf juſtice. He put himſelf at the head of his victorious army, and marched to the temple of Jupiter Latialis, on the hill of Alba, with all the pomp that attended triumphant victors at Rome. He made no other alteration in the ceremony, but that of wearing a crown of myrtle inſtead of a crown of laurel, and this on account of his having defeated the Corſicans in a place where there was a grove of myrtles. The example of Papirius was afterwards followed by a great many generals to whom the ſenate refuſed triumphs.

171 Illyricum ſubdued.

The next year, when M. Æmilius Barbula and M. Junius Pera were conſuls, a new war ſprung up in a kingdom out of Italy. *Illyricum*, properly ſo called, which bordered upon Macedon and Epirus, was at this time governed by a woman named *Teuta*, the widow of king Agron, and guardian to her ſon Pinæus, who was under age. The ſucceſs of her late huſband againſt the Ætolians had flushed her to ſuch a degree, that, inſtead of ſettling the affairs of her ward in peace, ſhe commanded her ſubjects to cruiſe along the coaſt, ſeize all the ſhips they met, take what places they could, and ſpare no nation. Her pirates had, purſuant to her orders, taken and plundered many ſhips belonging to the Roman merchants; and her troops were then beſieging the iſland of Iſſa in the Adriatic, though the inhabitants had put themſelves the protection of the republic. Upon the complaints therefore of the Italian merchants, and to protect the people of Iſſa, the ſenate ſent two ambaſſadors to the Illyrian queen, Lucius and Caius Coruncanius, to demand of her that ſhe would reſtrain her ſubjects from infeſting the ſea with piracies. She anſwered them haughtily, that ſhe could only promiſe that her ſubjects ſhould not for the future attack the Romans in her name, and by public authority: "but as for any thing more, it is not cuſtomary with us, (ſaid ſhe), to lay reſtraints on our ſubjects, nor will we forbid them to reap thoſe advantages from the ſea which it offers them." Your cuſtoms then, (replied the youngeſt of the ambaſſadors), are very different from ours. At Rome we make public examples of thoſe ſubjects who injure others, whether at home or abroad. Teuta, we can, by our arms, force you to reform the abuſes of your bad government." Theſe unſeaſonable threatenings provoked Teuta, who was naturally a proud and imperious woman, to ſuch a degree, that, without regard to the right of nations, ſhe cauſed the ambaſſadors to be murdered on their return home.

When ſo notorious an infraction of the law of nations was known at Rome, the people demanded vengeance; and the ſenate having firſt honoured the manes of the ambaſſadors, by erecting, as was uſual in ſuch caſes, ſtatues three feet high to their memory, ordered a fleet to be equipped, and troops raiſed, with all poſſible expedition. But now Teuta, reflecting on the enormity of her proceedings, ſent an embaſſy to Rome, aſſuring the ſenate that ſhe had no hand in the murder of the ambaſſadors, and offering to deliver up to the republic thoſe who had committed that barbarous aſſaſſination. The Romans being at that time threatened with a war from the Gauls, were ready to accept this ſatisfaction: but in the mean time the Illyrian fleet having gained ſome advantage over that of the Achæans, and taken the iſland of Corcyra near Epirus, this ſucceſs made Teuta believe herſelf invincible, and forget the promiſe ſhe had made to the Romans; nay, ſhe ſent her fleet to ſeize on the iſland of Iſſa, which the Romans had taken under their protection.

Hereupon the conſuls for the new year, P. Poſthumius Albinus and Cn. Fulvius Centumalus, embarked for Illyricum; Fulvius having the command of the fleet, which conſiſted of 100 galleys; and Poſthumius of the land-forces, which amounted to 20,000 foot, beſides a ſmall body of horſe. Fulvius appeared with his fleet before Corcyra in the Adriatic, and was put in poſſeſſion both of the iſland and city by Demetrius of Pharos, governor of the place for queen Teuta. Nor was this all; Demetrius found means to make the inhabitants of Apollonia drive out the Illyrian garriſon, and admit into their city the Roman troops. As Apollonia was one of the keys of Illyricum on the ſide of Macedon, the conſuls, who had hitherto acted jointly, no ſooner ſaw themſelves in poſſeſſion of it than they ſeparated, the fleet cruiſing along the coaſt, and the army penetrating into the heart of the queen's dominions. The Andyœans, Parthini, and Atintanes, voluntarily ſubmitted to Poſthumius, being induced by

Rome. the perſuaſions of Demetrius to ſhake off the Illyrian yoke. The conſul being now in poſſeſſion of moſt of the inland towns, returned to the coaſt, where, with the aſſiſtance of the fleet, he took many ſtrong-holds, among which was Nutria, a place of great ſtrength, and defended by a numerous gariſon; ſo that it made a vigorous defence, the Romans having loſt before it a great many private men, ſeveral legionary tribunes, and one queſtor. However, this loſs was repaired by the taking of 40 Illyrian veſſels, which were returning home laden with booty. At length the Roman fleet appeared before Iſſa, which, by Teuta's order, was ſtill cloſely beſieged, notwithſtanding the loſſes ſhe had ſuſtained. However, upon the approach of the Roman fleet, the Illyrians diſperſed; but the Pharians who ſerved among them, followed the example of their countryman Demetrius, and joined the Romans, to whom the Iſſani readily ſubmitted.

In the mean time Sp. Corvilius and Q. Fabius Maximus being raiſed to the conſulate a ſecond time, Poſthumius was recalled from Illyricum, and refuſed a triumph for having been too prodigal of the Roman blood at the ſiege of Nutria. His colleague Fulvius was appointed to command the land-forces in his room, in quality of proconſul. Hereupon Teuta, who had founded great hopes on the change of the conſuls, retired to one of her ſtrong-holds called *Rhizon*, and from thence early in the ſpring ſent an embaſſy to Rome. The ſenate refuſed to treat with her; but granted the young king a peace upon the following conditions: 1. That he ſhould pay an annual tribute to the republic. 2. That he ſhould ſurrender part of his dominions to the Romans. 3. That he ſhould never ſuffer above three of his ſhips of war at a time to ſail beyond Lyſſus, a town on the confines of Macedon and Illyricum. The places he yielded to the Romans in virtue of this treaty, were the iſlands of Corcyra, Iſſa, and Pharos, the city of Dyrrhachium, and the country of the Atintanes. Soon after Teuta, either out of ſhame, or compelled by a ſecret article of the treaty, abdicated the regency, and Demetrius ſucceeded her.

172 The Gauls of Inſubria and Liguria ſubdued. Before this war was ended, the Romans were alarmed by new motions of the Gauls, and the great progreſs which the Carthaginians made in Spain. At this time alſo the fears of the people were excited by a prophecy ſaid to be taken out of the Sibylline books, that the Gauls and Greeks ſhould one day be in poſſeſſion of Rome. This prophecy, however, the ſenate found means to elude, as they pretended, by burying two Gauls and two Greeks alive, and then telling the multitude that the Gauls and Greeks were now in the poſſeſſion of Rome. The difficulties which ſuperſtition had raiſed being thus ſurmounted, the Romans made vaſt preparations againſt the Gauls, whom they ſeem to have dreaded above all other nations. Some ſay that the number of forces raiſed by the Romans on this occaſion amounted to no fewer than 800,000 men. Of this incredible multitude 248,000 foot and 26,000 horſe were Romans or Campanians; nevertheleſs, the Gauls with only 50,000 foot and 20,000 horſe, forced a paſſage through Hetruria, and took the road towards Rome. Here they had the good fortune at firſt to defeat one of the Roman armies; but being ſoon after met by two others, they were utterly defeated, with the loſs of more than 50,000 of their number. The Romans then entered their country, which they cruelly ravaged; but a plague breaking out in their army, obliged them to return home. This was followed by a new war, in which thoſe Gauls who inhabited Inſubria and Liguria were totally ſubdued, and their country reduced to a Roman province. Theſe conqueſts were followed by that of Iſtria; Dimalum, a city of importance in Illyricum; and Pharos, an iſland in the Adriatic ſea.

The ſecond Punic war for ſome time retarded the conqueſts of the Romans, and even threatened their ſtate with entire deſtruction; but Hannibal being at laſt recalled from Italy, and entirely defeated at Zama, they made peace upon ſuch advantageous terms as gave them an entire ſuperiority over that republic, which they not long after entirely ſubverted, as has been related in the hiſtory of CARTHAGE.

173 The Roman empire arrives at its full extent. The ſucceſsful iſſue of the ſecond Punic war had greatly increaſed the extent of the Roman empire. They were now maſters of all Sicily, the Mediterranean iſlands, and great part of Spain; and, through the diſſenſions of the Aſiatic ſtates with the king of Macedon, a pretence was now found for carrying their arms into theſe parts. The Gauls in the mean time, however, continued their incurſions, but now ceaſed to be formidable; while the kings of Macedon, thro' miſconduct, were firſt obliged to ſubmit to a diſadvantageous peace, and at laſt totally ſubdued *. The reduction of Macedon was ſoon followed by that of all Greece, either by the name of allies or otherwiſe; while Antiochus the Great, to whom Hannibal fled for protection, by an unſucceſsful war firſt gave the Romans a footing in Aſia †. The Spaniards and Gauls continued to be the moſt obſtinate enemies. The former particularly, were rather exterminated than reduced; and even this required the utmoſt care and vigilance of Scipio Æmilianus, the conqueror of Carthage, to execute ‡.

* See *Macedon.*

† See *Syria.*

‡ See *Spain* and *Numantia.*

Thus the Romans attained to a height of power ſuperior to any other nation in the world; but now a ſedition broke out, which we may ſay was never terminated but with the overthrow of the republic. This had its origin from Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, deſcended from a family which, though plebeian, was as illuſtrious as any in the commonwealth. His father had been twice raiſed to the conſulate, was a great general, and had been honoured with two triumphs. But he was ſtill more renowned for his domeſtic virtues and probity, than for his birth or valour. He married the daughter of the firſt Africanus, ſaid to be the pattern of her ſex, and the prodigy of her age; and had by her ſeveral children, of whom three only arrived to maturity of age, Tiberius Gracchus, Caius Gracchus, and a daughter named *Sempronia*, who was married to the ſecond Africanus. Tiberius, the eldeſt, was deemed the moſt accompliſhed youth in Rome, with reſpect to the qualities both of body and mind. His extraordinary talents were heightened by a noble air, an engaging countenance, and all thoſe winning graces of nature which recommend merit. He made his firſt campaigns under his brother-in-law, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf on all occaſions by his courage, and by the prudence of his conduct. When he returned to Rome, he applied himſelf to the ſtudy of eloquence; and, at

174 Sedition of the Gracchi.

Rome. 30 years old, was accounted the beſt orator of his age. He married the daughter of Appius Claudius, who had been formerly conſul and cenſor, and was then prince of the ſenate. He continued for ſome time in the ſentiments both of his own and his wife's family, and ſupported the intereſts of the patricians; but without openly attacking the popular faction. He was the chief author and negociator of that ſhameful neceſſary peace with the Numantines; which the ſenate, with the utmoſt injuſtice, diſannulled, and condemned the conſul, the quæſtor, and all the officers who had ſigned it, to be delivered up to the Numantines *. The people indeed, out of eſteem for Gracchus, would not ſuffer him to be ſacrificed: but, however, he had juſt reaſon to complain, both of the ſenate and people, for paſſing ſo ſcandalous a decree againſt his general and himſelf, and breaking a treaty whereby the lives of ſo many citizens had been ſaved. But as the ſenate had chiefly promoted ſuch baſe and iniquitous proceedings, he reſolved in due time to ſhow his reſentment againſt the party which had contributed moſt to his diſgrace.

* See *Numantia*.

In order to this, he ſtood for the tribuneſhip of the people; which he no ſooner obtained, than he reſolved to attack the nobility in the moſt tender part. They had uſurped lands unjuſtly; cultivated them by ſlaves, to the great detriment of the public; and had lived for about 250 years in open defiance to the Licinian law, by which it was enacted that no citizen ſhould poſſeſs more than 500 acres. This law Tib. Gracchus reſolved to revive, and by that means revenge himſelf on the patricians. But it was not revenge alone which prompted him to embark in ſo dangerous an attempt. It is pretended, that his mother Cornelia animated him to undertake ſomething worthy both of his and her family. The reproaches of his mother, the authority of ſome great men, namely of his father-in-law Appius Claudius, of P. Craſſus the *pontifex maximus*, and of Mutius Scævola, the moſt learned civilian in Rome, and his natural thirſt after glory, joined with an eager deſire of revenge, conſpired to draw him into this moſt unfortunate ſcheme.

175 A new law propoſed by Gracchus.

The law, as he firſt drew it up, was very mild: for it only enacted, that thoſe who poſſeſſed more than 500 acres of land ſhould part with the overplus; and that the full value of the ſaid lands ſhould be paid them out of the public treaſury. The lands thus purchaſed by the public, were to be divided among the poor citizens; and cultivated either by themſelves, or by freemen, who were upon the ſpot. Tiberius allowed every child of a family to hold 250 acres in his own name, over and above what was allowed to the father. Nothing could be more mild than this new law; ſince, by the Licinian, he might have abſolutely deprived the rich of the lands they unjuſtly poſſeſſed, and made them accountable for the profits they had received from them during their long poſſeſſion. But the rich patricians could not ſo much as bear the name of the *Licinian law*, though thus qualified. Thoſe chiefly of the ſenatorial and equeſtrian order exclaimed againſt it, and were continually mounting the roſtra one after another, in order to diſſuade the people from accepting a law, which they ſaid would raiſe diſturbances, that might prove more dangerous than the evils which Tiberius pretended to redreſs by the promulgation of it. Thus the zealous tribune was obliged day after day to enter the liſts with freſh adverſaries; but he ever got the better of them both in point of eloquence and argument. Rome.

The people were charmed to hear him maintain the cauſe of the unfortunate with ſo much ſucceſs, and beſtowed on him the higheſt commendations. The rich therefore had recourſe to violence and calumny, in order to deſtroy, or at leaſt to diſcredit the tribune. It is ſaid they hired aſſaſſins to diſpatch him; but they could not put their wicked deſign in execution, Gracchus being always attended to and from the roſtra by a guard of about 4000 men. His adverſaries therefore endeavoured to ruin his reputation by the blackeſt calumnies. They gave out that he aimed at monarchy; and publiſhed pretended plots laid for crowning him king. But the people, without giving ear to ſuch groundleſs reports, made it their whole buſineſs to encourage their tribune, who was hazarding both his life and reputation for their ſakes.

When the day came on which this law was to be accepted or rejected by the people aſſembled in the comitium, Gracchus began with haranguing the mighty crowd, which an affair of ſuch importance had brought together both from the city and country. In his ſpeech he ſhowed the juſtice of the law with ſo much eloquence, made ſo moving a deſcription of the miſeries of the meaner ſort of people, and at the ſame time ſet forth in ſuch odious colours the uſurpation of the public lands, and the immenſe riches which the avarice and rapacioufneſs of the great had raked together, that the people, tranſported with fury, demanded with loud cries the billets, that they might give their ſuffrages. Then Gracchus, finding the minds of the citizens in that warmth and emotion which was neceſſary for the ſucceſs of his deſign, ordered the law to be read.

176 Oppoſed by the tribune Octavius.

But unluckily one of the tribunes, by name *Marcus Octavius Cæcina*, who had always profeſſed a great friendſhip for Gracchus, having been gained over by the patricians, declared againſt the proceedings of his friend and colleague; and pronounced the word which had been always awful in the mouth of a tribune of the people, *Veto*, "I forbid it." As Octavius was a man of an unblameable character, and had hitherto been very zealous for the publication of the law, Gracchus was greatly ſurpriſed at this unexpected oppoſition from his friend. However, he kept his temper, and only deſired the people to aſſemble again the next day to hear their two tribunes, one in defence of, the other in oppoſition to, the law propoſed. The people met at the time appointed; when Gracchus addreſſing himſelf to his colleague, conjured him by the mutual duties of their function, and by the bonds of their ancient friendſhip, not to oppoſe the good of the people, whom they were bound in honour to protect againſt the uſurpation of the great: nay, taking his colleague aſide, he addreſſed him thus, "Perhaps you are perſonally concerned to oppoſe this law; if ſo, I mean, if you have more than the five hundred acres, I myſelf, poor as I am, engage to pay you in money what you will loſe in land." But Octavius, either out of ſhame, or from a principle of honour, continued immoveable in the party he had embraced.

Gracchus therefore had recourſe to another expedient; which was to ſuſpend all the magiſtrates in Rome:

Rome. Rome from the execution of their offices. It was lawful for any tribune to take this ſtep, when the paſſing of the law which he propoſed was prevented by mere chicanery. After this, he aſſembled the people anew, and made a ſecond attempt to ſucceed in his deſign. When all things were got ready for collecting the ſuffrages, the rich privately conveyed away the urns in which the tablets were kept. This kindled the tribune's indignation, and the rage of the people. The comitium was like to become a field of battle, when two venerable ſenators, Manlius and Fulvius, very ſeaſonably interpoſed; and throwing themſelves at the tribune's feet, prevailed upon him to ſubmit his law to the judgment of the conſcript fathers. This was making the ſenators judges in their own cauſe: but Gracchus thought the law ſo undeniably juſt, that he could not perſuade himſelf that they would reject it; and if they did, he knew that the incenſed multitude would no longer keep any meaſures with them.

The ſenate, who wanted nothing but to gain time, affected delays, and came to no reſolution. There were indeed ſome among them, who, out of a principle of equity, were for paying ſome regard to the complaints of the tribune, and for ſacrificing their own intereſt to the relief of the diſtreſſed. But the far greater part would not hear of any compoſition whatſoever. Hereupon Gracchus brought the affair anew before the people, and earneſtly intreated his colleague Octavius to drop his oppoſition, in compaſſion to the many unfortunate people for whom he interceded. He put him in mind of their ancient friendſhip, took him by the hand, and affectionately embraced him. But ſtill Octavius was inflexible. Hereupon Gracchus reſolved to deprive Octavius of his tribuneſhip, ſince he alone obſtinately withſtood the deſires of the whole body of ſo great a people. Having therefore aſſembled the people, he told them, that ſince his colleague and he were divided in opinion, and the republic ſuffered by their diviſion, it was the province of the tribes aſſembled in comitia to re-eſtabliſh concord among their tribunes. "If the cauſe I maintain (ſaid he) be, in your opinion, unjuſt, I am ready to give up my ſeat in the college. On the contrary, if you judge me worthy of being continued in your ſervice in this ſtation, deprive him of the tribuneſhip who alone obſtructs my wiſhes. As ſoon as you ſhall have nominated one to ſucceed him, the law will paſs without oppoſition." Having thus ſpoken, he diſmiſſed the aſſembly, after having ſummoned them to meet again the next day.

And now Gracchus, being ſoured with the oppoſition he had met with from the rich, and from his obſtinate colleague, and being well appriſed that the law would paſs in any form in which he ſhould think fit to propoſe it, reſolved to revive it as it was at firſt paſſed, without abating any thing of its ſeverity. There was no exception in favour of the children in families; or reimburſement promiſed to thoſe who ſhould part with the lands they poſſeſſed above 500 acres. The next day the people being aſſembled in vaſt crowds on this extraordinary occaſion, Gracchus made freſh applications to Octavius, but to no purpoſe; he obſtinately perſiſted in his oppoſition. Then Gracchus turning to the people, "Judge you, (ſaid he), which of us deſerves to be deprived of his office." At theſe words the firſt tribe voted, and declared for the depoſition of Octavius. Upon which Gracchus, ſuſpending the ardor the of tribes, made another effort to bring over his opponent by gentle methods. But all his endeavours proving ineffectual, the other tribes went on to vote in their turns, and followed the example of the firſt. Of 35 tribes, 17 had already declared againſt Octavius, and the 18th was juſt going to determine the affair, when Gracchus, being willing to try once more whether he could reclaim his colleague, ſuſpended the collecting of the ſuffrages; and addreſſing Octavius in the moſt preſſing terms, conjured him not to expoſe himſelf, by his obſtinacy, to ſo great a diſgrace, nor to give him the grief of having caſt a blemiſh upon his colleague and friend, which neither time nor merit would ever wipe off. Octavius, however, continuing obſtinate, was depoſed, and the law paſſed as Gracchus had propoſed in the laſt time. The depoſed tribune was dragged from the roſtra by the incenſed multitude, who would have inſulted him further, had not the ſenators and his friends facilitated his eſcape. 177 Who is depoſed, and the law paſſed.

The Licinian law being thus revived with one conſent both by the city and country tribes, Gracchus cauſed the people to appoint triumvirs, or three commiſſioners, to haſten its execution. In this commiſſion the people gave Gracchus the firſt place; and he had intereſt enough to get his father-in-law Appius Claudius, and his brother Caius Gracchus, appointed his colleagues. Theſe three ſpent the whole ſummer in travelling through all the Italian provinces, to examine what lands were held by any perſon above 500 acres, in order to divide them among the poor citizens. When Gracchus returned from his progreſs, he found, by the death of his chief agent, that his abſence had not abated either the hatred of the rich, or the love of the poor, toward him. As it plainly appeared that the deceaſed had been poiſoned, the tribune took this occaſion to apply himſelf again to his protectors, and implore their aſſiſtance againſt the violence and treachery of his enemies. The populace, more attached after this accident to their hero than ever, declared they would ſtand by him to the laſt drop of their blood; and this their zeal encouraged him to add a new clauſe to the law, *viz.* that the commiſſioners ſhould likewiſe inquire what lands had beeen uſurped from the republic. This was touching the ſenators in a moſt tender point; for moſt of them had appropriated to themſelves lands belonging to the republic. But, after all, the tribune, upon a ſtrict inquiry, found that the lands taken from the rich would not be enough to content all the poor citizens. But the following accident eaſed him of this difficulty, and enabled him to ſtop the murmurs of the malcontents among the people.

178 The treaſures of Attalus divided among the people by Gracchus.

Attalus Philometer, king of Pergamus, having bequeathed his dominions and effects to the Romans, Eudemus the Pergamean brought his treaſures to Rome at this time; and Gracchus immediately got a new law paſſed, enacting, that this money ſhould be divided among the poor citizens who could not have lands; and that the diſpoſal of the revenues of Pergamus ſhould not be in the ſenate, but in the comitia. By theſe ſteps Gracchus moſt effectually humbled the ſenate; who, in order to diſcredit him among the people, gave out that Eudemus, who had brought the king's will to Rome, had left with Gracchus the royal diadem and mantle of Attalus, which the law-making tribune was to

Rome. to use when he should be proclaimed king of Rome. But these reports only served to make Gracchus be more upon his guard, and to inspire the people with an implacable hatred against the rich who were the authors of them. Gracchus being now, by his power over the minds of the multitude, absolute master of their suffrages, formed a design of raising his father-in-law Appius Claudius to the consulate next year, of promoting his brother Caius to the tribuneship, and getting himself continued in the same office. The last was what most nearly concerned him; his person, as long as he was in office, being sacred and inviolable. As the senate was very active in endeavouring to get such only elected into the college of tribunes as were enemies to Gracchus and his faction, the tribune left no stone unturned to secure his election. He told the people, that the rich had resolved assassinate him as soon as he was out of his office; he appeared in mourning, as was the custom in the greatest calamities; and bringing his children, yet young, into the forum, recommended them to the people in such terms, as showed that he despaired of his own preservation. At this sight the populace returned no answer, but by outcries and menaces against the rich.

When the day appointed for the election of new tribunes came, the pepople were ordered to assemble in the capitol in the great court before the temple of Jupiter. The tribes being met, Gracchus produced his petition, intreating the people to continue him one year longer in the office of tribune, in consideration of the great danger to which he was exposed, the rich having vowed his destruction as soon as his person should be no more sacred. This was indeed an unusal request, it having been long customary not to continue any tribune in his office above a year. However, the tribes began to vote, and the two first declared for Gracchus. Hereupon the rich made great clamours; which terrified Rubrius Varro, who presided in the college of tribunes that day, to such a degree, that he resigned his place to Q. Mummius, who offered to preside in his room. But this raised a tumult among the tribunes themselves; so that Gracchus wisely dismissed the assembly, and ordered them to meet again the next day.

In the mean time the people, being sensible of what importance it was to them to preserve the life of so powerful a protector, not only conducted him home, but watched by turns all night at his door. Next morning, by break of day, Gracchus, having assembled his friends, led them from his house, and posted one half of them in the comitium, while he went up himself with the other to the capitol. As soon as he appeared, the people saluted him with loud acclamations of joy. But scarce was he placed in his tribunal, when Fulvius Flaccus a senator, and friend to Gracchus, breaking through the crowd, came up to him, and gave him notice, that the senators, who were assembled in the temple of Faith, which almost touched that of Jupiter Capitolinus, had conspired against his life, and were resolved to attack him openly on his very tribunal. Hereupon Gracchus tucked up his robe, as it were, to prepare for a battle; and, after his example, some of his party, seizing the staves of the apparitors, prepared to defend themselves, and to repel force by force. These preparations terrified the other tribunes; who immediately abandoned their places in a cowardly manner, and mixed with the crowd; while the priests ran to shut the gates of the temple, for fear of its being profaned. On the other hand, the friends of Gracchus, who were dispersed by parties in different places, cried out, *We are ready: What must we do?* Gracchus, whose voice could not be heard by all his adherents on account of the tumult, the clamours, and the confused cries of the different parties, put his hand to his head; which was the signal agreed on to prepare for battle. But some of his enemies, putting a malicious construction upon that gesture, immediately flew to the senate, and told the fathers, that the seditious tribune had called for the crown to be put upon his head. Hereupon the senators, fancying they already saw the king of Pergamus's diadem on the tribune's head, and the royal mantle on his shoulders, resolved to give the consul leave to arm his legions, treat the friends of Gracchus as enemies, and turn the comitium into a field of battle.

179 A conspiracy against his life.

But the consul Mutius Scævola, who was a prudent and moderate man refused to be the instrument of their rash revenge, and to dishonour his consulate with the massacre of a disarmed people. As Calpurnius Piso, the other consul, was then in Sicily, the most turbulent among the senators cried out, "Since one of our consuls is absent, and the other betrays the republic, let us do ourselves justice; let us immediately go and demolish with our own hands this idol of the people." Scipio Nasica, who had been all along for violent measures, inveighed bitterly against the consul for refusing to succour the republic in her greatest distress. Scipio Nasica was the great grandson of Cneius Scipo, the uncle of the first Africanus, and consequently cousin to the Gracchi by their mother Cornelia. But nevertheless not one of the senators betrayed a more irreconcileable hatred against the tribune than he. When the prudent consul refused to arm his legions, and put the adherents of Gracchus to death contrary to the usual forms of justice, he set no bounds to his fury, but, rising up from his place, cried out like a madman, "Since our consul betrays us, let those who love the republic follow me." Having uttered these words, he immediately walked out of the temple, attended by a great number of senators.

180 A scuffle ensues in which Gracchus is killed.

Nasica threw his robe over his shoulders, and, having covered his head with it, advanced with his followers into the crowd, where he was joined by a company of the clients and friends of the patricians, armed with staves and clubs. These, falling indifferently upon all who stood in their way, dispersed the crowd. Many of Gracchus's party took to their heels; and in that tumult all the seats being overturned and broken, Nasica, armed with the leg of a broked bench, knocked down all who opopsed him, and at length reached Gracchus. One of his party seized the tribune by the lappet of his robe: but he, quitting his gown, fled in his tunic; and as he was in that hurry of spirits, which is inseparable from fear, leaping over the broken benches, he had the misfortune to slip and fall. As he was getting up again, he received a blow on the head,

Rome. head, which ſtunned him: then his adverſaries, ruſhing in upon him, with repeated blows put an end to his life.

Rome was by his death delivered, according to Cicero, from a domeſtic enemy, who was more formidable to her, than even that Numantia, which had firſt kindled his reſentments. Perhaps no man was ever born with greater talents, or more capable of aggrandizing himſelf, and doing honour to his country. But his great mind, his manly courage, his lively, eaſy, and powerful eloquence, were, ſays Cicero, like a ſword in the hands of a madman. Gracchus abuſed them, not in ſupporting an unjuſt cauſe, but in conducting a good one with too much violence. He went ſo far as to make ſome believe, that he had really ſomething in view beſides the intereſt of the people whom he pretended to relieve; and therefore ſome hiſtorians have repreſented him as a tyrant. But the moſt judicious writers clear him from this imputation, and aſcribe his firſt deſign of reviving the Licinian law to an eager deſire of being revenged on the ſenators for the affront they had very unjuſtly put upon him, and the conſul Mancinus, as we have hinted above. The law he attempted to revive had an air of juſtice, which gave a ſanction to his revenge, without caſting any blemiſh on his reputation.

181 His friends maſſacred.

The death of Gracchus did not put an end to the tumult. Above 300 of the tribune's friends loſt their lives in the fray; and their bodies were thrown, with that of Gracchus, into the Tiber. Nay, the ſenate carried their revenge beyond the fatal day, which had ſtained the capitol with Roman blood. They fought for all the friends of the late tribune, and without any form of law, aſſaſſinated ſome, and forced others into baniſhment. Caius Billius, one of the moſt zealous defenders of the people, was ſeized by his enemies, and ſhut up in a caſk with ſnakes and vipers, where he miſerably periſhed. Though the laws prohibited any citizen to take away the life of another before he had been legally condemned, Naſica and his followers were acquitted by the ſenate, who enacted a decree, juſtifying all the cruelties committed againſt Gracchus and his adherents.

182 The diſturbances increaſe.

Theſe diſturbances were for a ſhort time interrupted by a revolt of the ſlaves in Sicily, occaſioned by the cruelty of their maſters; but they being ſoon reduced, the conteſts about the *Sempronian law*, as it was called, again took place. Both parties were determined not to yield; and therefore the moſt fatal effects enſued. The firſt thing of conſequence was the death of Scipio Africanus the ſecond, who was privately ſtrangled in his bed by ſome of the partiſans of the plebeian party about 129 B. C. Caius Gracchus, brother to him who had been formerly killed, not only undertook the revival of the Sempronian law, but propoſed a new one, granting the rights of Roman citizens to all the Italian allies, who could receive no ſhare of the lands divided in conſequence of the Sempronian law. The conſequences of this were much worſe than the former; the flame ſpread through all Italy; and the nations who had made war with the republic in its infancy, again commenced enemies more formidable than before. Fregellæ, a city of the Volſci, revolted: but being ſuddenly attacked, was obliged to ſubmit, and was raſed to the ground; which quieted matters for the preſent. Gracchus, however, ſtill continued his attempts to humble the ſenate and the reſt of the patrician body: the ultimate conſequence of which was, that a price was ſet on his head, and that of Fulvius his confederate; no leſs than their weight in gold, to any one who ſhould bring them to Opimius the chief of the patrician party. Thus the cuſtom of proſcription was begun by the patricians, of which they themſelves ſoon had enough. Gracchus and Fulvius were ſacrificed, but the diſorders of the republic were not ſo eaſily cured.

182 The cuſtom of proſcription begun.

The inundation of the Cimbri and Teutones put a ſtop to the civil diſcords for ſome time longer; but they being defeated, as related under the articles CIMBRI and TEUTONES, nothing prevented the troubles from being revived with greater fury than before, except the war with the Sicilian ſlaves, which had again commenced with more dangerous circumſtances than ever. But this war being totally ended about 99 B. C. no farther obſtacle remained. Marius, the conqueror of Jugurtha* and the Cimbri, undertook the cauſe of the plebeians againſt the ſenate and patricians. Having aſſociated himſelf with Apuleius and Glaucia, two factious men, they carried their proceedings to ſuch a length, that an open rebellion commenced, and Marius himſelf was obliged to act againſt his allies. Peace, however, was for the preſent reſtored by the maſſacre of Apuleius and Glaucia, with a great number of their followers; upon which Marius thought proper to leave the city.

* See *Numidia*.

While factious men thus endeavoured to tear the republic to pieces, the attempts of well-meaning people to heal thoſe diviſions ſerved only to involve the ſtate in calamities ſtill more grievous. The conſuls obſerved, that many individuals of the Italian allies lived at Rome, and falſely pretended to be Roman citizens. By means of them, it was likewiſe perceived, that the plebeian party had acquired a great deal of its power; as the votes of theſe pretended citizens were always at the ſervice of the tribunes. The conſuls therefore got a law paſſed, commanding all thoſe pretended citizens to return home. This was ſo much reſented by the Italian ſtates, that an univerſal defection took place. A ſcheme was then formed by M. Livius Druſus, a tribune of the people, to reconcile all orders of men; but this only made matters worſe, and procured his own aſſaſſination. His death ſeemed a ſignal for war. The Marſi, Peligni, Samnites, Campanians, and Lucanians, and in ſhort all the provinces from the river Liris to the Adriatic, revolted at once, and formed themſelves into a republic, in oppoſition to that of Rome. The haughty Romans were now made thoroughly ſenſible that they were not invincible: they were defeated in almoſt every engagement; and muſt ſoon have yielded, had they not fallen upon a method of dividing their enemies. A law was paſſed, enacting, that all the nations in Italy, whoſe alliance with Rome was diſputable, ſhould enjoy the right of Roman citizens. This drew off ſeveral nations from the alliance; and at the ſame time, Sylla taking upon him the command of the Roman armies, fortune ſoon declared in favour of the latter.

183 The ſocial war.

The ſucceſs of Rome againſt the allies ſerved only to bring greater miſeries upon herſelf. Marius and Sylla became rivals; the former adhering to the people, and

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and the latter to the patricians. Marius associated with one of the tribunes named *Sulpitius;* in conjunction with whom he raised such disturbances, that Sylla was forced to retire from the city. Having thus driven off his rival, Marius got himself appointed general against Mithridates king of Pontus; but the soldiers refused to obey any other than Sylla. A civil war immediately ensued, in which Marius was driven out in his turn, and a price set upon his head and that of Sulpitius, with many of their adherents. Sulpitius was soon seized and killed; but Marius made his escape. In the mean time, however, the cruelties of Sylla rendered him obnoxious both to the senate and people; and Cinna, a furious partisan of the Marian faction, being chosen consul, cited him to give an account of his conduct. Upon this Sylla thought proper to set out for Asia: Marius was recalled from Africa, whither he had fled; and immediately on his landing in Italy, was joined by a great number of shepherds, slaves, and men of desperate fortunes; so that he soon saw himself at the head of a considerable army.

184 Horrid cruelties committed by Cinna, Marius, &c.

Cinna in the mean time, whom the senators had deposed and driven out of Rome, solicited and obtained a powerful army from the allies; and being joined by Sertorius, a most able and experienced general, the two, in conjunction with Marius, advanced towards the capital; and as their forces daily increased, a fourth army was formed under the command of Papirius Carbo. The senate raised some forces to defend the city; but the troops being vastly inferior in number, and likewise inclined to the contrary side, they were obliged to open their gates to the confederates. Marius entered at the head of a numerous guard, composed of slaves, whom he called his *Bardiæans*, and whom he designed to employ in revenging himself on his enemies. The first order he gave these assassins was, to murder all who came to salute him and were not answered with the like civility. As every one was forward to pay his compliments to the new tyrant, this order proved the destruction of vast numbers. At last these Bardiæans abandoned themselves to such excesses in every kind of vice, that Cinna and Sertorius ordered their troops to fall upon them; which being instantly put in execution, they were all cut off to a man.

By the destruction of his guards, Marius was reduced to the necessity of taking a method of gratifying his revenge somewhat more tedious, though equally effectual. A conference was held between the four chiefs, in which Marius seemed quite frantic with rage. Sertorius endeavoured to moderate his fury; but, being over-ruled by Cinna and Carbo, a resolution was taken to murder without mercy all the senators who had opposed the popular faction. This was immediately put in execution. A general slaughter commenced, which lasted five days, and during which the greatest part of the obnoxious senators were cut off, their heads stuck upon poles over against the rostra, and their bodies dragged with hooks into the forum, where they were left to be devoured by dogs. Sylla's house was demolished, his goods confiscated, and he himself declared an enemy to his country; however, his wife and children had the good fortune to make their escape. —This massacre was not confined to the city of Rome. The soldiers, like as many blood-hounds, were dispersed over the country in search of those who fled. The neighbouring towns, villages, and all the highways, swarmed with assassins; and on this occasion Plutarch observes with great concern, that the most sacred ties of friendship and hospitality are not proof against treachery, in the day of adversity, for there were but very few who did not discover their friends who had fled to them for shelter.

185 Sylla threatens revenge.

This slaughter being over, Cinna named himself and Marius consuls for the ensuing year; and these tyrants seemed resolved to begin the new year as they had ended the old one: but, while they were preparing to renew their cruelties, Sylla, having proved victorious in the east, sent a long letter to the senate, giving an account of his many victories, and his resolution of returning to Rome, not to restore peace to his country, but to revenge himself of his enemies, *i. e.* to destroy those whom Marius had spared. This letter occasioned an universal terror. Marius, dreading to enter the lists with such a renowned warrior, gave himself up to excessive drinking, and died. His son was associated with Cinna in the government, though not in the consulship, and proved a tyrant no less cruel than his father. The senate declared one Valerius Flaccus general of the forces in the east, and appointed him a considerable army; but the troops all to a man deserted him, and joined Sylla. Soon after, Cinna declared himself consul a third time, and took for his colleague Papirius Carbo; but the citizens, dreading the tyranny of these inhuman monsters, fled in crowds to Sylla, who was now in Greece. To him the senate sent deputies, begging that he would have compassion on his country, and not carry his resentment to such a length as to begin a civil war: but he replied, that he was coming to Rome full of rage and revenge; and that all his enemies, if the Roman people consented to it, should perish either by the sword or the axes of the executioners. Upon this several very numerous armies were formed against him; but, thro' the misconduct of the generals who commanded them, these armies were every-where defeated, or went over to the enemy. Pompey, afterwards styled *the Great*, signalized himself in this war, and embraced the party of Sylla. The Italian nations took some one side, and some another, as their different inclinations led them. Cinna, in the mean time, was killed in a tumult, and young Marius and Carbo succeeded him; but the former having ventured an engagement with Sylla, was by him defeated, and forced to fly to Prænestе, where he was closely besieged.

186 Rome in the utmost danger from Telesinus a Samnite.

Thus was Rome reduced to the lowest degree of misery, when one Pontius Telesinus, a Samnite of great experience in war, projected the total ruin of the city. He had joined, or pretended to join, the generals of the Marian faction with an army of 40,000 men; and therefore marched towards Prænestе, as if he designed to relieve Marius. By this means he drew Sylla and Pompey away from the capital; and then, decamping in the night, over-reached these two generals, and by break of day was within 10 furlongs of the Collatine gate. He then pulled off the mask; and declaring himself as much an enemy to Marius as to Sylla, told his troops that it was not his design to assist one Roman against another, but to destroy the whole race. "Let fire and sword (said he) destroy all; let no

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quarter be given; mankind can never be free as long as one Roman is left alive."—Never had this proud metropolis been in greater danger; nor ever had any city a more narrow escape. The Roman youth marched out to oppose him, but were driven back with great slaughter. Sylla himself was defeated, and forced to fly to his camp. Telesinus advanced with more fury than ever; but in the mean time the other wing of his army having been defeated by M. Crassus, the victorious general attacked the body where Telesinus commanded, and by putting them to flight saved his country from the most imminent danger.

187 Monstrous cruelty of Sylla.

Sylla, having now no enemy to fear, marched first to Antemnæ, and thence to Rome. From the former city he carried 8000 prisoners to Rome, and caused them all to be massacred at once in the circus. His cruelty next fell upon the Prænestines, 12,000 of whom were massacred without mercy. Young Marius had killed himself, in order to avoid falling into the hands of such a cruel enemy. Soon after, the inhabitants of Norba, a city of Campania, finding themselves unable to resist the forces of the tyrant, set fire to their houses, and all perished in the flames. The taking of these cities put an end to the civil war, but not to the cruelties of Sylla. Having assembled the people in the comitium, he told them that he was resolved not to spare a single person who had borne arms against him. This cruel resolution he put in execution with the most unrelenting vigour; and having at last cut off all those whom he thought capable of opposing him, Sylla caused himself to be declared perpetual dictator, or, in other words, king and absolute sovereign of Rome.

188 He is proclaimed perpetual dictator.

This revolution happened about 80 B. C. and from this time we may date the loss of the Roman liberty. Sylla indeed resigned his power in two years; but the citizens of Rome having once submitted, were ever after more inclined to submit to a master. Though individuals retained the same enthusiastic notions of liberty as before, yet the minds of the generality seem from this time to have inclined towards monarchy. New masters were indeed already prepared for the republic. Cæsar and Pompey had eminently distinguished themselves by their martial exploits, and were already rivals. They were, however, for some time prevented from raising any disturbances by being kept at a distance from each other. Sertorius, one of the generals of the Marian faction, and the only one of them possessed either of honour or probity, had retired into Spain, where he erected a republic independent of Rome. Pompey and Metellus, two of the best reputed generals in Rome, were sent against him; but instead of conquering, they were on all occasions conquered by him, and obliged to abandon their enterprise with disgrace. At last Sertorius was treacherously murdered; and the traitors, who after his death usurped the command, being totally destitute of his abilities, were easily defeated by Pompey: and thus that general reaped an undeserved honour from concluding the war with success.

The Spanish war was scarce ended, when a very dangerous one was excited by Spartacus, a Thracian gladiator. For some time, this rebel proved very successful; but at last was totally defeated and killed by Crassus. The fugitives, however, rallied again, to the number of 5000; but, being totally defeated by Pompey, the latter took occasion from thence to claim the glory which was justly due to Crassus. Being thus become extremely popular, and setting no bounds to his ambition, he was chosen consul along with Crassus. Both generals were at the head of powerful armies; and a contest between them immediately began about who should first lay down their arms. With difficulty they were in appearance reconciled, and immediately began to oppose one another in a new way. Pompey courted the favour of the people, by reinstating the tribunes in their ancient power, which had been greatly abridged by Sylla. Crassus, though naturally covetous, entertained the populace with surprising profusion at 10,000 tables, and at the same time distributed corn sufficient to maintain their families for three months. These prodigious expences will seem less surprising, when we consider that Crassus was the richest man in Rome, and that his estate amounted to upwards of 7000 talents, i. e. 1,356,250 l. sterling. Notwithstanding his utmost efforts, however, Pompey still had the superiority; and was therefore proposed as a proper person to be employed for clearing the seas of pirates. In this new station a most extensive power was to be granted to him. He was to have an absolute authority for three years over all the seas within the straits or pillars of Hercules, and over all the countries for the space of 400 furlongs from the sea. He was empowered to raise as many soldiers and mariners as he thought proper; to take what sums of money he pleased out of the public treasury, without being accountable for them; and to choose out of the senate fifteen senators to be his lieutenants, and to execute his orders when he himself could not be present. The sensible part of the people were against investing one man with so much power; but the unthinking multitude rendered all opposition fruitless. The tribune Roscius attempted to speak against it, but was prevented by the clamours of the people. He then held up two of his fingers, to show that he was for dividing that extensive commission between two persons: but on this the assembly burst out into such hideous outcries, that a crow flying accidentally over the comitium, was stunned with the noise, and fell down among the rabble. This law being agreed to, Pompey executed his commission so much to the public satisfaction, that on his return a new law was proposed in his favour. By this he was to be appointed general of all the forces in Asia; and as he was still to retain the sovereignty of the seas, he was now in fact made sovereign of all the Roman empire. This law was supported by Cicero and Cæsar; the former aspiring at the consulate, and the latter pleased to see the Romans so readily appointing themselves a master. Pompey, however, executed his commission with the utmost fidelity and success, completing the conquest of Pontus, Albania, Iberia, &c. which had been successfully begun by Sylla and Lucullus.

189 Pompey and Crassus assume great authority.

190 Conspiracy of Catiline.

But while Pompey was thus aggrandising himself, the republic was on the point of being subverted by a conspiracy formed by Lucius Sergius Catiline. He was descended from an illustrious family; but having quite ruined his estate, and rendered himself infamous by a series of the most detestable crimes, he associated with a number of others in circumstances similar to his

Rome. his own, in order to repair their broken fortunes by ruining their country. Their scheme was to murder the consuls together with the greatest part of the senators, set fire to the city in different places, and then seize the government. This wicked design miscarried twice; but was not on that account dropped by the conspirators. Their party increased every day; and both Cæsar and Crassus, who since the departure of Pompey had studied to gain the affections of the people as far as possible, were thought to have been privy to the conspiracy. At last, however, the matter was discovered by means of a young knight, who had indiscreetly revealed the secret to his paramour. Catiline then openly took the field, and soon raised a considerable army: but was utterly defeated and killed about 62 B. C.; and thus the republic was freed from the present danger.

In the mean time, Cæsar continued to advance in popularity and in power. Soon after the defeat of Catiline, he was created pontifex maximus; and after that was sent into Spain, where he subdued several nations that had never before been subject to Rome. While he was thus employed, his rival Pompey returned from the east, and was received with the highest honours; but though still as ambitious as ever, he now affected extraordinary modesty, and declined accepting of the applause which was offered him. His aim was to assume a sovereign authority without seeming to desire it; but he was soon convinced, that, if he desired to reign over his fellow-citizens, it must be by force of arms. He therefore renewed his intrigues, and spared no pains, however mean and scandalous, to increase his popularity. Cæsar, on his return from Spain, found the sovereignty divided between Crassus and Pompey, each of whom was ineffectually struggling to get the better of the other. Cæsar, no less ambitious than the other two, proposed that they should put an end to their differences, and take him for a partner in their power. In short, he projected a triumvirate, or association of three persons, (Pompey, Crassus, and himself), in which should be lodged the whole power of the senate and people; and, in order to make their confederacy more lasting, they bound themselves by mutual oaths and promises to stand by each other, and suffer nothing to be undertaken or carried into execution without the unanimous consent of all the three.

191 The first triumvirate.

Thus was the liberty of the Romans taken away a second time, nor did they ever afterwards recover it; though at present none perceived that this was the case except Cato. The association of the triumvirs was for a long time kept secret; and nothing appeared to the people except the reconciliation of Pompey and Crassus, for which the state reckoned itself indebted to Cæsar. The first consequence of the triumvirate was the consulship of Julius Cæsar. But though this was obtained by the favour of Pompey and Crassus, he found himself disappointed in the colleague he wanted to associate with him in that office. He had pitched upon one whom he knew he could manage as he pleased, and distributed large sums among the people in order to engage them to vote for him. The senate, however, and even Cato himself, resolved to defeat the triumvir at his own weapons; and having therefore set up another candidate, distributed such immense sums on the opposite side, that Cæsar, notwithstanding the vast riches he had acquired, was forced to yield. This defeat proved of small consequence. Cæsar set himself to engage the affections of the people; and this he did, by an agrarian law, so effectually, that he was in a manner idolized. The law was in itself very reasonable and just; nevertheless, the senate, perceiving the design with which it was proposed, thought themselves bound to oppose it. Their opposition, however, proved fruitless: the consul Bibulus, who shewed himself most active in his endeavours against it, was driven out of the assembly with the greatest indignity, and from that day became of no consideration; so that Cæsar was reckoned the sole consul.

The next step taken by Cæsar was to secure the knights, as he had already done the people; and for this purpose he abated a third of the rents which they annually paid into the treasury; after which he governed Rome with an absolute sway during the time of his consulate. The reign of this triumvir, however, was ended by his expedition into Gaul, where his military exploits acquired him the highest reputation. Pompey and Crassus in the mean time became consuls, and governed as despotically as Cæsar himself had done. On the expiration of their first consulate, the republic fell into a kind of anarchy, entirely owing to the disorders occasioned by the two late consuls. At last, however, this confusion was ended by raising Crassus and Pompey to the consulate a second time. This was no sooner done, than a new partition of the empire was proposed. Crassus was to have Syria and all the eastern provinces, Pompey was to govern Africa and Spain, and Cæsar to be continued in Gaul, and all this for the space of five years. This law was passed by a great majority; upon which Crassus undertook an expedition against the Parthians, whom he imagined he should easily overcome, and then enrich himself with their spoils; Cæsar applied with great assiduity to the completing of the conquest of Gaul; and Pompey having nothing to do in his province, staid at Rome to govern the republic alone.

The affairs of the Romans were now hastening to a crisis. Crassus, having oppressed all the provinces of the east, was totally defeated and killed by the Parthians *; after which the two great rivals Cæsar and Pompey were left alone, without any third person who could hold the balance between them, or prevent the deadly quarrels which were about to ensue. Matters, however, continued pretty quiet till Gaul was reduced to a Roman province †. The question then was, whether Cæsar or Pompey should first resign the command of their armies, and return to the rank of private persons. As both parties saw, that whoever first laid down his arms must of course submit to the other, both refused to disarm themselves. As Cæsar, however, had amassed immense riches in Gaul, he was now in a condition not only to maintain an army capable of vying with Pompey, but even to buy over the leading men in Rome to his interest. One of the consuls, named *Æmilius Paulus*, cost him no less than 1500 talents, or 310,625 l. sterling; but the other, named *Marcellus*, could not be gained at any price. Pompey had put at the head of the tribunes one Scribonius Curio, a young patrician of great abilities, but so exceedingly debauched and extravagant, that he owed up-

* See *Parthia*.

192 Rivalship of Cæsar and Pompey.

† See *Gaul*.

Rome. upwards of four millions and a half of our money. Cæsar, by enabling him to satisfy his creditors, and supplying him with money to pursue his debaucheries, secured him in his interest; and Curio, without seeming to be in Cæsar's interest, found means to do him the most essential service.—He proposed that both generals should be recalled; being well assured that Pompey would never consent to part with his army, or lay down the government of Spain with which he had been invested, so that Cæsar might draw from Pompey's refusal a pretence for continuing himself in his province at the head of his troops. This proposal threw the opposite party into great embarrassments; and while both professed their pacific intentions, both continued in readiness for the most obstinate and bloody war. Cicero took upon himself the office of mediator; but Pompey would hearken to no terms of accommodation. The orator, surprised to find him so obstinate, at the same time that he neglected to strengthen his army, asked him with what forces he designed to make head against Cæsar? to which the other answered, that he needed but stamp with his foot, and an army would start up out of the ground. This confidence he assumed because he persuaded himself that Cæsar's men would abandon him if matters came to extremities. Cæsar, however, though he affected great moderation, yet kept himself in readiness for the worst; and therefore, when the senate passed the fatal decree for a civil war, he was not in the least alarmed.

193 The decree for a civil war. This decree was issued in the year 49 B. C. and was expressed in the following words: "Let the consuls for the year, the proconsul Pompey, the prætors, and and all those in or near Rome who have been consuls, provide for the public safety by the most proper means." This decree was no sooner passed, than the consul Marcellus went, with his colleague Lentulus, to an house at a small distance from the town, where Pompey then was; and presenting him with a sword, "We require you (said he) to take upon you with this the defence of the republic, and the command of her troops." Pompey obeyed; and Cæsar was by the same decree divested of his office, and one Lucius Domitius appointed to succeed him, the new governor being empowered to raise 4000 men in order to take possession of his province.

War being thus resolved on, the senate and Pompey began to take the necessary preparations for opposing Cæsar. The attempt of the latter to withstand their authority they termed a *tumult;* from which contemptible epithet it appeared that they either did not know, or did not dread, the enemy whom they were bringing upon themselves. However, they ordered 30,000 Roman forces to be assembled, together with as many foreign troops as Pompey should think proper; the expence of which armament was defrayed from the public treasury. The governments of provinces, and all public honours, were bestowed upon such as were remarkable for their attachment to Pompey and their enmity to Cæsar. The latter, however, was by no means wanting in what concerned his own interest. Three of the tribunes who had been his friends were driven out of Rome, and arrived in his camp disguised like slaves. Cæsar showed them to his army in this ignominious habit; and, setting forth the iniquity of the senate and patricians, exhorted his men to stand by their general under whom they had served so long with success; and finding by their acclamationss that he could depend on them, he resolved to begin hostilities immediately.

194 Hostilities begun by Cæsar. The first design of Cæsar was to make himself master of Ariminum, a city bordering upon Cisalpine Gaul, and consequently a part of his province; but as this would be looked upon as a declaration of war, he resolved to keep his design as private as possible. At that time he himself was at Ravenna, from whence he sent a detachment towards the Rubicon, desiring the officer who commanded it to wait for him on the banks of that river. The next day he assisted at a show of gladiators, and made a great entertainment. Towards the close of the day he rose from table, desiring his guests to stay till he came back, which he said would be very soon; but, instead of returning to the company, he immediately set out for the Rubicon, having left orders to some of his most intimate friends to follow him through different roads, to avoid being observed. Having arrived at the Rubicon, which parted Cisalpine Gaul from Italy, the succeeding misfortunes of the empire occurred to his mind, and made him hesitate. Turning then to Asinius Pollio, "If I do not cross the river, (said he), I am undone; and if I do cross it, how many calamities shall I by this means bring upon Rome!" Having thus spoken, he mused a few minutes; and then crying out "The die is cast," he threw himself into the river, and crossing it, marched with all possible speed to Ariminum, which he reached and surprised before daybreak. From thence, as he had but one legion with him, he dispatched orders to the formidable army he had left in Gaul to cross the mountains and join him.

The activity of Cæsar struck the opposite party with the greatest terror; and indeed not without reason, for they had been extremely negligent in making preparations against such a formidable opponent. Pompey himself, no less alarmed then the rest, left Rome with a design to retire to Capua, where he had two legions whom he had formerly draughted out of Cæsar's army. He communicated his intended flight to the senate; but at the same time acquainted them, that if any magistrate or senator refused to follow him, he should be treated as a friend to Cæsar and an enemy to his country. In the mean time Cæsar, having raised new troops in Cisalpine Gaul, sent Marc Antony with a detachment to seize Aretium, and some other officers to secure Pisaurum and Fanum, while he himself marched at the head of the thirteenth legion to Auximum, which opened its gates to him. From Auximum he advanced into Picenum, where he was joined by the twelfth legion from Transalpine Gaul. As Picenum readily submitted to him, he led his forces against Corfinium, the capital of the Peligni, which Domitius Ahenobarbus defended with thirty cohorts. But Cæsar no sooner invested it, than the garrison betrayed their commander, and delivered him up with many senators, who had taken refuge in the place, to Cæsar, who granted them their lives and liberty. Domitius, fearing the resentment of the conqueror, had ordered one of his slaves, whom he used as a physician, to give him a dose of poison. When he came to experience the humanity of the conqueror, he lamented his misfortune, and blamed the hasti-

195 Takes several towns.

Rome.

hastiness of his own resolution. But his physician, who had only given him a sleeping draught, comforted him, and received his liberty as a reward for his affection.

196 Besieges Pompey, who escapes by stratagem.

Pompey, thinking himself no longer safe at Capua after the reduction of Corfinium, retired to Brundusium, with a design to carry the war into the east, where all the governors were his creatures. Cæsar followed him close; and arriving with his army before Brundusium, invested the place on the land-side, and undertook to shut up the port by a staccado of his own invention. But, before the work was completed, the fleet which had conveyed the two consuls with thirty cohorts to Dyrrhachium being returned, Pompey resolved to make his escape, which he conducted with all the experience and dexterity of a great officer. He kept his departure very secret; but, at the same time, made all necessary preparations for the facilitating of it. In the first place, he walled up the gates, then dug deep and wide ditches cross all the streets, except only those two that led to the port; in the ditches he planted sharp pointed stakes, covering them with hurdles and earth. After these precautions, he gave express orders, that all the citizens should keep within-doors, lest they should betray his design to the enemy; and then, in the space of three days, embarked all his troops, except the light-armed infantry, whom he had placed on the walls; and these likewise, on a signal given, abandoning their posts, repaired with great expedition to the ships. Cæsar, perceiving the walls unguarded, ordered his men to scale them, and make what haste they could after the enemy. In the heat of the pursuit, they would have fallen into the ditches which Pompey had prepared for them, had not the Brundusians warned them of the danger, and, by many windings and turnings, led them to the haven, where they found all the fleet under sail, except two vessels, which had run aground in going out of the harbour. These Cæsar took, made the soldiers on board prisoners, and brought them ashore.

Cæsar seeing himself, by the flight of his rival, master of all Italy from the Alps to the sea, was desirous to follow and attack him before he was joined by the supplies which he expected from Asia. But being destitute of shipping, he resolved to go first to Rome, and settle some sort of government there; and then pass into Spain, to drive from thence Pompey's troops, who had taken possession of that great continent, under the command of Afranius and Petreius. Before he left Brundusium, he sent Scribonius Curio with three legions into Sicily, and ordered Q. Valerius, one of his lieutenants, to get together what ships he could, and cross over with one legion into Sardinia. Cato, who commanded in Sicily, upon the first news of Curio's landing there, abandoned the island, and retired to the camp of the consuls at Dyrrhachium: and Q. Valerius no sooner appeared with his small fleet off Sardinia, than the Caralitani, now the inhabitants of Cagliari, drove out Aurelius Cotta, who commanded there for the senate, and put Cæsar's lieutenant in possession both of their city and island.

197 Cæsar goes to Rome.

In the mean time the general himself advanced towards Rome; and on his march wrote to all the senators then in Italy, desiring them to repair to the capital, and assist him with their counsel. Above all, he was desirous to see Cicero; but could not prevail upon him to return to Rome. As Cæsar drew near the capital, he quartered his troops in the neighbouring municipia; and then advancing to the city, out of a pretended respect to the ancient customs, he took up his quarters in the suburbs, whither the whole city crowded to see the famous conqueror of Gaul, who who had been absent near ten years. And now such of the tribunes of the people as had fled to him for refuge, reassumed their functions, mounted the rostra, and endeavoured by their speeches to reconcile the people to the head of their party. Marc Antony particularly, and Cassius Longinus, two of Cæsar's most zealous partisans, moved that the senate should meet in the suburbs, that the general might give them an account of his conduct. Accordingly, such of the senators as were at Rome assembled; when Cæsar made a speech in justification of all his proceedings, and concluded his harangue with proposing a deputation to Pompey, with offers of an accommodation in an amicable manner. He even desired the conscript fathers, to whom in appearance he paid great deference, to nominate some of their venerable body to carry proposals of peace to the consuls, and the general of the consular army; but none of the senators would take upon him that commission. He then began to think of providing himself with the necessary sums for carrying on the war, and had recourse to the public treasury. But Metellus, one of the tribunes, opposed him; alleging a law forbidding any one to open the the treasury, but in the presence and with the consent of the consuls. Cæsar, however, without regarding the tribune, went directly to the temple of Saturn, where the public money was kept. But the keys of the treasury having been carried away by the consul Lentulus, he ordered the doors to be boken open. This Metellus opposed: but Cæsar, in a passion, laying his hand on his sword, threatened to kill him if he gave him any farther disturbance; which so terrified Metellus, that he withdrew. Cæsar took out of the treasury, which was ever after at his command, an immense sum; some say, 300,000 pounds weight of gold. With this supply of money he raised troops all over Italy, and sent governors into all the provinces subject to the republic.

198 Supplies himself with money from the public treasury.

Cæsar now made Marc Antony commander in chief of the armies in Italy, sent his brother C. Antonius to govern Illyricum, assigned Cisalpine Gaul to Licinius Crassus, appointed M. Æmilius Lepidus governor of the capital; and having got together some ships to cruise in the Adriatic and Mediterranean seas, he gave the command of one of his fleets to P. Cornelius Dolabella, and of the other to young Hortensius, the son of the famous orator. As Pompey had sent governors into the same provinces, by this means a general war was kindled in almost all the parts of the known world. However, Cæsar would not trust any of his lieutenants with the conduct of the war in Spain, which was Pompey's favourite province, but took it upon himself; and having settled his affairs in great haste at Rome, returned to Ariminum, assembled his legions there, and passing the Alps, entered Transalpine Gaul. There he was informed that the inhabitants of Marseilles had resolved to refuse him entrance into their city; and that L. Domitius Ahenobarbus, whom he had generously par-

Rome. pardoned and set at liberty after the reduction of Corfinium, had set sail for Marseilles with seven galleys, having on board a great number of his clients and slaves, with a design to raise the city in favour of Pompey. Cæsar, thinking it dangerous to let the enemy take possession of such an important place, sent for the 15 chief magistrates of the city, and advised them not to begin a war with him, but rather follow the example of Italy, and submit. The magistrates returned to the city, and soon after informed him that they were to stand neuter; but in the mean time Domitius arriving with his small squadron, was received into the city, and declared general of all their forces. Hereupon Cæsar immediately invested the town with three legions, and ordered twelve galleys to be built at Arelas, now *Arles*, in order to block up the port. But as the siege was like to detain him too long, he left C. Trebonius to carry it on, and D. Brutus to command the fleet, while he continued his march into Spain, where he began the war with all the valour, ability, and success of a great general. Pompey had three generals in this continent, which was divided into two Roman provinces. Varro commanded in Farther Spain; and Petreius and Afranius, with equal power, and two considerable armies, in Hither Spain. Cæsar, while he was yet at Marseilles, sent Q. Fabius, one of his lieutenants, with three legions, to take possession of the passes of the Pyrenees, which Afranius had seized. Fabius executed his commission with great bravery, entered Spain, and left the way open for Cæsar, who quickly followed him. As soon as he had crossed the mountains, he sent out scouts to observe the situation of the enemy; by whom he was informed, that Afranius and Petreius having joined their forces, consisting of five legions, 20 cohorts of the natives, and 5000 horse, were advantageously posted on a hill of an easy ascent in the neighbourhood of Ilerda, now *Lerida*, in Catalonia. Upon this advice Cæsar advanced within sight of the enemy, and encamped in a plain between the Sicoris and Cinga, now the *Segro* and *Cinca*. Between the eminence on which Afranius had posted himself, and the city of Ilerda, was a small plain, and in the middle of it a rising ground, which Cæsar attempted to seize, in order to cut off by that means the communication between the enemy's camp and the city, from whence they had all their provisions. This occasioned a sharp dispute between three of Cæsar's legions and an equal number of the enemy, which lasted five hours with equal success, both parties claiming the victory. But after all, Afranius's men, who had first seized the post, maintained themselves in possession of it in spite of Cæsar's utmost efforts. Two days after this battle, continual rains, with the melting of the snow on the mountains, so swelled the two rivers between which Cæsar was encamped, that they overflowed, broke down his bridges, and laid under water the neighbouring country to a great distance. This cut off the communication between his camp and the cities that had declared for him; and reduced him to such straits, that his army was ready to die for famine, wheat being sold in his camp at 50 Roman denarii *per* bushel, that is, 1 l. 12 s. 1½ d. sterling. He tried to rebuild his bridges, but in vain; the violence of the stream rendering all his endeavours fruitless.

199 Is reduced to great distress in Spain.

Upon the news of Cæsar's distress, Pompey's party at Rome began to take courage. Several persons of distinction went to congratulate Afranius's wife on the success of her husband's arms in Spain. Many of the senators who had hitherto stood neuter, hastened to Pompey's camp, taking it for granted that Cæsar was reduced to the last extremity, and all hopes of his party lost. Of this number was Cicero; who, without any regard to the remonstrances of Atticus, or the letters Cæsar himself wrote to him, desiring him to join neither party, he left Italy, and landed at Dyrrhachium, where Pompey received him with great marks of joy and friendship. But the joy of Pompey's party was not long-lived. For Cæsar, after having attempted several times in vain to rebuild his bridges, caused boats to be made with all possible expedition; and while the enemy were diverted by endeavouring to intercept the succours that were sent him from Gaul, he laid hold of that opportunity to convey his boats in the night on carrriages 22 miles from his camp; where with wonderful quickness a great detachment passed the Sicoris, and encamping on the opposite bank unknown to the enemy, built a bridge in two days, opened a communication with the neighbouring country, received the supplies from Gaul, and relieved the want of his soldiers. Cæsar being thus delivered from danger, pursued the armies of Afranius and Petreius with such superior address and conduct, that he forced them to submit without coming to a battle, and by that means became master of all Hither Spain. The two generals disbanded their troops, sent them out of the province, and returned to Italy, after having solemnly promised never to assemble forces again, or make war upon Cæsar. Upon the news of the reduction of Hither Spain, the Spaniards in Farther Spain, and one Roman legion, deserted from Varro, Pompey's governor in that province, which obliged him to surrender his other legion and all his money.

200 Overcomes his difficulties, and reduces all Spain.

Cæsar having thus reduced all Spain in a few months, appointed Cassius Longinus to govern the two provinces with four legions; and then returned to Marseilles, which city was just upon the point of surrendering after a most vigorous resistance. Though the inhabitants had by their late treachery deserved a severe punishment, yet he granted them their lives and liberty; but stripped their arsenals of arms, and obliged them to deliver up all their ships. From Marseilles Cæsar marched into Cisalpine Gaul; and from thence hastened to Rome, where he laid the foundation of his future grandeur. He found the city in a very different state from that in which he had left it. Most of the senators and magistrates were fled to Pompey in Dyrrhachium. However, there were still prætors there; and among them M. Æmilius Lepidus, who was afterwards one of the triumvirs with Octavius and Marc Antony. The prætor, to ingratiate himself with Cæsar, nominated him dictator of his own authority, and against the inclination of the senate. Cæsar accepted the new dignity; but neither abused his power, as Sylla had done, nor retained it so long. During the 11 days of his dictatorship, he governed with great moderation, and gained the affections both of the people and the patricians. He recalled the exiles, granted the rights and privileges of Roman citizens to all the Gauls beyond the Po, and, as pontifex maximus, filled up the vacancies of the sacerdotal colleges with his own friends.

201 Returns to Rome, and is created dictator.

Rome.

friends. Though it was expected that he would have absolutely cancelled all debts contracted since the beginning of the troubles, he only reduced the interest to one-fourth. But the chief use he made of his dictatorship was to preside at the election of consuls for the next year, when he got himself, and Servilius Isauricus, one of his most zealous partisans, promoted to that dignity.

202 Follows Pompey into the East.

And now being resolved to follow Pompey, and carry the war into the east, he set out for Brundusium, whither he had ordered 12 legions to repair with all possible expedition. But on his arrival he found only five there. The rest, being afraid of the dangers of the sea, and unwilling to engage in a new war, had marched leisurely, complaining of their general for allowing them no respite, but hurrying them continually from one country to another. However, Cæsar did not wait for them, but set sail with only five legions and 600 horse, in the beginning of January. While the rest were waiting at Brundusium for ships to transport them over into Epirus, Cæsar arrived safe with his five legions in Chaonia, the northern part of Epirus, near the Ceraunian mountains. There he landed his troops, and sent the ships back to Brundusium to bring over the legions that were left behind. The war he was now entering upon was the most difficult he had yet undertaken. Pompey had for a whole year been assembling troops from all the eastern countries. When he left Italy he had only five legions; but since his arrival at Dyrrhachium he had been reinforced with one from Sicily, another from Crete, and two from Syria. Three thousand archers, six cohorts of slingers, and 7000 horse, had been sent him by princes in alliance with Rome. All the free cities of Asia had reinforced his army with their best troops; nay, if we give credit to an historical poet, succours were brought him from the Indus and the Ganges to the east, and from Arabia and Ethiopia to the south; at least it is certain, that Greece, Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, and all the nations from the Mediterranean to the Euphrates, took up arms in his favour. He had almost all the Roman knights, that is, the flower of the young nobility, in his squadrons, and his legions consisted mostly of veterans inured to dangers and the toils of war. Pompey himself was a general of great experience and address; and had under him some of the best commanders of the republic, who had formerly conducted armies themselves. As for his navy, he had above 500 ships of war, besides a far greater number of small vessels, which were continually cruising on the coasts, and intercepting such ships as carried arms or provisions to the enemy. He had likewise with him above 200 senators, who formed a more numerous senate than that at Rome. Cornelius Lentulus and Claudius Marcellus, the last year's consuls, presided in it; but under the direction of Pompey their protector, who ordered them to assemble at Thessalonica, where he built a stately hall for that purpose. There, in one of their assemblies, at the motion of Cato, it was decreed, that no Roman citizen should be put to death but in battle, and that no city subject to the republic should be sacked. At the same time the conscript fathers assembled at Thessalonica decreed, that they alone represented the Roman senate, and that those who resided at Rome were encouragers of tyranny, and friends to the tyrant. And indeed, as the flower of the nobility was with Pompey, and the most virtuous men in the republic had taken refuge in his camp, he was generally looked upon as the only hope and support of the public liberty. Hence many persons of eminent probity, who had hitherto stood neuter, flocked to him from all parts. Among these were young Brutus, who afterwards conspired against Cæsar, Tidius Sextius, and Labienus. Brutus, whose father had been put to death in Galatia by Pompey's order, had never spoken to him, or so much as saluted him since that time. But as he now looked upon him as the defender of the public liberty, he joined him, sacrificing therein his private resentment to the interest of the public. Pompey received him with great joy, and was willing to confer upon him some command; but he declined the offer. Tidius Sextius, though extremely old and lame, yet left Rome, and went as far as Macedonia to join Pompey there. Labienus likewise forsook his old benefactor, under whom he had served during the whole course of the Gaulish war, and went over to his rival, though Cæsar had appointed him commander in chief of all the forces on the other side the Alps. In short, Pompey's party grew into such reputation, that his cause was generally called the *good cause*, while Cæsar's adherents were looked upon as enemies to their country, and abettors of tyranny.

203 Makes proposals of accommodation, which are rejected.

As soon as Cæsar landed, he marched directly to Oricum, the nearest city in Epirus, which was taken without opposition. The like success attended him at Apollonia, which was in no condition to stand a siege; and these two conquests opened a way to Dyrrhachium, where Pompey had his magazines of arms and provisions. This success, however, was interrupted by the news that the fleet which he had sent back to Brundusium to transport the rest of his troops had been attacked by Bibulus, one of Pompey's admirals, who had taken 30, and inhumanly burnt them with the seamen on board. This gave Cæsar great uneasiness, especially as he heard that Bibulus, with 110 ships of war, had taken possession of all the harbours between Salonium and Oricum; so that the legions at Brundusium could not venture to cross the sea without great danger of falling into the enemy's hands. By this Cæsar was so much embarrassed, that he made proposals of accommodation upon very moderate terms; being no other than that both Pompey and he should disband their armies within three days, renew their former friendship with solemn oaths, and return together to Italy. These proposals were sent by Vibullius Rufus, an intimate friend of Pompey, whom Cæsar had twice taken prisoner. Pompey, however, probably elated with his late good fortune, answered, that he would not hearken to any terms, lest it should be said, that he owed his life and return to Italy to Cæsar's favour. However, the latter again sent one Vatinius to confer with Pompey about a treaty of peace. Labienus was appointed to receive the proposals; but while they were conferring together, a party of Pompey's men coming up to them, discharged their darts at Vatinius and those who attended him. Some of the guards were wounded, and Vatinius narrowly escaped with his life.

In the mean time Cæsar advanced towards Dyrrhachium, in hopes of surprising that important place; but Pompey unexpectedly appearing, he halted on the other

Rome. other side of the river Apsus, where he intrenched himself, as having but a small number of troops in comparison of the formidable army which attended Pompey. The latter, however, notwithstanding his superiority, durst not cross the river in Cæsar's sight; so that the two armies continued for some time quiet in their respective camps. Cæsar wrote letter after letter to Marc Antony, who commanded the legions he had left in Italy, to come to his assistance; but receiving no answer, Cæsar disguised himself in the habit of a slave, and with all imaginable secrecy went on board a fisherman's bark, with a design to go over to Brundusium, though the enemy's fleet was cruising on the coasts both of Greece and Italy. This design, however, miscarried, by reason of the boat being put back by contrary winds; and thus Cæsar was restored to his soldiers, who had been very uneasy at his absence. He was no sooner landed than he dispatched Posthumius, one of his lieutenants, with most pressing orders to Marc Antony, Gabinius, and Calenus, to bring the troops to him at all adventures. Gabinius, unwilling to expose all the hopes of his general to the hazards of the sea, thought it safer to march a great way about by Illyricum, and therefore engaged all the legionaries he could to follow him by land. But the Illyrians, who had, unknown to him, declared for Pompey, fell unexpectedly upon him, and killed him and his men, not one escaping. Marc Antony and Calenus, who went by sea, were in the greatest danger from one of Pompey's admirals; but had the good luck to bring their troops safe to shore at Nyphæum, in the neighbourhood of Apollonia. As soon as it was known that Antony was landed, Pompey marched to prevent his joining Cæsar. On the other hand, Cæsar instantly decamped, and hastening to the relief of his lieutenant, joined him before Pompey came up. Then Pompey, not caring to engage them when united, retired to an advantageous post in the neighbourhood of Dyrrhachium, known by the name of *Asparagium*, and there encamped. Cæsar having thus at length got all his troops together, resolved to finish the war by one general action, and determine the fate of the world, either by his own death or by that of his rival. To this end he offered Pompey battle, and kept his army a great while drawn up in sight of the enemy. But Pompey declining an engagement, he decamped, and turned towards Dyrrhachium, as if he designed to surprise it, hoping by this means to draw Pompey into the plain. But Pompey, looking upon the taking of Dyrrhachium as a chimerical project, followed Cæsar at some distance, and letting him draw near to the city, encamped on a hill called *Petra*, which commanded the sea, whence he could be supplied with provisions from Greece and Asia, while Cæsar was forced to bring corn by land from Epirus, at a vast expence, and through many dangers.

This inconvenience put Cæsar upon a new design, which was to surround an army far more numerous than his own, and, by shutting them up within a narrow tract of ground, distress them as much for want of forage, as his troops were distressed for want of corn.

204 Besieges Pompey in his camp.

Pursuant to this design, he drew a line of circumvallation from the sea quite round Pompey's camp, and kept him so close blocked up, that though his men were plentifully supplied with provisions by sea, yet the horses of his army began soon to die in great numbers for want of forage. Cæsar's men, though in the utmost distress for want of corn, yet bore all with incredible cheerfulness; protesting, that they would rather live upon the bark of trees than suffer Pompey to escape, now they had him in their power. Cæsar tells us, that in this extremity such of the army as had been in Sardinia, found out the way of making bread of a certain root called *clæra*, which they steeped in milk; and that when the enemy insulted them on account of the starving condition which they were in, they threw several of these loaves among them, to put them out of all hopes of subduing them by famine. "So long as the earth produces such roots (said they) we will not let Pompey escape." At length Pompey, alarmed at the distempers which began to prevail in his army, made several attempts to break through the barriers that inclosed him, but was always repulsed with loss. At length, being reduced to the utmost extremity for want of forage, he resolved at all events to force the enemy's lines, and escape. With the assistance therefore, and by the advice of two deserters, he embarked his archers, slingers, and light-armed infantry, and marching himself by land at the head of 60 cohorts, went to attack that part of Cæsar's lines which was next to the sea, and not yet quite finished. He set out from his camp in the dead of the night, and arriving at the post he designed to force by break of day, he began the attack by sea and land at the same time. The ninth legion, which defended that part of the lines, made for some time a vigorous resistance; but being attacked in the rear by Pompey's men, who came by sea, and landed between Cæsar's two lines, they fled with such precipitation, that the succours Marcellinus sent them from a neighbouring post could not stop them. The ensign who carried the eagle at the head of the routed legion was mortally wounded; but nevertheless, before he died, had presence of mind enough to consign the eagle to the cavalry of the party, desiring them to deliver it to Cæsar. Pompey's men pursued the fugitives, and made such a slaughter of them, that all the centurions of the first cohort were cut off except one. And now Pompey's army broke in like a torrent upon the posts Cæsar had fortified, and were advancing to attack Marcellinus, who guarded a neighbouring fort; but Marc Antony coming very seasonably to his relief with 12 cohorts, they thought it advisable to retire.

205 Is driven from some of his posts.

Soon after Cæsar himself arrived with a strong reinforcement, and posted himself on the shore, in order to prevent such attempts for the future. From this post he observed an old camp which he had made within the place where Pompey was inclosed, but afterwards abandoned. Upon his quitting it, Pompey had taken possession of it, and left a legion to guard it. This post Cæsar resolved to reduce, hoping to repair the loss he had sustained on this unfortunate day, by taking the legion which Pompey had posted there. Accordingly, he advanced secretly at the head of 33 cohorts in two lines; and arriving at the old camp before Pompey could have notice of his march, attacked it with great vigour, forced the first intrenchment, notwithstanding the brave resistance of Titus Pulcio, and penetrated to the second, whither the legion had retired. But here his fortune changed on a sudden. His right wing, in looking for an entrance into the camp, marched along the

206 Cæsar defeated, and in great danger.

Rome. the outside of a trench which Cæsar had formerly carried on from the left angle of his camp, about 400 paces, to a neighbouring river. This trench they mistook for the rampart of the camp; and being led away by that mistake from their left wing, they were soon after prevented from rejoining it by the arrival of Pompey, who came up at the head of a legion and a large body of horse. Then the legion which Cæsar had attacked taking courage, made a brisk sally, drove his men back to the first intrenchment which they had seized, and there put them in great disorder while they were attempting to pass the ditch. Pompey, in the mean time, falling upon them with his cavalry in flank, completed their defeat; and then flying to the enemy's right wing, which had passed the trench mentioned above, and was shut up between that and the ramparts of the old camp, made a most dreadful slaughter of them. The trench was filled with dead bodies, many falling into it in that disorder, and others passing over them and pressing them to death.

In this distress, Cæsar did all he could to stop the flight of his legionaries, but to no purpose: the standard-bearers themselves threw down the Roman eagles when Cæsar endeavoured to stop them, and left them in the hands of the enemy, who, on this occasion, took 32 standards; a disgrace which Cæsar had never suffered before. He was himself in no small danger of falling by the hand of one of his own men, whom he took hold of when flying, bidding him stand and face about; but the man, apprehensive of the danger he was in, drew his sword, and would have killed him, had not one of his guards prevented the blow by cutting off his arm. Cæsar lost on this occasion 960 of his foot, 400 of his horse, 5 tribunes, and 32 centurions.

207 Retrieves affairs. This loss and disgrace greatly mortified Cæsar, but did not discourage him. After he had by his lenity and eloquent speeches recovered the spirits of his troops, he decamped, and retired in good order to Apollonia, where he paid the army, and left his sick and wounded. From thence he marched into Macedon, where Scipio Metellus, Pompey's father-in-law, was encamped. He hoped either to draw his rival into some plain, or to overpower Scipio if not assisted. He met with great difficulties on his march, the countries through which he passed refusing to supply his army with provisions; to such a degree was his reputation sunk since his last defeat! On his entering Thessaly he was met by Domitius, one of his lieutenants, whom he had sent with three legions to reduce Epirus. Having now got all his forces together, he marched directly to Gomphi, the first town of Thessaly, which had been formerly in his interest, but now declared against him. Whereupon he attacked it with so much vigour, that though the garrison was very numerous, and the walls were of an uncommon height, he made himself master of it in a few hours. From hence he marched to Metropolis, another considerable town of Thessaly, which immediately surrendered; as did all the other cities of the country, except Larissa, of which Scipio had made himself master.

On the other hand, Pompey being continually importuned by the senators and officers of his army, left his camp at Dyrrhachium, and followed Cæsar, firmly resolved not to give him battle, but rather to distress him by keeping close at his heels, straitening his quarters, and cutting off his convoys. As he had frequent opportunities of coming to an engagement, but always declined it, his friends and subalterns began to put ill constructions on his dilatoriness to his face.

208 Pompey resolves to come to an engagement.

These, together with the complaints of his soldiers, made him at length resolve to venture a general action. With this design he marched into a large plain near the cities of Pharsalia and Thebes; which latter was also called *Philippi*, from Philip king of Macedon, and the father of Perses, who, having reduced the Thebans, placed a colony of Macedonians in their city. This plain was watered by the Enipeus, and surrounded on all sides by high mountains; and Pompey, who was still averse from venturing an engagement, pitched his camp on the declivity of a steep mountain, in a place altogether inaccessible. There he was joined by Scipio his father-in-law, at the head of the legions which he had brought with him from Syria and Cilicia. But notwithstanding this reinforcement, he continued irresolute, and unwilling to put all to the issue of a single action; being still convinced of the wisdom of his maxim, that it was better to destroy the enemy by fatigues and want, than to engage an army of brave veterans, who were in a manner reduced to despair. As he put off from day to day, under various pretences, descending into the plain where Cæsar was encamped, his officers forced him to call a council of war, when all to a man were for venturing a general action the very next day. Thus was Pompey obliged to sacrifice his own judgment to the blind ardour of the multitude; and the necessary measures were taken for a general engagement.

209 Is totally defeated.

The event of this battle was in the highest degree fortunate for Cæsar †; who resolved to pursue his advantage, and follow Pompey to whatever country he should retire. Hearing, therefore, of his being at Amphibolis, he sent off his troops before him, and then embarked on board a little frigate in order to cross the Hellespont; but in the middle of the strait, he fell in with one of Pompey's commanders, at the head of ten ships of war. Cæsar, noway terrified at the superiority of his force, bore up to him, and commanded him to submit. The other instantly obeyed, awed by the terror of Cæsar's name, and surrendered himself and his fleet at discretion.

† See *Pharsalia*.

From thence he continued his voyage to Ephesus, then to Rhodes; and being informed that Pompey had been there before him, he made no doubt but that he was fled to Egypt: wherefore, losing no time, he set sail for that kingdom, and arrived at Alexandria with about 4000 men; a very inconsiderable force to keep such a powerful kingdom under subjection. But he was now grown so secure in his good fortune, that he expected to find obedience every where. Upon his landing, the first accounts he received were of Pompey's miserable end, who had been assassinated by orders of the treacherous king as soon as he went on shore; and soon after one of the murderers came with his head and ring as a most grateful present to the conqueror. But Cæsar turned away from it with horror, and shortly after ordered a magnificent tomb to be built to his memory on the spot where he was murdered; and a temple near the place, to Nemesis, who was the goddess that punished those that were cruel to men in adversity.

210 Is murdered in Egypt.

It should seem that the Egyptians by this time had

Rome. some hopes of breaking off all alliance with the Romans; which they considered, as in fact it was, but a specious subjection. They first began to take offence at Cæsar's carrying the ensigns of Roman power before him as he entered the city. Photinus, the eunuch, also treated him with disrespect, and even attempted his life. Cæsar, however, concealed his resentment till he had a force sufficient to punish his treachery; and sending privately for the legions which had been formerly enrolled for Pompey's service, as being the nearest to Egypt, he in the mean time pretended to repose an entire confidence in the king's minister. However, he soon changed his manner when he found himself in no danger from his attempts; and declared, that, as being a Roman consul, it was his duty to settle the succession to the Egyptian crown.

211 The Egyptians quarrel with Cæsar.

There were at that time two pretenders to the crown of Egypt: Ptolemy, the acknowledged king; and the celebrated Cleopatra, his sister; who, by the custom of the country, was also his wife, and, by their father's will, shared jointly in the succession. However, not being contented with a bare participation of power, she aimed at governing alone; but being opposed in her views by the Roman senate, who confirmed her brother's title to the crown, she was banished into Syria with Arsinoe her younger sister.

Cæsar, however, gave her new hopes of obtaining the kingdom, and sent both for her and her brother to plead their cause before him. Photinus, the young king's guardian, who had long borne the most inveterate hatred as well to Cæsar as to Cleopatra, disdained this proposal, and backed his refusal by sending an army of 20,000 men to besiege him in Alexandria. Cæsar bravely repulsed the enemy for some time; but finding the city of too great extent to be defended by so small an army as he then had with him, he retired to the palace, which commanded the harbour, where he purposed to make a stand. Achillas, who commanded the Egyptians, attacked him there with great vigour, and still aimed at making himself master of the fleet that lay before the palace. Cæsar, however, too well knew the importance of those ships in the hands of an enemy; and therefore burnt them all in spite of every effort to prevent them. He next possessed himself of the isle of Pharos, which was the key to the Alexandrian port, by which he was enabled to receive the supplies sent him from all sides; and in this situation he determined to withstand the united force of all the Egyptians.

212 And besiege him in Alexandria.

In the mean time, Cleopatra having heard of the present turn in her favour, resolved to depend rather on Cæsar's favour for gaining the government than her own forces. She had, in fact, assembled an army in Syria to support her claims; but now judged it the wisest way to rely entirely on the decision of her self-elected judge. But no arts, as she justly conceived, were so likely to influence Cæsar, as the charms of her person. The difficulty was how to get at Cæsar, as her enemies were in possession of all the avenues that led to the palace. For this purpose, she went on board a small vessel, and in the evening landed near the palace; where, being wrapped up in a coverlet, she was carried by one Apolodorous into the very chamber of Cæsar. Her address, at first, pleased him; but her caresses, which were carried beyond the bounds of innocence, entirely brought him over to second her claims.

While Cleopatra was thus employed in forwarding her own views, her sister Arsinoe was also strenuously engaged in the camp in pursuing a separate interest. She had found means, by the assistance of one Ganymede her confidant, to make a large division in the Egyptian army in her favour; and soon after caused Achillas to be murdered, and Ganymede to take the command in his stead, and to carry on the siege with greater vigour than before. Ganymede's principal effort was by letting in the sea upon those canals which supplied the palace with fresh water; but this inconvenience Cæsar remedied by digging a great number of wells. His next endeavour was to prevent the junction of Cæsar's 24th legion, which he twice attempted in vain. He soon after made himself master of a bridge which joined the isle of Pharos to the continent, from which post Cæsar was resolved to dislodge him. In the heat of action, some mariners came and joined the combatants; but being seized with a panic, instantly fled, and spread a general terror through the army. All Cæsar's endeavours to rally his forces were in vain, the confusion was past remedy, and numbers were drowned or put to the sword in attempting to escape; on which, seeing the irremediable disorder of his troops, he retired to a ship in order to get to the palace that was just opposite. However, he was no sooner on board than great crowds entered at the same time with him; upon which, apprehensive of the ship's sinking, he jumped into the sea, and swam 200 paces to the fleet that lay before the palace.

The Alexandrians, finding their efforts to take the palace ineffectual, endeavoured at least to get their king out of Cæsar's power, as he had seized upon his person in the beginning of their disputes. For this purpose they made use of their customary arts of dissimulation, professing the utmost desire for peace, and only wanting the presence of their lawful prince to give a sanction to the treaty. Cæsar, who was sensible of their perfidy, nevertheless concealed his suspicions, and gave them their king, as he was under no apprehensions from the abilities of a boy. Ptolemy, however, the instant he was set at liberty, instead of promoting peace, made every effort to give vigour to hostilities.

213 He is at last relieved.

In this manner Cæsar was hemmed in for some time: but he was at last relieved from this mortifying situation, by Mithridates Pergamenus, one of his most faithful partizans; who, collecting a numerous army in Syria, marched into Egypt, took the city of Pelusium, repulsed the Egyptian army with loss, and at last, joining with Cæsar, attacked their camp, and made a great slaughter of the Egyptians. Ptolemy himself, attempting to escape on board a vessel that was sailing down the river, was drowned by the ship's sinking; and Cæsar thus became master of all Egypt without any further opposition. He therefore appointed, that Cleopatra, with her younger brother, who was then but an infant, should jointly govern, according to the intent of their father's will; and drove out Arsinoe with Ganymede into banishment.

Cæsar now, for a while, seemed to relax from the usual activity of his conduct, captivated with the charms of Cleopatra. Instead of quitting Egypt to go and quell the remains of Pompey's party, he abandoned himself to his pleasures, passing whole nights in feasts with the young queen. He even resolved to attend her up the Nile into Ethiopia; but the brave veterans,

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terans who had long followed his fortune, boldly reprehended his conduct, and refused to be partners in so infamous an expedition. Thus, at length, rouzed from his lethargy, he left Cleopatra, by whom he had a son who was afterwards named *Cæsario*, in order to oppose Pharnaces the king of Pontus, who had now made some inroads upon the dominions of Rome. Here he was attended with the greatest success, as we have related under the article PONTUS; and having settled affairs in this part of the empire, as well as time would permit, he embarked for Italy, where he arrived sooner than his enemies could expect, but not before his affairs there absolutely required his presence. He had been, during his absence, created consul for five years, dictator for one year, and tribune of the people for life. But Antony, who in the mean time governed in Rome for him, had filled the city with riot and debauchery, and many commotions ensued, which nothing but the arrival of Cæsar could appease. However, by his moderation and humanity, he soon restored tranquillity to the city, scarce making any distinction between those of his own and the opposite party. Thus having, by gentle means, restored his authority at home, he prepared to march into Africa, where Pompey's party had found time to rally under Scipio and Cato, assisted by Juba king of Mauritania. But the vigour of his proceedings had like to have been retarded by a mutiny in his own army. Those veteran legions, who had hitherto conquered all that came before them, began to murmur for not having received the rewards which they had expected for their past services, and now insisted upon their discharge. However, Cæsar found means to quell the mutiny; and then, according to his usual diligence, landed with a small party in Africa, the rest of the army following soon after. After many movements and skirmishes, he resolved at last to come to a decisive battle. For this purpose, he invested the city of Tapsus, supposing that Scipio would attempt its relief, which turned out according to his expectations. Scipio, joining with the young king of Mauritania, advanced his army, and encamping near Cæsar, they soon came to a general battle. Cæsar's success was as usual; the enemy received a complete and final overthrow, with little loss on his side. Juba, and Petreius his general, killed each other in despair; Scipio, attempting to escape by sea into Spain, fell in among the enemy, and was slain; so that, of all the generals of that undone party, Cato was now alone remaining.

214 Arrives in Italy, and soon after undertakes an expedition into Africa.

215 Defeats the partisans of Pompey.

This extraordinary man, having retired into Africa after the battle of Pharsalia, had led the wretched remains of that defeat through burning deserts and tracts infested with serpents of various malignity, and was now in the city of Utica, which he had been left to defend. Still, however, in love with even the show of Roman government, he had formed the principal citizens into a senate, and conceived a resolution of holding out the town. He accordingly assembled his senators upon this occasion, and exhorted them to stand a siege; but finding his admonitions ineffectual, he stabbed himself with his sword*. Upon his death, the war in Africa being completed, Cæsar returned in triumph to Rome; and, as if he had abridged all his former triumphs only to increase the splendour of this, the citizens were astonished at the magnificence of the procession, and the number of the countries he had subdued. It lasted four days: the first was for Gaul, the second for Egypt, the third for his victories in Asia, and the fourth for that over Juba in Africa. To every one of his soldiers he gave a sum equivalent to about 150 l. of our money, double that sum to the centurions, and four times as much to the superior officers. The citizens also shared his bounty; to every one of whom he distributed 10 bushels of corn, 10 pounds of oil, and a sum of money equal to about two pounds Sterling of ours. He, after this, entertained the people at about 20,000 tables, treated them with the combat of gladiators, and filled Rome with a concourse of spectators from every part of Italy.

216 Goes to kills himself.

* See *Cato*.

217 Honours heaped upon him at Rome.

The people now seemed eager only to find out new modes of homage and unusual methods of adulation for their great enslaver. He was created, by a new title, *Magister Morum*, or Master of the morals of the people; he received the title of *Emperor*, *Father of his country*; his person was declared sacred; and, in short, upon him alone were devolved for life all the great dignities of the state. It must be owned, however, that no sovereign could make a better use of his power. He immediately began his empire by repressing vice and encouraging virtue. He communicated the power of judicature to the senators and the knights alone, and by many sumptuary laws restrained the scandalous luxuries of the rich. He proposed rewards to all such as had many children; and took the most prudent methods of repeopling the city, that had been exhausted in the late commotions; and besides his other works, he greatly reformed the calendar.

Having thus restored prosperity once more to Rome, he again found himself under a necessity of going into Spain, to oppose an army which had been raised there under the two sons of Pompey and Labienus his former general. He proceeded in this expedition with his usual celerity, and arrived in Spain before the enemy thought him yet departed from Rome. Cneius and Sextus, Pompey's sons, profiting by their unhappy father's example, resolved as much as possible to protract the war; so that the first operations of the two armies were spent in sieges and fruitless attempts to surprise each other. At length Cæsar, after taking many cities from the enemy, and pursuing Pompey with unwearied perseverance, compelled him to come to a battle upon the plains of Munda.

After a most obstinate engagement, Cæsar gained a complete victory ‡; and having now subdued all his enemies, he returned to Rome for the last time to receive new dignities and honours, and to enjoy in his own person an accumulation of all the great offices of the state. Still, however, he pretended to a moderation in the enjoyment of his power: he left the consuls to be named by the people; but as he possessed all the authority of the office, it from this time began to sink into contempt. He enlarged the number of senators also; but as he had previously destroyed their power, their new honours were but empty titles. He took care to pardon all who had been in arms against him, but not till he had deprived them of the power of resistance. He even set up once more the statues of Pompey; which, however, as Cicero observed, he only did to secure his own. The rest of this extraordinary man's life was employed for the advantage of the state.

‡ See *Munda*.

218 Becomes master of the whole empire by his victory at Munda.

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ſtate. He adorned the city with magnificent buildings; he rebuilt Carthage and Corinth, ſending colonies to both cities; he undertook to level ſeveral mountains in Italy, to drain the Pontine marſhes near Rome, and deſigned to cut through the Iſthmus of Peloponeſus. Thus he formed mighty projects and deſigns beyond the limits of the longeſt life; but the greateſt of all was his intended expedition againſt the Parthians, by which he deſigned to revenge the death of Craſſus; then to paſs through Hyrcania, and enter Scythia along the banks of the Caſpian ſea; from thence to open himſelf a way thro' the immeaſurable foreſts of Germany into Gaul, and ſo return to Rome. Theſe were the aims of ambition: but the jealouſy of a few individuals put an end to them all.

219 His vaſt deſigns.

The ſenate, with an adulation which marked the degeneracy of the times, continued to load Cæſar with freſh honours, and he continued with equal vanity to receive them. They called one of the months of the year after his name; they ſtamped money with his image; they ordered his ſtatue to be ſet up in all the cities of the empire; they inſtituted public ſacrifices on his birth-day; and talked, even in his life-time, of enrolling him in the number of their gods. Antony, at one of their public feſtivals, fooliſhly ventured to offer him a diadem; but he put it back again, refuſing it ſeveral times, and receiving at every refuſal loud acclamations from the people. One day, when the ſenate ordered him ſome particular honours, he neglected to riſe from his ſeat; and from that moment is ſaid to have been marked for deſtruction. It began to be rumoured that he intended to make himſelf king; which though in fact he already was, the people, who had an utter averſion to the name, could not bear his aſſuming the title. Whether he really deſigned to aſſume that empty honour muſt now for ever remain a ſecret; but certain it is, that the unſuſpecting openneſs of his conduct marked ſomething like a confidence in the innocence of his intentions. When informed by thoſe about him of the jealouſies of many perſons who envied his power, he was heard to ſay, That he had rather die once by treaſon, than to live continually in the apprehenſion of it: and to convince the world how little he had to apprehend from his enemies, he diſbanded his company of Spaniſh guards, which facilitated the enterpriſe againſt his life.

220 A conſpiracy formed againſt him.

A deep-laid conſpiracy was formed againſt him, compoſed of no leſs than ſixty ſenators. At the head of this conſpiracy was Brutus, whoſe life Cæſar had ſpared after the battle of Pharſalia, and Caſſius, who had been pardoned ſoon after, both prætors for the preſent year. Brutus made it his chief glory to have been deſcended from that Brutus who firſt gave liberty to Rome; and from a deſire of following his example, broke all the ties of private friendſhip, and entered into a conſpiracy which was to deſtroy his benefactor. Caſſius, on the other hand, was impetuous and proud, and hated Cæſar's perſon ſtill more than his cauſe. He had often ſought an opportunity of gratifying his revenge by aſſaſſination, which took riſe rather from private than public motives.

The conſpirators, to give a colour of juſtice to their proceedings, remitted the execution of this deſign to the ides of March, the day on which it was reported that Cæſar was to be offered the crown. The augurs had foretold that this day would be fatal to him; and the night preceding he heard his wife Calphurnia lamenting in her ſleep, and being awakened ſhe confeſſed to him that ſhe dreamt of his being aſſaſſinated in her arms. Theſe omens in ſome meaſure began to change his intentions of going to the ſenate, as he had reſolved, that day; but one of the conſpirators coming in, prevailed upon him to keep his reſolution, telling him of the reproach which would attend his ſtaying at home till his wife had luckly dreams, and of the preparations that were made for his appearance. As he went along to the ſenate, a ſlave, who haſtened to him with information of the conſpiracy, attempted to come near him, but could not for the crowd. Artemidorus, a Greek philoſopher, who had diſcovered the whole plot, delivered to him a memorial containing the heads of his information; but Cæſar gave it, with other papers, to one of his ſecretaries without reading, as was uſual in things of this nature. As ſoon as he had taken his place in the ſenate, the conſpirators came near him, under a pretence of ſaluting him; and Cimber, who was one of them, approached in a ſuppliant poſture, pretending to ſue for his brother's pardon, who was baniſhed by his order. All the conſpirators ſeconded him with great tenderneſs; and Cimber ſeeming to ſue with ſtill greater ſubmiſſion, took hold of the bottom of his robe, holding him ſo as to prevent his riſing. This was the ſignal agreed on. Caſca, who was behind, ſtabbed him, though ſlightly, in the ſhoulder. Cæſar inſtantly turned round, and with the ſtyle of his tablet wounded him in the arm. However, all the conſpirators were now alarmed; and incloſing him round, he received a ſecond ſtab from an unknown hand in the breaſt, while Caſſius wounded him in the face. He ſtill defended himſelf with great vigour, ruſhing among them, and throwing down ſuch as oppoſed him, till he ſaw Brutus among the conſpirators, who, coming up, ſtruck his dagger in his thigh. From that moment Cæſar thought no more of defending himſelf, but looking upon this conſpirator, cried out "And you too, Brutus!" Then covering his head, and ſpreading his robe before him in order to fall with greater decency, he ſunk down at the baſe of Pompey's ſtatue, after receiving three and twenty wounds, in the 56th year of his age and 4th of his reign.

221 He is murdered.

222 Great confuſion occaſioned by his death.

As ſoon as the conſpirators had diſpatched Cæſar, they began to addreſs themſelves to the ſenate, in order to vindicate the motives of their enterpriſe, and to excite them to join in procuring their country's freedom; but all the ſenators who were not accomplices fled with ſuch precipitation, that the lives of ſome of them were endangered in the throng. The people alſo being now alarmed, left their uſual occupations, and ran tumultuouſly through the city; ſome actuated by their fears, and ſtill more by a deſire of plunder. In this ſtate of confuſion, the conſpirators all retired to the capitol, and guarded its acceſſes by a body of gladiators which Brutus had in pay. It was in vain they alleged they only ſtruck for freedom, and that they killed a tyrant who uſurped the rights of mankind: the people, accuſtomed to luxury and eaſe, little regarded their profeſſions, dreading more the dangers of poverty than of ſubjection.

The friends of the late dictator now began to find that this was the time for coming into greater power than

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than before, and for satisfying their ambition under the veil of promoting justice. Of this number was Antony, whom we have already seen acting as a lieutenant under Cæsar. He was a man of moderate abilities and excessive vices; ambitious of power, but skilled in war, to which he had been trained from his youth. He was consul for this year; and resolved, with Lepidus, who was fond of commotions like himself, to seize this opportunity of assuming the sovereign power. Lepidus, therefore, took possession of the forum with a band of soldiers at his devotion; and Antony, being consul, was permitted to command them. Their first step was to possess themselves of all Cæsar's papers and money; and the next to convene the senate, in order to determine whether Cæsar had been a legal magistrate or a tyrannical usurper, and whether those who killed him merited rewards or punishments. There were many of these who had received their promotions from Cæsar, and had acquired large fortunes in consequence of his appointments: to vote him an usurper, therefore, would be to endanger their property; and yet to vote him innocent, might endanger the state. In this dilemma they seemed willing to reconcile extremes; wherefore they approved all the acts of Cæsar, and yet granted a general pardon to all the conspirators.

223 The conspirators pardoned by the senate.

This decree was very far from giving Antony satisfaction, as it granted security to a number of men who were the avowed enemies of tyranny, and who would be foremost in opposing his schemes of restoring absolute power. As therefore the senate had ratified all Cæsar's acts without distinction, he formed a scheme upon this of making him rule when dead as imperiously as he had done when living. Being, as was said, possessed of Cæsar's books of accounts, he so far gained upon his secretary as to make him insert whatever he thought proper. By these means great sums of money, which Cæsar never would have bestowed, were here distributed among the people; and every man who was averse to republican principles was here sure of finding a gratuity. He then demanded that Cæsar's funeral obsequies should be performed; which the senate now could not decently forbid, as they had never declared him a tyrant. Accordingly the body was brought forth into the forum with the utmost solemnity; and Antony began his operations upon the passions of the people by the prevailing motives of private interest. He first read Cæsar's will, in which he had left Octavius, his sister's grandson, his heir, permitting him to take the name of Cæsar; and three parts of his private fortune Brutus was to inherit in case of his death. The Roman people were left the gardens which he had on the other side the Tyber; and every citizen, in particular, was to receive three hundred sesterces. This last bequest not a little contributed to increase the people's affection for their late dictator; they now began to consider Cæsar as a father, who, not satisfied with doing them the greatest good while living, thought of benefiting them even after his death. As Antony continued reading, the multitude began to be moved, and sighs and lamentations were heard from every quarter. Antony, seeing the audience favourable to his designs, now began to address the assembly in a more pathetic strain: he presented before them Cæsar's bloody robe, and, as he unfolded it, took care they should observe the number of stabs in it: he then displayed an image, which to them appeared the body of Cæsar all covered with wounds. The people could now no longer contain their indignation; they unanimously cried out for revenge; all the old soldiers who had fought under him, burnt, with his body, their coronets, and other marks of conquest with which he had honoured them. A great number of the first matrons in the city threw in their ornaments also; till at length rage succeeding to sorrow, the multitude ran with flaming brands from the pile to set fire to the conspirators houses. In this rage of resentment, meeting with one Cinna, whom they mistook for another of the same name who was in the conspiracy, they tore him in pieces. The conspirators themselves, however, being well guarded, repulsed the multitude with no great trouble; but perceiving the rage of the people, they thought it safest to retire from the city. Divine honours were then granted him; and an altar was erected on the place where his body was burnt, where afterwards was erected a column inscribed, *To the father of his country.*

224 Antony inflames the people.

Rome.

In the mean time Antony, who had excited this flame, resolved to make the best of the occasion. Having gained the people by his zeal in Cæsar's cause, he next endeavoured to bring over the senate by a seeming concern for the freedom of the state. He therefore proposed to recall Sextus, Pompey's only remaining son, who had concealed himself in Spain since the death of his father: and to grant him the command of all the fleets of the empire. His next step to their confidence, was the quelling a sedition of the people who rose to revenge the death of Cæsar, and putting their leader Amathus to death, who pretended to be the son of Marius. He after this pretended to dread the resentment of the multitude, and demanded a guard for the security of his person. The senate granted his request; and, under this pretext, he drew round him a body of 6000 resolute men, attached to his interest, and ready to execute his commands. Thus he continued every day making rapid strides to absolute power; all the authority of government was lodged in his hands and those of his two brothers alone, who shared among them the consular, tribunitian, and prætorian power. His vows to revenge Cæsar's death seemed either postponed, or totally forgotten; and his only aim seemed to be to confirm himself in that power, which he had thus artfully acquired. But an obstacle to his ambition seemed to arise from a quarter on which he least expected it. This was from Octavius, or Octavianus Cæsar, afterwards called *Augustus*, who was the grand-nephew, and adopted son of Cæsar, and was at Apollonia when his kinsman was slain. He was then about eighteen years old, and had been sent to that city to improve himself in the study of Grecian literature. Upon the news of Cæsar's death, notwithstanding the earnest dissuasions of all his friends, he resolved to return to Rome, to claim the inheritance, and revenge the death of his uncle. From the former professions of Antony, he expected to find him a warm assistant to his aims; and he doubted not, by his concurrence, to take signal vengeance on all who had a hand in the conspiracy. However, he was greatly disappointed. Antony, whose projects were all to aggrandize himself, gave him but a very cold reception, and, instead of granting

225 He endeavours to engross the power entirely into his own hand.

226 Is opposed by Octavianus.

Rome.

ing him the fortune left him by the will, delayed the payment of it upon various pretences, hoping to check his ambition, by limiting his circumstances. But Octavianus, instead of abating his claims, even sold his own patrimonial estate, to pay such legacies as Cæsar had left, and particularly that to the people. By these means he gained a degree of popularity, which his enemies vainly laboured to diminish, and which in fact he had many other methods to procure. His conversation was elegant and insinuating, his face comely and graceful, and his affection to the late dictator so sincere, that every person was charmed either with his piety or his address. But what added still more to his interest was the name of Cæsar, which he had assumed, and, in consequence of which, the former followers of his uncle now flocked in great numbers to him. All these he managed with such art, that Antony now began to conceive a violent jealousy for the talents of his young opponent, and secretly laboured to counteract all his designs. In fact, he did not want reason; for the army near Rome, that had long wished to see the conspirators punished, began to turn from him to his rival, whom they saw more sincerely bent on gratifying their desires. Antony having procured also the government of Hither Gaul from the people, two of his legions, that he had brought home from his former government of Macedonia, went over to Octavianus, notwithstanding all his remonstrances to detain them. This produced, as usual, interviews, complaints, recriminations, and pretended reconciliations, which only tended to widen the difference; so that, at length, both sides prepared for war. Thus the state was divided into three distinct factions; that of Octavianus, who aimed at procuring Cæsar's inheritance, and revenging his death; that of Antony, whose sole view was to obtain absolute power; and that of the conspirators, who endeavoured to restore the senate to its former authority.

Antony being raised by the people to his new government of Cisalpine Gaul contrary to the inclinations of the senate, resolved to enter upon his province immediately, and oppose Brutus, who commanded a small body of troops there, while his army was yet entire. He accordingly left Rome, and marching thither, commanded Brutus to depart. Brutus, being unable to oppose him, retired with his forces; but being pursued by Antony, he was at last besieged in the city of Mutina, of which he sent word to the senate.

In the mean while, Octavianus, who by this time had raised a body of 10,000 men, returned to Rome; and being resolved, before he attempted to take vengeance on the conspirators, if possible to diminish the power of Antony, began by bringing over the senate to second his designs. In this he succeeded by the credit of Cicero, who had long hated Antony because he thought him the enemy of the state. Accordingly, by means of his eloquence, a decree was passed, ordering Antony to raise the siege of Mutina, to evacuate Cisalpine Gaul, and to await the further orders of the senate upon the banks of the Rubicon. Antony treated the order with contempt; and instead of obeying, began to profess his displeasure at being hitherto so submissive. Nothing now therefore remained for the senate but to declare him an enemy to the state, and to send Octavianus, with the army he had raised, to curb his insolence. The latter was very ready to offer his army for this expedition, in order to revenge his own private injuries, before he undertook those of the public. The two consuls, Hirtius and Pansa, joined all their forces; and thus combined, they marched at the head of a numerous army, against Antony, into Cisalpine Gaul. After one or two ineffectual conflicts, both armies came to a general engagement; in which Antony was defeated, and compelled to fly to Lepidus, who commanded a body of forces in further Gaul. This victory, however, which promised the senate so much success, produced effects very different from their expectations. The two consuls were mortally wounded; but Pansa, previous to his death, called Octavianus to his bed-side, and advised him to join with Antony, telling him that the senate only desired to depress both, by opposing them to each other. The advice of the dying consul sunk deep on his spirits; so that from that time he only sought a pretext to break with them. Their giving the command of a party of his army to Decimus Brutus, and their denying him a triumph soon after, served to alienate his mind entirely from the senate, and made him resolve to join Antony and Lepidus. He was willing, however, to try the senate thoroughly, before he came to an open rupture; wherefore he sent to demand the consulship, which was refused him. He then thought himself obliged to keep no measures with that assembly; but privately sent to sound the inclinations of Antony and Lepidus concerning a junction of forces, and found them as eager to assist as the senate was to oppose him. Antony was in fact the general of both armies, and Lepidus was only nominally so, his soldiers refusing to obey him upon the approach of the former. Wherefore, upon being assured of the assistance of Octavianus upon their arrival in Italy, they soon crossed the Alps with an army of 17 legions, breathing revenge against all who had opposed their designs.

227 A war breaks out between them.

The senate now began, too late, to perceive their error in disobliging Octavianus; and therefore gave him the consulship which they had so lately refused, and, to prevent his joining with Antony, flattered him with new honours, giving him a power superior to all law. The first use Octavianus made of his new authority was to procure a law for the condemnation of Brutus and Cassius; after which, he joined his forces with those of Antony and Lepidus.

228 They are reconciled, and divide the empire with Lepidus.

The meeting of these three usurpers of their country's freedom was near Mutina, upon a little island of the river Panarus. Their mutual suspicions were the cause of their meeting in this place. Lepidus first entered, and, finding all things safe, made the signal for the other two to approach. Octavianus began the conference, by thanking Antony for his zeal in putting Decimus Brutus to death; who, being abandoned by his army, was taken as he was designing to escape into Macedonia, and beheaded by Antony's command. Their conference lasted for three days; and the result of it was, that the supreme authority should be lodged in their hands, under the title of the *triumvirate*, for the space of five years; that Antony should have Gaul; Lepidus, Spain; and Octavianus, Africa and the Mediterranean islands. As for Italy, and the eastern provinces, they were to remain in common, until their

229 The second triumvirate.

Rome.

their general enemy was entirely subdued. But the last article of their union was a dreadful one. It was agreed that all their enemies should be destroyed, of which each presented a list. In these were comprised, not only the enemies, but the friends of the triumvirate, since the partisans of the one were often found among the oppofers of the others. Thus Lepidus gave up his brother Paulus to the vengeance of his colleague; Antony permitted the proscription of his uncle Lucius; and Octavius delivered up the great Cicero. The most sacred rights of nature were violated; 300 senators, and above 2000 knights, were included in this terrible proscription; their fortunes were confiscated, and their murderers enriched with the spoil. Rome soon felt the effects of this infernal union, and the horrid cruelties of Marius and Sylla were renewed. As many as could escape the cruelty of the triumvirs, fled thither into Macedonia to Brutus, or found refuge with young Pompey, who was now in Sicily, and covered the Mediterranean with his numerous navy. Their cruelties were not aimed at the men alone; but the foster sex were in danger of being marked as objects either of avarice or resentment. They made out a list of 1400 women of the best quality, and the richest in the city, who were ordered to give in an account of their fortunes, to be taxed in proportion. But this seemed so unpopular a measure, and was so firmly opposed by Hortensia, who spoke against it, that, instead of 1400 women, they were content to tax only 400. However, they made up the deficiency, by extending the tax upon men; near 100,000, as well citizens as strangers, were compelled to furnish supplies to the subversion of their country's freedom. At last, both the avarice and vengeance of the triumviri seemed fully satisfied, and they went into the senate to declare that the proscription was at an end; and thus having deluged the city with blood, Octavianus and Antony, leaving Lepidus to defend Rome in their absence, marched with their army to oppose the conspirators, who were now at the head of a formidable army in Asia.

230 Cruelties of the triumvirs.

231 They are opposed by Brutus and Cassius.

Brutus and Cassius, the principal of these, upon the death of Cæsar, being compelled to quit Rome, went into Greece, where they persuaded the Roman students at Athens to declare in the cause of freedom; then parting, the former raised a powerful army in Macedonia and the adjacent countries, while the latter went into Syria, where he soon became master of 12 legions, and reduced his opponent Dollabella to such straits as to kill himself. Both armies soon after joining at Smyrna, the sight of such a formidable force began to revive the declining spirits of the party, and to re-unite the two generals still more closely, between whom there had been some time before a slight misunderstanding. In short, having quitted Italy like distressed exiles, without having one single soldier or one town that owned their command, they now found themselves at the head of a flourishing army, furnished with all the necessaries for carrying on the war, and in a condition to support a contest where the empire of the world depended on the event. This success in raising levies was entirely owing to the justice, moderation, and great humanity of Brutus, who in every instance seemed studious of the happiness of his country.

It was in this flourishing state of their affairs, that the conspirators had formed a resolution of going against Cleopatra, who, on her side, had made great preparations to assist their opponents. However, they were diverted from this purpose by an information that Octavianus and Antony were now upon their march, with 40 legions to oppose them. Brutus now, therefore, moved to have their army pass over into Greece and Macedonia, and there meet the enemy; but Cassius so far prevailed as to have the Rhodians and Lycians first reduced, who had refused their usual contribution. This expedition was immediately put in execution, and extraordinary contributions were raised by that means, the Rhodians having scarce any thing left but their lives *. The Lycians suffered still more severely; for having shut themselves up in the city of Xanthus, they defended the place against Brutus with such fury, that neither his art nor intreaties could prevail upon them to surrender. At length, the town being set on fire, by their attempting to burn the works of the Romans, Brutus, instead of laying hold on this opportunity to storm the place, made every effort to preserve it, intreating his soldiers to try all means of extinguishing the fire: but the desperate phrenzy of the citizens was not to be mollified. Far from thinking themselves obliged to their generous enemy, for the efforts which were made to save them, they resolved to perish in the flames. Wherefore, instead of extinguishing, they did all in their power to augment the fire, by throwing in wood, dry reeds, and all kinds of fuel. Nothing could exceed the distress of Brutus upon seeing the townsmen thus resolutely bent on destroying themselves: he rode about the fortifications, stretching out his hands to the Xanthians, and conjuring them to have pity on themselves and their city; but, insensible to his expostulations, they rushed into the flames with desperate obstinacy, and the whole soon became an heap of undistinguishable ruin. At this horrid spectacle, Brutus offered a reward to every soldier who would bring him a Lycian alive. The number of those whom it was possible to save from their own fury amounted to no more than 150.

* See *Rhodes*.

Brutus and Cassius met once more at Sardis, where, after the usual ceremonies were passed between them, they resolved to have a private conference together, when, after much altercation, they were at last perfectly reconciled. After which, night coming on, Cassius invited Brutus and his friends to an entertainment. Upon retiring home, it was that Brutus, as Plutarch tells the story, saw a spectre in his tent. It was in the dead of the night, when the whole camp was perfectly quiet, that Brutus was employed in reading by a lamp that was just expiring. On a sudden he thought he heard a noise as if somebody entered; and looking towards the door, he perceived it open. A gigantic figure, with a frightful aspect, stood before him, and continued to gaze upon him with silent severity. At last Brutus had courage to speak to it: "Art thou a dæmon or a mortal man? and why comest thou to me?" "Brutus," replied the phantom, "I am thy evil genius, thou shalt see me again at Philippi." "Well then," answered Brutus, without being discomposed, "we shall meet again." Upon which the phantom vanished, and Brutus calling to his servants, asked if they had seen any thing; to which re-

232 Brutus sees a spectre.

Rome. replying in the negative, he again resumed his studies. But as he was struck with so strange an occurrence, he mentioned it the next day to Cassius, who, being an Epicurean, ascribed it to the effect of imagination too much exercised by vigilance and anxiety. Brutus appeared satisfied with this solution of his late terrors; and, as Antony and Octavianus were now advanced into Macedonia, they soon after passed over into Thrace, and advanced to the city of Philippi, near which the forces of the triumvirs were posted.

A battle soon ensued; in which the republicans were defeated, and Cassius killed, as is related in the article PHILIPPI.

233 The republicans defeated. The first care of Brutus, when he became the sole general, was to assemble the dispersed troops of Cassius, and animate them with fresh hopes of victory. As they had lost all they possessed by the plundering of their camp, he promised them 2000 denarii each man to make up their losses. This once more inspired them with new ardour; they admired the liberality of their general, and with loud shouts proclaimed his former intrepidity. Still, however, he had not confidence sufficient to face the adversary, who offered him battle the ensuing day. His aim was to starve his enemies, who were in extreme want of provisions, their fleet having been lately defeated. But his single opinion was over-ruled by the rest of his army, who now grew every day more confident of their strength, and more arrogant to their new general. He was, therefore, at last, after a respite of 20 days, obliged to comply with their solicitations to try the fate of the battle. Both armies being drawn out, they remained a long while opposite to each other, without offering to engage. It is said that he himself had lost much of his natural ardour by having seen the spectre the night preceding: however, he encouraged his men as much as possible, and gave the signal for battle within three hours of sun-set. Fortune again declared against him; and the two triumviri expressly ordered by no means to suffer the general to escape, for fear he should renew the war. Thus the whole body of the enemy seemed chiefly intent on Brutus alone, and his capture seemed inevitable. In this deplorable exigence, Lucilius his friend resolved, by his own death, to effect the general's delivery. Upon perceiving a body of Thracian horse closely pursuing Brutus, and just upon the point of taking him, he boldly threw himself in their way, telling them that he was Brutus. The Thracians, overjoyed with so great a prize, immediately dispatched some of their companions, with the news of their success, to the army. Upon which, the ardour of the pursuit now abating, Antony marched out to meet his prisoner; some silently deploring the fate of so virtuous a man; others reproaching that mean desire of life for which he consented to undergo captivity. Antony now seeing the Thracians approach, began to prepare himself for the interview; but the faithful Lucilius, advancing with a cheerful air, owned the deceit that he had put upon him: on which the triumvir, struck with so much fidelity, pardoned him upon the spot; and from that time forward loaded him with benefits, and honoured him with his friendship.

234 They are defeated a second time.

In the mean time Brutus, with a small number of friends, passed over a rivulet, and, night coming on, sat down under a rock which concealed him from the pursuit of the enemy. After taking breath for a little time, he sent out one Statilius to give him some information of those that remained; but he never returned, being killed by a party of the enemy's horse. Brutus judging very rightly of his fate, now resolved to die likewise, and spoke to those who stood round him to lend him their last sad assistance. None of them, however, would render him so melancholy a piece of service. At last one Strato, averting his head, presented the sword's point to Brutus; who threw himself upon it, and immediately expired.

235 Brutus kills himself.

From the moment of Brutus's death the triumviri began to act as sovereigns, and to divide the Roman dominions between them, as theirs by right of conquest. However, though there were apparently three who thus participated all the power, yet, in fact, only two were actually possessed of it; since Lepidus was at first admitted merely to curb the mutual jealousy of Antony and Octavianus, and was possessed neither of interest in the army nor authority among the people. Their first care was to punish those whom they had formerly marked for vengeance. The head of Brutus was sent to Rome to be thrown at the foot of Cæsar's statue. His ashes, however, were sent to his wife Porcia, Cato's daughter, who afterwards killed herself by swallowing burning coals. It is observed, that of all those who had a hand in the death of Cæsar, not one died a natural death.

236 Antony's extravagance. The power of the triumviri being thus established upon the ruins of the commonwealth, Antony went into Greece, and spent some time at Athens, conversing among the philosophers, and assisting at their disputes in person. From thence he passed over into Asia, where all the monarchs of the east, who acknowledged the Roman power, came to pay him their obedience. In this manner he proceeded from kingdom to kingdom, attended by a crowd of sovereigns, exacting contributions, distributing favours, and giving away crowns with capricious insolence. He presented the kingdom of Cappadocia to Sysenes, in prejudice of Ariarathes, only because he found pleasure in the beauty of Glaphyra, the mother of the former. He settled Herod in the kingdom of Judea, and supported him against every opposer. But among all the sovereigns of the east who shared his favours, none had so large a part as Cleopatra, the celebrated queen of Egypt.

It happened that Serapion, her governor in the island of Cyprus, had formerly furnished some succours to the conspirators; and it was thought proper that she should answer for his conduct on that occasion. Accordingly, having received orders from Antony to come and clear herself of this imputation of infidelity, she readily complied, equally conscious of the goodness of her cause and the power of her beauty. She had already experienced the force of her charms upon Cæsar and Pompey's eldest son; and the addition of a few years since that time had not impaired their lustre.

237 Has an interview with Cleopatra. Antony was now in Tarsus, a city of Cilicia, when Cleopatra resolved to attend his court in person. She sailed down the river Cydnus, at the mouth of which the city stood, with the most sumptuous pageantry. Her galley was covered with gold; the sails were of purple, large, and floating in the wind. The oars, of silver, kept time to the sound of flutes and cymbals. She herself lay reclined on a couch spangled with stars of gold,

Rome. gold, and with such ornaments as poets and painters had usually ascribed to Venus. On each side were boys like Cupids, who fanned her by turns; while the most beautiful nymphs, dressed like Nereids and Graces, were placed at proper distances around her. Upon the banks of the river were kept burning the most exquisite perfumes, while an infinite number of people gazed upon the sight. Antony was captivated with her beauty; and, leaving all his business to satisfy his passion, shortly after followed her into Egypt.

While he thus remained idle, Octavianus, who took upon him to lead back the veteran troops and settle them in Italy, was assiduously employed in providing for their subsistence. He had promised them lands at home, as a recompense for their past services; but they could not receive new grants, without turning out the former inhabitants. In consequence of this, multitudes of women, with children in their arms, whose tender years and innocence excited universal compassion, daily filled the temples and the streets with their distresses. Numbers of husbandmen and shepherds came to deprecate the conqueror's intention, or to obtain an habitation in some other part of the world. Amongst this number was Virgil the poet, who in an humble manner begged permission to retain his patrimonial farm: Virgil obtained his request; but the rest of his countrymen, of Mantua and Cremona, were turned out without mercy.

238 Miseries suffered by the Romans.

Italy and Rome now felt the most extreme miseries; the insolent soldiers plundered at will; while Sextus Pompey, being master of the sea, cut off all foreign communication, and prevented the people's receiving their usual supplies of corn. To these mischiefs were added the commencement of another civil war. Fulvia, the wife of Antony, who had been left behind him at Rome, had felt for some time all the rage of jealousy, and resolved to try every method of bringing back her husband from the arms of Cleopatra. She considered a breach with Octavianus as the only probable means of rousing him from his lethargy; and accordingly, with the assistance of Lucius her brother-in-law, who was then consul, and entirely devoted to her interest, she began to sow the seeds of dissension. The pretext was, that Antony should have a share in the distribution of lands as well as Octavianus. This produced some negociations between them; Octavianus offered to make the veterans themselves umpires in the dispute. Lucius refused to acquiesce; and being at the head of more than six legions, mostly composed of such as had been dispossessed of their lands, he resolved to compel Octavianus to accept of whatever terms he should offer. Thus a new war was excited between Octavianus and Antony; or, at least, the generals of the latter assumed the sanction of his name. Octavianus, however, proved victorious: Lucius was hemmed in between two armies, and constrained to retreat to Perusia, a city of Etruria, where he was closely besieged by the opposite party. He made many desperate sallies, and Fulvia did all in her power to relieve him, but without success. He as at last, therefore, reduced to such extremity by famine, that he came out in person and delivered himself up to the mercy of the conqueror. Octavianus received him very honourably, and generously pardoned him and all his followers. Thus having concluded the war in a few months, he returned in triumph to Rome. Rome.

Antony, who, during this interval, was revelling in all the studied luxuries procured him by his insidious mistress, having heard of his brother's overthrow, and his wife's being compelled to leave Italy, was resolved to oppose Octavianus without delay. He accordingly sailed at the head of a considerable fleet from Alexandria to Tyre, from thence to Cyprus and Rhodes, and had an interview with Fulvia his wife at Athens. He much blamed her for occasioning the late disorders, testified the utmost contempt for her person, and, leaving her upon her death bed at Sycion, hastened into Italy to fight Octavianus. They both met at Brundusium; and it was now thought that the flames of a civil war were going to blaze out once more. The forces of Antony were numerous, but mostly newly raised; however, he was assisted by Sextus Pompeius, who in these oppositions of interests was daily coming into power. Octavianus was at the head of those veterans who had always been irresistible, but who seemed no way disposed to fight against Antony their former general. A negociation was therefore proposed; and a reconciliation was effected. All offences and affronts were mutually forgiven; and to cement the union, a marriage was concluded between Antony and Octavia, the sister of Octavianus. A new division of the Roman empire was made between them; Octavianus was to have the command of the west, Antony of the east, while Lepidus was obliged to content himself with the provinces in Africa. As for Sextus Pompeius, he was permitted to retain all the islands he had already possessed, together with Peloponnesus: he was also granted the privilege of demanding the consulship in his absence, and of discharging that office by any of his friends. It was likewise stipulated to leave the sea open, and pay the people what corn was due out of Sicily. Thus a general peace was concluded, to the great satisfaction of the people, who now expected a cessation from all their calamities. 239 The empire divided anew.

This calm seemed to continue for some time: Antony led his forces against the Parthians, over whom his lieutenant, Ventidius, had gained great advantages. Octavianus drew the greatest part of his army into Gaul, where there were some disturbances; and Pompey went to secure his newly ceded province to his interest. It was on this quarter that fresh motives were given for renewing the war. Antony, who was obliged by treaty to quit Peloponnesus, refused to evacuate it till Pompey had satisfied him for such debts as were due to him from the inhabitants. This Pompey would by no means comply with; but immediately fitted out a new fleet, and renewed his former enterprises, by cutting off such corn and provisions as were consigned to Italy. Thus the grievances of the poor were again renewed; and the people began to complain, that instead of three tyrants they were now oppressed by four.

In this exigence, Octavianus, who had long meditated the best means of diminishing the number, resolved to begin by getting rid of Pompey, who kept the state in continual alarms. He was master of two fleets; one of which he had caused to be built at Ravenna; and another which Menodorus, who revolted from Pompey, brought to his aid. His first attempt was to invade

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vade Sicily; but being overpowered in his passage by Pompey, and afterwards shattered in a storm, he was obliged to defer his designs to the ensuing year. During this interval he was reinforced by a fleet of 120 ships, given him by Antony, with which he resolved once more to invade Sicily on three several quarters. But fortune seemed still determined to oppose him. He was a second time disabled and shattered by a storm: which so raised the vanity of Pompey, that he began to style himself the *son of Neptune*. However, Octavianus was not to be intimidated by any disgraces; for having shortly refitted his navy, and recruited his forces, he gave the command of both to Agrippa, his faithful friend and associate in war. Agrippa proved himself worthy of the trust reposed in him: he began his operations by a victory over Pompey; and, though he was shortly after worsted himself, he soon after gave his adversary a complete and final overthrow. Thus undone, Pompey resolved to fly to Antony, from whom he expected refuge, as he had formerly obliged that triumvir by giving protection to his mother. However, he tried once more, at the head of a small body of men, to make himself independent, and even surprised Antony's officers who had been sent to accept of his submissions. Nevertheless, he was at last abandoned by his soldiers, and delivered up to Titus, Antony's lieutenant, who shortly after caused him to be slain.

240 Sextus Pompeius defeated and taken prisoner.

The death of this general removed one very powerful obstacle to the ambition of Octavianus, and he resolved to take the earliest opportunity to get rid of the rest of his associates. An offence was soon furnished by Lepidus, that served as a sufficient pretext for depriving him of his share in the triumvirate. Being now at the head of 22 legions, with a strong body of cavalry, he idly supposed that his present power was more than an equivalent to the popularity of Octavianus. He therefore resolved upon adding Sicily, where he then was, to his province; pretending a right, as having first invaded it. His colleague sent to expostulate upon these proceedings; but Lepidus fiercely replied, 'that he was determined to have his share in the administration, and would no longer submit to let one alone possess all the authority.' Octavianus was previously informed of the disposition of Lepidus's soldiers; for he had, by his secret intrigues and largesses, entirely attached them to himself. Wherefore, without further delay, he with great boldness went alone to the camp of Lepidus, and with no other assistance than his private bounties, and the authority he had gained by his former victories, he resolved to depose his rival. The soldiers thronged round him with the most dutiful alacrity, while Lepidus hastened to prevent their defection. But Octavianus, though he received a wound from one of the centurions, went with great presence of mind to the place where the military ensigns were planted, and, flourishing one of them in the air, all the legionary soldiers ran in crowds and saluted him as their general. Lepidus being thus abandoned by his men, divested himself of all the marks of his authority, which he could no longer keep, and submissively threw himself at the feet of Octavianus. This general spared his life, notwithstanding the remonstrances of his army; but deprived him of all his former authority, and banished him to Circæum.

241 Lepidus deposed and banished.

Octavianus was received upon his return to Rome with universal joy; the senators met him at the gates, and conducted him to the capitol: the people followed, crowned with garlands of flowers; and after having returned thanks to the gods, waited upon him to his palace. There remained now but one obstacle to his ambition, which was Antony, whom he resolved to remove, and for that purpose began to render his character as contemptible as he possibly could at Rome. In fact, Antony's conduct did not a little contribute to promote the endeavours of his ambitious partner in the state. He had marched against the Parthians with a prodigious army; but was forced to return with the loss of the fourth part of his forces, and all his baggage †. This extremely diminished his reputation; but his making a triumphal entry into Alexandria soon after, entirely disgusted the citizens of Rome. However, Antony seemed quite regardless of their resentment: totally disregarding the business of the state, he spent whole days and nights in the company of Cleopatra, who studied every art to increase his passion, and vary his entertainments. Not contented with sharing in her company all the delights which Egypt could afford, Antony was resolved to enlarge his sphere of luxury, by granting her many of those kingdoms which belonged to the Roman empire. He gave her all Phœnicia, Cœlo-Syria, and Cyprus; with a great part of Cilicia, Arabia, and Judea; gifts which he had no right to bestow, but which he pretended to grant in imitation of Hercules. This complication of vice and folly at length totally exasperated the Romans; and Octavianus, willing to take advantage of their resentment, took care to exaggerate all his defects. At length, when he found the people sufficiently irritated against him, he resolved to send Octavia, who was then at Rome, to Antony, as if with a view of reclaiming her husband; but, in fact, to furnish a sufficient pretext of declaring war against him, as he knew she would be dismissed with contempt.

242 Antony's imprudent conduct.

† See *Parthia*.

Antony was now in the city of Leucopolis, revelling with his insidious paramour, when he heard that Octavia was at Athens, upon her journey to visit him. This was very unwelcome news to him as well as to Cleopatra; who, fearing the charms of her rival, endeavoured to convince Antony of the strength of her passion. He frequently caught her in tears, which she seemed as if willing to hide; and often intreated her to tell him the cause, which she seemed willing to suppress. These artifices, together with the ceaseless flattery and importunity of her creatures, prevailed so much upon Antony's weakness, that he commanded Octavia to return home without seeing her, and attached himself still more closely to Cleopatra than before. His ridiculous passion now began to have no bounds. He resolved to own her for his wife, and entirely to repudiate Octavia. He accordingly assembled the people of Alexandria in the public theatre, where was raised an alcove of silver, under which were placed two thrones of gold, one for himself and the other for Cleopatra. There he seated himself, dressed like Bacchus, while Cleopatra sat beside him cloathed in the ornaments and attributes of Isis, the principal deity of the Egyptians. On that occasion he declared her queen of all the countries which he had already bestowed upon her; while he associated Cæsario, her son by Cæsar, as her partner in the government. To the two children which he had

243 Divorces Octavia, and marries Cleopatra.

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had by her himself, he gave the title of *king of kings*, with very extensive dominions: and, to crown his absurdities, he sent a minute account of his proceedings to the two consuls at Rome. It was now necessary to act up to his imaginary dignity; new luxuries and pageantries were now therefore studied, and new marks of profusion found out: not less than 60,000l. of our money were lavished upon one single entertainment; it is said, upon this occasion, that Cleopatra dissolved a pearl of great value in vinegar, and drank it off. But we are told of one circumstance that might well repress their delights, and teach mankind to relish the beverage of virtue, however simple, above their greatest luxuries. He was suspicious of being poisoned in every meal; he feared Cleopatra, whom he so much loved, and would eat nothing without having it previously tasted by one of his attendants.

244 Octavianus resolves to make war upon him.

In the mean time Octavianus had now a sufficient pretext for declaring war; and informed the senate of his intentions. However, he deferred the execution of his design for a while, being then employed in quelling an insurrection of the Illyrians. The following year was chiefly taken up in preparations against Antony, who, perceiving his design, remonstrated to the senate, that he had many causes of complaint against his colleague, who had seized upon Sicily without affording him a share; alleging that he had also dispossessed Lepidus, and kept to himself the province he had commanded; and that he had divided all Italy among his own soldiers, leaving nothing to recompence those in Asia. To this complaint Octavianus was contented to make a sarcastic answer; implying, that it was absurd to complain of his distribution of a few trifling districts in Italy, when Antony having conquered Parthia, he might now reward his soldiers with cities and provinces. The sarcasm upon Antony's misfortunes in Parthia so provoked him, that he ordered Canidius, who commanded his army, to march without intermission into Europe; while he and Cleopatra followed to Samos, in order to prepare for carrying on the war with vigour. When arrived there, it was ridiculous enough to behold the odd mixture of preparations for pleasure and for war. On one side, all the kings and princes from Europe to the Euxine sea, had orders to send him thither supplies both of men, provisions, and arms; on the other side, all the comedians, dancers, buffoons, and musicians of Greece, were ordered to attend him. Thus, frequently, when a ship was thought to arrive laden with soldiers, arms, and ammunition, it was found only filled with players and theatrical machinery. When news was expected of the approach of an army, messengers only arrived with tidings of a fresh quantity of venison. The kings who attended him endeavoured to gain his favour more by their entertainments than their warlike preparations; the provinces strove rather to please him by sacrificing to his divinity, than by their alacrity in his defence; so that some were heard to say, "What rejoicings would not this man make for a victory, when he thus triumphs at the eve of a dangerous war!" In short, his best friends now began to forsake his interests.

His delay at Samos, and afterwards at Athens, where he carried Cleopatra to receive new honours, was extremely favourable to the arms of Octavianus. This general was at first scarcely in a disposition to oppose him, had he gone into Italy; but he soon found time to put himself in a condition for carrying on the war, and shortly after declared it against him in form. All Antony's followers were invited over to join him, with great promises of rewards: but they were not declared enemies, partly to prevent their growing desperate, and partly to give a show of moderation to his own party. At length, both found themselves in readiness to begin the war, and their armies were answerable to the empire they contended for. The one was followed by all the forces of the east; the other drew all the strength of the west to support his pretensions. Antony's force composed a body of 100,000 foot, and 12,000 horse; while his fleet amounted to 500 ships of war. The army of Octavianus mustered but 80,000 foot, but equalled his adversary's in his number of cavalry: his fleet was but half as numerous as Antony's; however, his ships were better built, and manned with better soldiers.

245 Antony defeated at Actium.

The great decisive engagement, which was a naval one, was fought near Actium, a city of Epirus, at the entrance of the gulph of Ambracia. Antony ranged his ships before the mouth of the gulph; and Octavianus drew up his fleet in opposition. Neither general assumed any fixed station to command in; but went about from ship to ship, wherever his presence was necessary. In the mean time, the two land armies, on opposite sides of the gulph, were drawn up, only as spectators of the engagement; and encouraged the fleets by their shouts, to engage. The battle began on both sides with great ardour, and after a manner not practised upon former occasions. The prows of their vessels were armed with brazen points; and with these they drove furiously against each other. In this conflict, the ships of Antony came with greater force, but those of Octavianus avoided the shock with greater dexterity. On Antony's side, the sterns of the ships were raised in form of a tower; from whence they threw arrows from machines for that purpose. Those of Octavianus made use of long poles hooked with iron, and fire-pots. They fought in this manner for some time, with equal animosity; nor was there any advantage on either side, except a small appearance of disorder in the centre of Antony's fleet. But all of a sudden Cleopatra determined the fortune of the day. She was seen flying from the engagement attended by 60 sail; struck, perhaps, with the terrors natural to her sex: but what increased the general amazement was, to behold Antony himself following soon after, and leaving his fleet at the mercy of the conquerors. The engagement, notwithstanding, continued with great obstinacy till five in the evening; when Antony's forces, partly constrained by the conduct of Agrippa, and partly persuaded by the promises of Octavianus, submitted to the conqueror. The land-forces soon after followed the example of the navy; and all yielded to the conqueror, without striking a blow, the fourth day after the battle.

When Cleopatra fled, Antony pursued her in a five-oared galley; and coming along-side of her ship, entered, without seeing or being seen by her. She was in the stern, and he went to the prow, where he remained for some time silent, holding his head between his hands. In this manner he continued three whole days; during which, either through indignation or shame, he

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he neither saw nor spoke to Cleopatra. At last, when they were arrived at the promontory of Tenarus, the queen's female attendants reconciled them, and every thing went on as before. Still, however, he had the consolation to suppose his army continued faithful to him; and accordingly dispatched orders to his lieutenant Canidius, to conduct it into Asia. However, he was soon undeceived when he arrived in Africa, where he was informed of their submission to his rival. This account so transported him with rage, that he was hardly prevented from killing himself; but at length, at the intreaty of his friends, he returned to Alexandria, in a very different situation from that in which he had left it some time before. Cleopatra, however, seemed to retain that fortitude in her misfortunes which had utterly abandoned her admirer. Having amassed considerable riches by means of confiscation and other acts of violence, she formed a very singular and unheard of project; this was to convey her whole fleet over the isthmus of Suez into the Red Sea, and thereby save herself in another region beyond the reach of Rome, with all her treasures. Some of her vessels were actually transported thither, pursuant to her orders; but the Arabians having burnt them, and Antony dissuading her from the design, she abandoned it for the more improbable scheme of defending Egypt against the conqueror. She omitted nothing in her power to put his advice in practice, and made all kinds of preparations for war; at least hoping thereby to obtain better terms from Octavianus. In fact, she had always loved Antony's fortunes rather than his person; and if she could have fallen upon any method of saving herself, though even at his expence, there is no doubt but she would have embraced it with gladness. She even still had some hopes from the power of her charms, though she was arrived almost at the age of 40; and was desirous of trying upon Octavianus, those arts which had been so successful with the greatest men of Rome. Thus, in three embassies which were sent one after another from Antony to his rival in Asia, the queen had always her secret agents, charged with particular proposals in her name. Antony desired no more than that his life might be spared, and to have the liberty of passing the remainder of his days in obscurity. To these proposals Octavianus made no reply. Cleopatra sent him also public proposals in favour of her children; but at the same time privately resigned him her crown, with all the ensigns of royalty. To the queen's public proposal no answer was given; to her private offer he replied, by giving her assurances of his favour in case she sent away Antony or put him to death These negociations were not so private but they came to the knowledge of Antony, whose jealousy and rage was now heightened by every concurrence. He built a small solitary house upon a mole in the sea; and there he passed his time, shunning all commerce with mankind, and professing to imitate Timon the man hater. However, his furious jealousy drove him even from this retreat into society; for hearing that Cleopatra had many secret conferences with one Thyrsus, an emissary from Octavianus, he seized upon him, and having ordered him to be cruelly scourged, he sent him back to his patron. At the same time he sent letters by him, importing, that he had chastised Thyrsus for insulting a man in his misfortunes; but withal he gave his rival permission to avenge himself, by scourging Hiparchus, Antony's freedman, in the same manner. The revenge, in this case, would have been highly pleasing to Antony, as Hiparchus had left him, to join the fortunes of his more successful rival.

246 He resolves to defend Egypt against the conqueror.

Mean while, the operations of the war were carried vigorously forward, and Egypt was once more the theatre of the contending armies of Rome. Gallus, the lieutenant of Octavianus, took Paretonium, which opened the whole country to his incursions. On the other side, Antony, who had still considerable forces by sea and land, wanted to take that important place from the enemy. He therefore marched towards it, flattering himself, that as soon as he should show himself to the legions which he had once commanded, their affection for their ancient general would revive. He approached therefore, and exhorted them to remember their former vows of fidelity. Gallus, however, ordered all the trumpets to sound, in order to hinder Antony from being heard, so that he was obliged to retire.

247 Pelusium given up to Octavianus.

Octavianus himself was in the mean time advancing with another army before Pelusium, which, by its strong situation, might have retarded his progress for some time. But the governor of the city, either wanting courage to defend it, or previously instructed by Cleopatra to give it up, permitted him to take possession of the place; so that Octavianus had now no obstacle in his way to Alexandria, whither he marched with all expedition. Antony, upon his arrival, sallied out to oppose him, fighting with great desperation, and putting the enemy's cavalry to flight. This slight advantage once more revived his declining hopes; and, being naturally vain, he re-entered Alexandria in triumph. Then going, all armed as he was, to the palace, he embraced Cleopatra, and presented her a soldier who had distinguished himself in the late engagement. The queen rewarded him very magnificently; presenting him with an head-piece and breastplate of gold. With these, however, the soldier went off the next night to the other army. Antony could not bear this defection without fresh indignation; he resolved, therefore, to make a bold expiring effort by sea and land, but previously offered to fight his adversary in single combat. Octavianus too well knew the inequality of their situations to comply with this forlorn offer; he only, therefore, coolly replied, that Antony had ways enough to die besides single combat.

248 Antony deserted by his fleet.

The evening before the day appointed for the last desperate attempt, he ordered a grand entertainment to be prepared. At day-break he posted the few troops he had remaining, upon a rising ground near the city: from whence he sent orders to his galleys to engage the enemy. There he waited to be a spectator of the combat; and, at first, he had the satisfaction to see them advance in good order: but his approbation was soon turned into rage, when he saw his ships only saluting those of Octavianus, and both fleets uniting together and sailing back to the harbour. At the very same time his cavalry deserted him. He tried, however, to lead on his infantry; which were easily vanquished, and he himself compelled to return into the town. His anger was now ungovernable; he could not help crying out aloud as he passed, that he

Rome. he was betrayed by Cleopatra, and delivered by her to those, who, for her sake alone, were his enemies. In these suspicions he was not deceived; for it was by secret orders from the queen that the fleet had passed over to the enemy.

Cleopatra had, for a long while, dreaded the effects of Antony's jealousy; and had, some time before, prepared a method of obviating any sudden sallies it might produce. Near the temple of Isis she had erected a building, which was seemingly designed for a sepulchre. Hither she removed all her treasure, and most valuable effects; covering them over with torches, faggots, and other combustible matter. This sepulchre she designed to answer a double purpose; as well to screen her from the sudden resentments of Antony, as to make Octavianus believe that she would burn all her treasures, in case he refused her proper terms of capitulation. Here, therefore, she retired from Antony's present fury; shutting the gates, which were fortified with bolts and bars of iron: but in the mean time gave orders that a report should be spread of her death. This news, which soon reached Antony, recalled all his former love and tenderness. He now lamented her death with the same violence he had but a few minutes before seemed to desire it; and called one of his freedmen, named *Eros*, whom he had engaged by oath to kill him whenever fortune should drive him to this last resource. Eros being now commanded to perform his promise, this faithful follower drew the sword, as if going to execute his orders; but turning his face, plunged it into his own bosom, and died at his master's feet. Antony for a while hung over his faithful servant, and, commending his fidelity, took up the sword, with which stabbing himself in the belly, he fell backward upon a little couch. Though the wound was mortal, yet the blood stopping, he recovered his spirits, and earnestly conjured those who were come into the room to put an end to his life; but they all fled, being seized with fright and horror. He therefore continued in agonies for some time; till he was informed by one of the queen's secretaries that his mistress was still alive. He then earnestly desired to be carried to the place where she was. They accordingly brought him to the gate of the sepulchre; but Cleopatra, who would not permit it to be opened, appeared at the window, and threw down cords in order to pull him up. In this manner, assisted by her two female attendants, she raised him all bloody from the ground; and while yet suspended in the air, he continued stretching out his hands to encourage her. Cleopatra and her maids had only just strength sufficient to raise him; and at last, with much straining, they affected their purpose, and carried him to a couch, on which they gently laid him. Here she gave way to her sorrow, tearing her clothes, beating her breast, and kissing the wound of which he was dying. She called upon him as her lord, her husband, her emperor, and seemed to have forgot her own distresses in the greatness of his sufferings. Antony entreated her to moderate the transports of her grief, and asked for some wine. After he had drank he intreated Cleopatra to endeavour to preserve her life, if she could do it with honour; and recommended Proculus, a friend of Octavianus, as one she might rely on to be her intercessor. Just as he had done speaking, he expired; and Proculus made his appearance by command of Octavianus, who had been informed of Antony's desperate conduct. He was sent to try all means of getting Cleopatra into his power; his master having a double motive for his solicitude on this occasion: one, to prevent her destroying the treasures she had taken with her into the tomb; the other, to preserve her person as an ornament to grace his triumph. Cleopatra, however, was upon her guard, and would not confer with Proculus, except through the gate, which was well secured. In the mean time, while he designedly drew out the conference to some length, and had given Gallus, one of his fellow-soldiers, directions to carry on the conversation in his absence, he entered with two more by the window at which Antony had been drawn up. As soon as he was entered, he ran down to the gate; and one of the women crying out, that they were taken alive, Cleopatra, perceiving what had happened, drew a poniard, and attempted to stab herself; but Proculus prevented the blow, gently remonstrated that she was cruel in refusing so good a prince as his master was the pleasure of displaying his clemency. He then forced the poniard out of her hand, and examined her clothes to be certain she had no poison about her. Thus leaving every thing secured, he went to acquaint his master with his proceedings.

249 Stabs himself with his sword.

250 She dies.

251 Cleopatra taken.

Octavianus was extremely pleased at finding her in his power: he sent Epaphroditus to bring her to his palace, and to watch her with the utmost circumspection. He was likewise ordered to use her, in every respect, with that deference and submission which were due to her rank, and to do every thing in his power to render her captivity agreeable. She was permitted to have the honour of granting Antony the rites of burial, and furnished with every thing she desired, that was becoming his dignity to receive, or her love to offer. Yet still she languished under her new confinement. Her excessive sorrow, her many losses, and the blows she had given her bosom, produced a fever which she seemed willing to increase. She resolved to abstain from taking any nourishment, under the pretence of a regimen necessary for her disorder; but, Octavianus being made acquainted with the real motive, by her physician, began to threaten her, with regard to her children, in case she persisted. This was the only punishment that could now affect her; she allowed herself to be treated as they thought proper, and received whatever was prescribed for her recovery.

In the mean time Octavianus made his entry into Alexandria; taking care to mitigate the fears of the inhabitants, by conversing familiarly as he went along with Areus, a philosopher, and a native of the place. The citizens, however, trembled at his approach; and when he placed himself upon the tribunal, they prostrated themselves, with their faces to the ground, before him, like criminals who waited the sentence of their execution. Octavianus presently ordered them to rise; telling them, that three motives induced him to pardon them: His respect for Alexander, who was the founder of their city; his admiration of its beauty; and his friendship for Areus, their fellow citizen. Two only of particular note were put to death upon this occasion; Antony's eldest son Antyllus, and Cæsario the son of Julius Cæsar; both betrayed into his hands by

Rome.

by their respective tutors, who themselves suffered for their perfidy shortly after. As for the rest of Cleopatra's children, he treated them with great gentleness, leaving them to the care of those who were intrusted with their education, who had orders to provide them with every thing suitable to their birth. When she was recovered from her late indisposition, he came to visit her in person. Cleopatra had been preparing for this interview, and made use of every method she could think of, to propitiate the conqueror, and to gain his affection; but in vain. However, at his departure, Octavianus imagined that he had reconciled her to life, and to the indignity of being shown in the intended triumph, which he was preparing for his return to Rome: but in this he was deceived. Cleopatra, all this time, had kept a correspondence with Dollabella, a young Roman of high birth, in the camp of Octavianus; who, perhaps, from compassion or stronger motives, was interested in the misfortunes of that princess. From him she learnt the intentions of Octavianus, and that he was determined to send her off in three days, together with her children, to Rome. She now therefore determined upon dying; but previously intreated permission to pay her oblations at Antony's tomb. This request being granted her, she was carried with her two female attendants to the stately monument where he was laid. There she threw herself upon his coffin, bewailed her captivity, and renewed her protestations not to survive him. She then crowned the tomb with garlands of flowers; and having kissed the coffin a thousand times, she returned home, to execute her fatal resolution. Having bathed, and ordered a sumptuous banquet, she attired herself in the most splendid manner. She then feasted as usual; and soon after ordered all but her two attendants, Charmion and Iras, to leave the room. Then, having previously ordered an asp to be secretly conveyed to her in a basket of fruit, she sent a letter to Octavianus, informing
252 Her death. him of her fatal purpose, and desiring to be buried in the same tomb with Antony. Octavianus, upon receiving this letter, instantly dispatched messengers to prevent her, but they arrived too late. Upon entering the chamber, they beheld Cleopatra lying dead upon a gilded couch, arrayed in her royal robes. Near her, Iras, one of her faithful attendants, was stretched lifeless at the feet of her mistress; and Charmion herself, almost expiring, was settling the diadem upon Cleopatra's head. She died at the age of thirty-nine, after having reigned twenty-two years. Her death put an end to the monarchy in Egypt, which had flourished there for immemorial ages.

Octavianus seemed much troubled at Cleopatra's death, as it deprived him of a principal ornament in his intended triumph. However, the manner of it a good deal exalted her character among the Romans, with whom suicide was considered as a virtue. Her dying request was complied with, her body being laid by Antony's, and a magnificent funeral prepared for her and her two faithful attendants.

After having settled the affairs of Egypt, he left Alexandria in the beginning of September, of the present year of Rome 720, with a design to return through Syria, Asia Minor, and Greece, to Italy. On his arrival at Antioch, he found there Tiridates, who had been raised to the throne of Parthia in opposition to Phrahates, and likewise ambassadors from Phrahates, who were all come on the same errand; to wit, to solicit the assistance of the Romans against each other. Octavianus gave a friendly answer both to Tiridates and the ambassadors of Phrahates, without intending to help either; but rather with a design to animate the one against the other, and by that means to weaken both, so far as to render the Parthian name no longer formidable to Rome. After this, having appointed Messala Corvinus governor of Syria, he marched into the province of Asia properly so called, and there took up his winter-quarters. He spent the whole winter in settling the affairs of the several provinces of Asia Minor and the adjacent islands; and early in the spring passed into Greece, whence he set out for Rome, which he entered in the month Sextilis, afterwards called *August*, in three triumphs, which were celebrated for three days together.

253 Octavianus has thoughts of resigning his power.

And now Octavianus was at the height of his wishes, sole sovereign, sole master, of the whole Roman empire. But, on the other hand, the many dangers which attend an usurped power, appearing to him in a stronger light than ever, filled his mind with a thousand perplexing thoughts. The natural aversion of the Romans to a kingly government, their love of liberty, and the ides of March, when his father Julius was murdered in full senate by those very men whom he thought the most devoted to his person, made him fear there might arise another Brutus, who, to restore liberty to his country, might assassinate him on his very throne. This he knew had happened to Julius Cæsar; whereas Sylla, after having laid down the authority he had usurped, died peaceably in his bed in the midst of his enemies. The passion of fear outweighed in his soul the charms of a diadem, and inclined him to follow the example of Sylla. He was indeed very unwilling to part with his authority; but fear began to get the better of his ambition. However, before he came to any resolution, he thought it advisable to consult his two most intimate and trusty friends, Agrippa and Mæcenas; the former no less famous for his probity than his valour; and the latter a man of great penetration, and generally esteemed the most refined politician of his age. Agrippa enlarged on the many and almost inevitable dangers which attend monarchy, insupportable to a free people, and to men educated in a commonwealth. He did not forget the examples of Sylla and Cæsar; and closed his speech with exhorting Octavianus to convince the world, by restoring liberty to his country, that the only motive for his taking up arms was to revenge his father's death.

254 But is dissuaded from it by Mæcenas.

Mæcenas, on the other hand, remonstrated to him, that he had done too much to go back; that, after so much bloodshed, there could be no safety for him but on the throne; that, if he divested himself of the sovereign power, he would be immediately prosecuted by the children and friends of the many illustrious persons whom the misfortunes of the times had forced him to sacrifice to his safety; that it was absolutely necessary for the welfare and tranquillity of the republic, that the sovereign power should be lodged in one person, not divided among many, &c. Octavianus thanked them both for their friendly advice, but shewed himself inclined to follow the opinion of Mæ-

Rome. Mæcenas; whereupon that able minister gave him many wise instructions and rules of goverment, which are related at length by Dio Cassius, and will ever be looked upon as a masterpiece in politics. Among other things he told him, That he could not fail of being successful in all his undertakings, happy in his lifetime, and famous in history after his death, if he never deviated from this rule; to wit, To govern others as he would wish to be governed himself, had he been born to obey and not to command. He added, That if, in taking upon him the sovereign power, he dreaded the name of king, a name so odious in a commonwealth, he might content himself with the title of *Cæsar* or *Imperator*, and under that name, which was well known to the Romans, enjoy all the authority of a king.

This advice Octavianus followed, and from that time laid aside all thoughts of abdicating the sovereign power; but, to deceive the people into a belief that they still enjoyed their ancient government, he continued the old magistrates, with the same name, pomp, and ornaments, but with just as much power as he thought fit to leave them. They were to have no military power, but only their old jurisdiction of deciding finally all causes, except such as were capital; and though some of these last were left to the governor of Rome, yet the chief he reserved for himself. He paid great court to the people: the very name that covered his usurpation was a compliment to them; for he affected to call it the power of the tribuneship, though he acted as absolutely by it as if he had called it the dictatorial power. He likewise won the hearts of the populace by cheapness of provisions and plentiful markets; he frequently entertained them with shews and sports; and by these means kept them in good-humour, and made them forget usurpation, slavery, and every public evil; people in ease and plenty being under no temptation of inquiring into the title of their prince, or resenting acts of power which they do not immediately feel.

As for the senate, he filled it with his own creatures, raising the number of the conscript fathers to a 1000. He supplied several poor senators with money out of the treasury to discharge the public offices, and on all occasions affected an high regard for that venerable body; but at the same time divested them of all power, and reduced them to mere cyphers. To prevent them from raising new disturbances in the distant provinces, he issued an edict, forbidding any senator to travel out of Italy without leave, except such as had lands in Sicily, or Narbonne Gaul, which at that time comprehended Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiny. To these provinces, which were near Italy, and in a perfect state of tranquillity, they had full liberty to retire when they pleased, and live there upon their estates. Before he ended his sixth consulship, he took a census of the people, which was 41 years after the last; and in this the number of the men fit to bear arms amounted to 463,000, the greatest that had ever been found before. He likewise celebrated the games which had been decreed by the senate for his victory at Actium; and it was ordered, that they should be celebrated every fifth year, four colleges of priests being appointed to take care of them; to wit, the pontifices, the augurs, the septemvirs, and quindecimvirs. The more to gain the affections of the people, he annulled, by one edict, the many severe and unjust laws which had been enacted during the triumvirate. He raised many public buildings, repaired the old ones, and added many stately ornaments to the city, which at this time was, if we may give credit to some ancient writers, about 50 miles in compass, and contained near four millions of souls, reckoning men, women, children and slaves. He attended business, reformed abuses, showed great regard for the Roman name, procured public abundance, pleasure, and jollity, often appearing in person at the public diversions, and in all things studying to render himself dear to the populace.

And now Octavianus, entering upon his seventh consulship with M. Agrippa, the third time consul, and finding all things ripe for his design, the people being highly pleased with his mild government, and the senate filled with his creatures, whose fortunes depended upon his holding the power he had usurped, went, by the advice of Agrippa and Mæcenas, to the senate-house; and there, in a studied speech, offered to resign his authority, and put all again into the hands of the people upon the old foundation of the commonwealth; being well apprised, that the greater part of the conscript fathers, whose interests were interwoven with his, would unanimously press him to the contrary: Which happened accordingly; for they not only interrupted him while he was speaking, but, after he had done, unanimously besought him to take upon himself alone the whole government of the Roman empire. He, with a seeming reluctance, yielded at last to their request, as if he had been compelled to accept of the sovereignty. By this artifice he compassed his design, which was, to get the power and authority, which he had usurped, confirmed to him by the senate and people for the space of 10 years: for he would not accept of it for a longer term, pretending he should, in that time, be able to settle all things in such peace and order, that there would be no further need of his authority; but that he might then ease himself of the burden, and put the government again into the hands of the senate and people. This method he took to render the yoke less heavy; but with a design to renew his lease, if we may be allowed the expression, as soon as the ten years were expired; which he did accordingly from ten years to ten years as long as he lived, all the while governing the whole Roman empire with an absolute and uncontrouled power. With this new authority the senate resolved to distinguish him with a new name. Some of the conscript fathers proposed the name of *Romulus*, thereby to import that he was another founder of Rome; others offered other titles; but the venerable name of *Augustus*, proposed by Manutius Plancus, seemed preferable to all the rest, as it expressed more dignity and reverence than authority, the most sacred things, such as temples, and places consecrated by augurs, being termed by the Romans *Augusta*. Octavianus himself was inclined to assume the name of *Romulus*; but, fearing he should be suspected of affecting the kingdom, he declined it, and took that of *Augustus*, by which we shall henceforth distinguish him.

255 The senate intreat him to accept the sovereignty.

256 He takes the title of Augustus.

Though the whole power of the senate and people was now vested in Augustus, yet, that he might seem

Rome. to share it with the conscript fathers, he refused to govern all the provinces; assigning to the senate such as were quiet and peaceable; and keeping to himself those which, bordering upon barbarous nations, were most exposed to troubles and wars, saying, He desired the fathers might enjoy their power with ease and safety, while he underwent all the dangers and labours: but, by this politic conduct, he secured all the military power to himself; the troops lying in the provinces he had chosen; and the others, which were governed by the senate, being quite destitute of forces. The latter were called *senatorial*, and the former *imperial provinces*. Over the provinces of both sorts were set men of distinction, to wit, such as had been consuls or prætors, with the titles of *proconsul* and *proprætor*; but the government of Egypt was committed to a private knight, Augustus fearing lest a person of rank, depending upon the wealth and situation of that country, might raise new disturbances in the empire. All these governors held their employment only for a year, and were, upon the arrival of their successors, to depart their provinces immediately, and not fail to be at Rome within three months at the farthest. This division of the provinces was made, according to Ovid, on the ides of January; whereas he was vested by the senate and people, with the sovereign power on the seventh of the ides of the same month, as is manifest from the Norbonne marbles; and from that time many writers date the years of his empire. Thus ended the greatest commonwealth, and at the same time began the greatest monarchy, that had ever been known; a monarchy, which infinitely excelled in power, riches, extent, and continuance, all the empires which had preceded it.

257 Extent, &c. of the Roman empire.

It comprehended the greatest and by far the best part of Europe, Asia, and Africa, being near 4000 miles in length, and about half as much in breadth. As to the yearly revenues of the empire, they have, by a moderate computation, been reckoned to amount to forty millions of our money. But the Romans themselves now ran headlong into all manner of luxury and effeminacy. The people were become a mere mob; those who were wont to direct mighty wars, to raise and depose great kings, to bestow or take away potent empires, were so sunk and debauched, that, if they had but bread and shows, their ambition went no higher. The nobility were indeed more polite than in former ages; but at the same time, idle, venal, vicious, insensible of private virtue, utter strangers to public glory or disgrace, void of zeal for the welfare of their country, and solely intent on gaining the favour of the emperor, as knowing, that certain wealth and preferment were the rewards of ready submission, acquiescence, and flattery. No wonder, therefore, that they lost their liberty, without being ever again able to retrieve it.

258 Military establishments of Augustus.

Augustus, now absolute master of the Roman empire, took all methods to ingratiate himself with his soldiers, by whose means he had attained such a height of power. With this view, he dispersed them through different parts of Italy in 32 colonies, that he might the more easily reassemble them on proper occasions. He kept 25 legions constantly on foot, 17 of which were in Europe; viz. eight on the Rhine, four on the Danube, three in Spain, and two in Dalmatia. The other eight were sent into Asia and Africa; four of them being quartered in the neighbourhood of the Euphrates, two in Egypt, and two in Africa Propria, that is, the ancient dominions of Carthage. All these forces, amounting to 170,650 men, were constantly kept on foot by the Roman emperors for several ages. In the neighbourhood of Rome were always quartered 12 cohorts, that is, about 10,000 men; nine of which which were called *prætorian cohorts*; the other three, *city cohorts*. These were established as a guard to the emperor, and to maintain peace and tranquillity in the city, but had often a great share in the disturbances which took place throughout the empire. Besides these, Augustus constantly kept at sea two powerful navies; the one riding at anchor near Ravenna in the Adriatic sea, to command Dalmatia, Greece, Cyprus, and the rest of the eastern provinces; the other at Misenum in the Mediterranean, to keep in awe the western parts of the empire. They were likewise to keep the seas clear of pirates, to convoy the vessels which brought to Rome the annual tributes from the provinces beyond sea, and to transport corn and other provisions necessary for the relief and subsistence of the city. As to the civil government, Augustus enacted several new laws, and reformed some of the old ones: however, he affected to do nothing without the advice of the senate; who were so well pleased with the complaisance shewed them on all occasions, that to the rest of his titles they added that of *pater patriæ*, or *father of his country*.

And now, Augustus, having settled all things with regard to the civil and military establishments of the empire, turned his arms against the Spanish nations called the *Cantabrians* and *Asturians*, who had never been fully subdued. The war, however, terminated, as usual, in favour of the Romans; and these brave nations were forced to receive the yoke, though not without the most violent resistance on their part, and the utmost difficulty on that of the Romans *. By this and his other conquests, the name of Augustus became so celebrated, that his friendship was courted by the most distant monarchs. Phrahates king of Parthia consented to a treaty with him upon his own terms, and gave him four of his own sons with their wives and children as hostages for the performance of the articles; and as a further instance of his respect, he delivered up the Roman eagles and other ensigns which had been taken from Crassus at the battle of Carrhæ. He received also an embassy from the king of India, with a letter written in the Greek tongue, in which the Indian monarch informed him, that "though he reigned over 600 kings, he had so great a value for the friendship of Augustus, that he had sent this embassy on so long a journey on purpose to desire it of him; that he was ready to meet him at whatsoever place he pleased to appoint; and that, upon the first notice, he was ready to assist him in whatever was right." This letter he subscribed by the name of *Porus king of India*. Of the ambassadors who set out from India three only reached the presence of Augustus, who was at that time in the island of Samos, the others dying by the way. Of the three survivors one was named *Zarmar*, a gymnosophist, who followed the emperor to Athens, and there burnt himself in his presence; it being customary for the gymnosophists to put

* See *Asturi*

259 His friendship courted by the kings of Parthia and India.

Rome. put an end to their lives in this manner, when they thought they had lived long enough, or apprehended some misfortune. Soon after this the Roman dominions were extended southward over the Garamantes, a people whose country reached as far as the river Niger. All this time the emperor continued to make new regulations for the good of the state; and among other things caused the Sibylline oracles to be reviewed. Many of these he rejected; but such as were reckoned authentic, he caused to be copied by the pontifices themselves, and lodged them in golden cabinets, which he placed in the temple of Apollo, built by him in his own palace.

260 The empire invaded by the northern barbarians.

The Roman empire had now extended itself so far, that it seemed to have arrived at the limits prescribed to it by nature; and as soon as this was the case, it began to be attacked by those nations which in process of time were to overthrow it. The Germans, by which name the Romans confounded a great number of nations dwelling in the northern parts of Europe, began to make incursions into Gaul. Their first attempt happened in the year 17 B. C. when they at first gained an inconsiderable advantage, but were soon driven back with great loss. Soon after this the Rhæti, who seem to have inhabited the country bordering on the lake of Constance, invaded Italy, where they committed dreadful devastations, putting all the males to the sword without distinction of rank or age: nay, we are told, that, when women with child happened to fall into their hands, they consulted their augurs whether the child was male or female; and if they pronounced it a male, the mother was immediately massacred. Against these barbarians Augustus sent Drusus the second son of the empress Livia; who, tho' very young, found means to gain a complete victory with very little loss on his part. Those who escaped took the road to Gaul, being joined by the Vindelici another nation in the neighbourhood; but Tiberius, the elder brother of Drusus, marched against them, and overthrew them so completely, that the Rhæti, Vindelici, and Norici, three of the most barbarous nations in those parts, were fain to submit to the pleasure of the emperor. To keep their country in awe, Tiberius planted two colonies in Vindelicia, opening a road from thence into Noricum and Rhætia. One of the cities which he built for the defence of his colonies was called *Drysomagus*; the other, *Augusta Vindelicorum*; both of which are now known by the names of *Nimmighen* and *Augsburg*.

261 Augustus created pontifex maximus.

Augustus, who had long since obtained all the temporal honours which could well be conferred upon him, now began to assume those of the spiritual kind also; being in the year 13 B. C. created Pontifex Maximus: an office which he continued to hold till his death; as did also his successors till the time of Theodosius. By virtue of this office he corrected a very gross mistake in the Roman calendar; for the pontifices having, for the space of 36 years, that is, ever since the reformation by Julius Cæsar, made every third year a leap-year, instead of every fourth, twelve days had been inserted instead of nine, so that the Roman year consisted of three days more than it ought to have done. These three superfluous days having been thrown out, the form of the year has ever since been regularly observed, and is still known by the name of the *old style* in use among us. On this occasion he gave his own name to the month of August, as Julius Cæsar had formerly done to the month of July.

In the year 11 B. C. Agrippa died, and was succeeded in his high employment of governor of Rome by Tiberius; but, before investing him with this ample power, the emperor caused him divorce his wife Agrippina (who had already brought him a son, and was then big with child), in order to marry Julia the widow of Agrippa and daughter of the emperor. Julia was a princess of an infamous character, as was known to almost every body excepting Augustus himself; however, Tiberius made no hesitation, thro' fear of disobliging the emperor. 262 Tiberius succeeds Agrippa.

The emperor now sent his two sons Tiberius and Drusus against the northern nations. Tiberius reduced the Pannonians, who had attempted to shake off the yoke after the death of Agrippa. Drusus performed great exploits in Germany; but while he was considering whether he should penetrate further into these northern countries, he was seized with a violent fever, which carried him off in a few days. He was succeeded in his command by Tiberius, who is reported to have done great things, but certainly made no permanent conquests in Germany. However, he was honoured with a triumph, and had the tribunitial power for five years conferred upon him; which was no sooner done, than, to the great surprise of Augustus and the whole city, he desired leave to quit Rome and retire to Rhodes. Various reasons have been assigned for this extraordinary resolution: some are of opinion that it was in order to avoid being an eye-witness of the debaucheries of his wife Julia, who set no bounds to her lewdness; though others imagine that he was offended at the honours which Augustus had conferred on his grandchildren, especially at his styling them *princes of the Roman youth*; which left him no hopes of enjoying the sovereign power. However, Augustus positively refused to comply with his request, and his mother Livia used her utmost endeavours to dissuade him from his resolution: but Tiberius continued obstinate; and finding all other means ineffectual, at last shut himself up in his house, where he abstained four whole days from nourishment. Augustus, perceiving that he could not get the better of his obstinate and inflexible temper, at last complied with his request. Tiberius soon grew weary of his retirement, and, giving out that he had left Rome only to avoid giving umbrage to the emperor's two grandchildren, desired leave to return; but Augustus was so much displeased with his having obstinately insisted on leaving Rome, that he obliged him to remain at Rhodes for seven years longer. His mother, with much ado got him declared the emperor's lieutenant in those parts; but Tiberius, dreading the resentment of his father-in-law, continued to act as a private person during the whole time of his stay there. 263 Defires leave to retire to Rhodes. 264 Is confined there by Augustus for seven years.

A profound peace now reigned throughout the whole empire; and in consequence of this the temple of Janus was shut, which had never before happened since the time of Numa Pompilius. During this pacific interval, the Saviour of mankind was born in Judæa

Rome.

dæa, as is recorded in the sacred history, 748 years after the foundation of Rome by Romulus. Three years after, Tiberius returned to the city, by permission of Augustus, who yet would not allow him to bear any public office; but in a short time, Lucius Cæsar, one of the emperor's grandchildren, died, not without suspicions of his being poisoned by Livia. Tiberius showed such great concern for his death, that the affection of Augustus for him returned; and it is said that he would at that time have adopted Tiberius, had it not been for giving umbrage to his other grandson Caius Cæsar. This obstacle, however, was soon after removed; Caius being taken off also, not without great suspicions of Livia, as well as in the former case. Augustus was exceedingly concerned at his death, and immediately adopted Tiberius as his son; but adopted also Agrippa Posthumius, the third son of the famous Agrippa; and obliged Tiberius to adopt Germanicus, the son of his brother Drusus, though he had a son of his own named *Drusus*; which was a great mortification to him. As to Agrippa, however, who might have been an occasion of jealousy, Tiberius was soon freed from him, by his disgrace and banishment, which very soon took place, but on what account is not known.

265 Birth of Christ.

266 Augustus adopts Tiberius as his son.

The northern nations now began to turn formidable: and though it is pretended that Tiberius was always successful against them, yet about this time they gave the Romans a most terrible overthrow; three legions and six cohorts, under Quintilius Varus, being almost entirely cut in pieces. Augustus set no bounds to his grief on this fatal occasion. For some months he let his hair and beard grow, frequently tearing his garments, knocking his head against the wall, and crying out like a distracted person, "Restore the legions, Varus!" Tiberius, however, was soon after sent into Germany; and for his exploits there he was honoured with a triumph; Augustus now took him for his colleague in the sovereignty; after which he sent Germanicus against the northern barbarians, and Tiberius into Illyricum. This was the last of his public acts; for having accompanied Tiberius for part of his journey, he died at Nola in Campania, in the 76th year of his age, and 56th of his reign. Livia was suspected of having hastened his death by giving him poisoned figs. Her reason for this was, that she feared a reconciliation between him and his grandson Agrippa whom he had banished, as we have already related. Some months before, the emperor had paid a visit to Agrippa, unknown to Livia, Tiberius, or any other person, excepting one Fabius Maximus. This man, on his return home, discovered the secret to his wife, and she to the empress. Augustus then perceiving that Fabius had betrayed him, was so provoked, that he banished him from his presence for ever; upon which the unfortunate Fabius, unable to survive his disgrace, laid violent hands on himself.

267 Death of Augustus.

Tiberius, who succeeded to the empire, resolved to secure himself on the throne by the murder of Agrippa; whom accordingly he caused to be put to death by a military tribune. Though this might have been a sufficient evidence of what the Romans had to expect, the death of Augustus was no sooner known, than the consuls, senators, and knights, to use the expression of Tacitus, ran headlong into slavery. The two consuls first took an oath of fidelity to the emperor, and then administered it to the senate, the people, and the soldiery. Tiberius behaved in a dark mysterious manner, taking care to rule with an absolute sway, but at the same time seeming to hesitate whether he should accept the sovereign power or not; insomuch that one of the senators took the liberty to tell him, that other men were slow in performing what they had promised, but he was slow in promising what he had already performed. At last, however, his modesty was overcome, and he declared his acceptance of the sovereignty in the following words: "I accept the empire, and will hold it, till such time as you, conscript fathers, in your great prudence, shall think proper to give repose to my old age."

268 Dissimulation of Tiberius.

Tiberius had scarce taken possession of the throne, when news were brought him that the armies in Pannonia and Germany had mutinied. In Pannonia, three legions having been allowed some days of relaxation from their usual duties, either to mourn for the death of Augustus, or to rejoice for the accession of Tiberius, grew turbulent and seditious. The Pannonian mutineers were headed by one Percennius, a common soldier; who, before he served in the army, had made it his whole business to form parties in the theatres and playhouses, to hiss or applaud such actors as he liked or disliked. Inflamed by the speeches of this man, they openly revolted; and though Tiberius himself wrote to them, and sent his son Drusus to endeavour to quell the tumult, they massacred some of their officers, and insulted others, till at last, being frightened by an eclipse of the moon, they began to show some signs of repentance. Of this favourable disposition Drusus took advantage; and even got the ringleaders of the revolt condemned and executed. Immediately after this they were again terrified by such violent storms and dreadful rains, that they quietly submitted, and every thing in that quarter was restored to tranquillity.

269 Revolt of the Pannonian and German legions.

The revolt of the German legions threatened much more danger, as they were more numerous than those of Pannonia. They proceeded nearly in the same way as the Pannonian legions, falling upon their officers, especially the centurions, and, beating them till they were almost expired, drove them out of the camp, and some of them were even thrown into the Rhine. Germanicus, who was at that time in Gaul, hastened to the camp on the first news of the disturbance; but being unable to prevail on them to return to their duty, he was obliged to feign letters from Tiberius, granting all their demands. These were, That all those who had served 20 years should be discharged; that such as had served 16 should be deemed veterans; and that some legacies which had been left them by Augustus should not only be paid immediately, but doubled. This last article he was obliged to discharge without delay, out of the money which he and his friends had brought to defray the expences of their journey; and on receiving it, the troops quietly retired to their winter-quarters. But in the mean time some deputies sent either by Tiberius or the senate, probably to quell the sedition, occasioned fresh disturbances; for the legionaries, taking it into their heads that these deputies were come to revoke the concessions which Germanicus had made, were with difficulty prevented from

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from tearing them in pieces; and, notwithstanding the utmost endeavours of Germanicus, behaved in such an outrageous manner, that the general thought proper to send off his wife Agrippina, with her infant son Claudius, she herself at the same time being big with child. As she was attended by many women of distinction, wives of the chief officers in the camp, their tears and lamentations in parting with their husbands occasioned a great uproar, and drew together the soldiers from all quarters. A new scene ensued, which made an impression even upon the most obstinate. They could not behold, without shame and compassion, so many women of rank travelling thus forlorn, without a centurion to attend them, or a soldier to guard them; and their general's wife among the rest, carrying her infant child in her arms, and preparing to fly for shelter against the treachery of the Roman legions. This made such a deep impression on the minds of many of them, that some ran to stop her, while the rest recurred to Germanicus, earnestly intreating him to recall his wife, and to prevent her from being obliged to seek a sanctuary among foreigners. The general improved this favourable disposition, and in a short time they of their own accord seized and massacred the ringleaders of the revolt. Still, however, two of the legions continued in their disobedience. Against them therefore Germanicus determined to lead those who had returned to their duty. With this view he prepared vessels; but before he embarked his troops, he wrote a letter to Cæcina who commanded them, acquainting him that he approached with a powerful army, resolved to put them all to the sword without distinction, if they did not prevent him by taking vengeance on the guilty themselves. This letter Cæcina communicated only to the chief officers and such of the soldiers as had all along disapproved of the revolt, exhorting them at the same time to enter into an association against the seditious, and put to the sword such as had involved them in the present ignominy and guilt. This proposal was approved of, and a cruel massacre immediately took place; insomuch that when Germanicus came to the camp he found the greatest part of the legions destroyed. This greatly affected the humane Germanicus, who caused the bodies of the slain to be burnt, and celebrated their obsequies with the usual solemnities; however, the sedition was thus effectually quelled, after which he led his army into Germany. There he performed many great exploits *; but still, all that he could perform was far from freeing the empire from so dangerous and troublesome an enemy. In the year 19, he died, of poison, as was supposed, given by Piso, his partner in the government of Syria, to which Germanicus had been promoted after his return from the north.

270 The revolt quelled by a dreadful massacre.

* See *Germany*.

In the mean time Tiberius, though he affected to court the favour of the people by various methods, yet showed himself in general such a cruel and bloodthirsty tyrant, that he became the object of universal abhorrence. Though he had hated Germanicus in his heart, he punished Piso with death; but in about a year after the death of Germanicus, having now no object of jealousy to keep him in awe, he began to pull off the mask, and appear more in his natural character than before. He took upon himself the interpretation of all political measures, and began daily to diminish the authority of the senate; which design was much facilitated, by their own aptitude to slavery; so that he despised their meanness, while he enjoyed its effects. A law at that time subsisted, which made it treason to form any injurious attempt against the majesty of the people. Tiberius assumed to himself the interpretation and enforcement of this law; and extended it not only to the cases which really affected the safety of the state, but to every conjuncture that could possibly be favourable to his hatred or suspicions. All freedom was now therefore banished from convivial meetings, and diffidence reigned amongst the dearest relations. The law of offended majesty being revived, many persons of distinction fell a sacrifice to it.

271 Tiberius a cruel tyrant.

272 Rise of Sejanus a wicked minister.

In the beginning of these cruelties, Tiberius took into his confidence Sejanus, a Roman knight, but by birth a Volscian, who found out the method of gaining his confidence, by the most refined degree of dissimulation, being an over-match for his master in his own arts. He was made by the emperor captain of the Prætorian guards, one of the most confidental trusts in the state, and extolled in the senate as a worthy associate in his labours. The servile senators, with ready adulation, set up the statues of the favourite beside those of Tiberius, and seemed eager to pay him similar honours. It is not well known whether he was the adviser of all the cruelties that ensued soon after; but certain it is, that, from the beginning of his ministry, Tiberius seemed to become more fatally suspicious.

273 His infamous conduct.

It was from such humble beginnings, that this minister even ventured to aspire at the throne, and was resolved to make the emperor's foolish confidence one of the first steps to his ruin. However, he considered that cutting off Tiberius alone, would rather retard than promote his designs while his son Drusus and the children of Germanicus were yet remaining. He therefore began by corrupting Livia, the wife of Drusus; whom, after having debauched her, he prevailed upon to poison her husband. This was effected by means of a slow poison, (as we are told), which gave his death the appearance of a casual distemper. Tiberius, in the mean time, either naturally phlegmatic, or at least not much regarding his son, bore his death with great tranquillity. He was even heard to jest upon the occasion; for when the ambassadors from Troy came somewhat late with their complements of condolence, he answered their pretended distresses, by condoling with them also upon the loss of Hector.

Sejanus having succeeded in this, was resolved to make his next attempt upon the children of Germanicus, who were undoubted successors to the empire. However, he was frustrated in his designs, both with regard to the fidelity of their governors, and the chastity of Agrippina their mother. Whereupon he resolved upon changing his aims, and removing Tiberius out of the city; by which means he expected more frequent opportunities of puting his designs into execution. He therefore used all his address to persuade Tiberius to retire to some agreeable retreat, remote from Rome. By this he expected many advantages, since there could be no access to the emperor but by him. Thus all letters being conveyed to the prince by

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soldiers at his own devotion, they would pass through his hands; by which means he must in time become the sole governor of the empire, and at last be in a capacity of removing all obstacles to his ambition. He now therefore began to insinuate to Tiberius the great and numerous inconveniences of the city, the fatigues of attending the senate, and the seditious temper of the inferior citizens of Rome. Tiberius, either prevailed upon by his persuasions, or pursuing the natural turn of his temper which led to indolence and debauchery, in the twelth year of his reign left Rome, and went into Campania, under pretence of dedicating temples to Jupiter and Augustus. After this, though he removed to several places, he never returned to Rome; but spent the greatest part of his time in the island of Caprea, a place which was rendered as infamous by his pleasurers, as detestable by his cruelties, which were shocking to human nature. Buried in this retreat, he gave himself up to his pleasures, quite regardless of the miseries of his subjects. Thus an insurrection of the Jews, upon placing his statue in Jerusalem, under the government of Pontius Pilate, gave him no sort of uneasiness. The falling of an amphitheatre at Fidenæ, in which 50,000 persons were either killed or wounded, no way affected his repose. He was only employed in studying how to vary his odious pleasures, and forcing his feeble frame, shattered by age and former debaucheries, into the enjoyment of them. Nothing can present a more horrid picture than the retreat of this impure old man, attended by all the ministers of his perverted appetites. He was at this time sixty seven years old; his person was most displeasing; and some say the disagreeableness of it, in a great measure, drove him into retirement. He was quite bald before; his face was all broke out into ulcers, and covered over with plasters; his body was bowed forward, while its extreme height and leanness increased its deformity. With such a person, and a mind still more hideous, being gloomy, suspicious, and cruel, he sat down with a view rather of forcing his appetites than satisfying them. He spent whole nights in debaucheries at the table; and he appointed Pomponius Flaccus, and Lucius Piso, to the first posts of the empire, for no other merit than that of having sat up with him two days and two nights without interruption. These he called his friends of all hours. He made one Novelius Torgnatus a prætor, for being able to drink off five bottles of wine at a draught. His luxuries of another kind were still more detestable, and seemed to increase with his drunkness and gluttony. He made the most eminent women of Rome subservient to his lusts, and all his inventions only seemed calculated how to make his vices more extravagant and abominable. The numberless obscene medals dug up in that island at this day, bear witness at once to his shame, and the veracity of the historians who have described his debaucheries. In short, in this retreat, which was surrounded with rocks on every side, he quite gave up the business of the empire; or, if he was ever active, it was only to do mischief. But, from the time of his retreat, he became more cruel, and Sejanus always endeavoured to increase his distrusts. Secret spies and informers were placed in all parts of the city, who converted the most harmless actions into subjects of offence. If any person of merit testified any concern for the glory of the empire, it was immediately construed into a design to obtain it. If another spoke with regret of former liberty, he was supposed to aim at re-establishing the commonwealth. Every action became liable to forced interpretations; joy expressed an hope of the prince's death; melancholy, an envying of his prosperity. Sejanus found his aim every day succeeding; the wretched emperor's terrors were an instrument that he wrought upon at his pleasure, and by which he levelled every obstacle to his designs. But the chief objects of his jealousy were the children of Germanicus, whom he resolved to put out of the way. He therefore continued to render them obnoxious to the emperor, to alarm him with false reports of their ambition, and to terrify them with alarms of his intended cruelty. By these means, he so contrived to widen the breach, that he actually produced on both sides those dispositions which he pretended to obviate; till at length, the two princes Nero and Drusus were declared enemies to the state, and afterwards starved to death in prison; while Agrippina, their mother, was sent into banishment.

274 Tiberius retires from Rome.

275 His abominable conduct in his retreat.

276 The children of Germanicus put to death.

In this manner Sejanus proceeded, removing all who stood between him and the empire, and every day increasing in confidence with Tiberius, and power with the senate. The number of his statues exceeded even those of the emperor; people swore by his fortune, in the same manner as they would have done had he been actually upon the throne, and he was more dreaded than even the tyrant who actually enjoyed the empire. But the rapidity of his rise seemed only preparatory to the greatness of his downfall. All we know of his first disgrace with the emperor is, that Satrius Secundus was the man who had the boldness to accuse him. Antonia, the mother of Germanicus, seconded the accusation. What were the particulars of his crimes, we cannot learn; but certain it is, that he attempted to usurp the empire by aiming at the life of Tiberius. He was very near dispatching him, when his practices were discovered, and his own life was substituted to that against which he aimed. Tiberius, sensible of the traitor's power, proceeded with his usual dissimulation in having him apprehended. He granted him new honours at the very time he resolved his death, and took him as his colleague in the consulship. The emperor's letter to the senate began only with slight complaints against his friend, but ended with an order for putting him in prison. He intreated the senators to protect a poor old man, as he was, abandoned by all; and in the mean time prepared ships for his flight, and ordered soldiers for his security. The senate, who had long been jealous of the favourite's power, and dreaded his cruelty, immediately took this opportunity of going beyond their orders. Instead of sentencing him to imprisonment, they directed his execution. A strange revolution now appeared in the city; of those numbers that but a moment before were pressing into the presence of Sejanus, with offers of service and adulation, not one was found that would seem to be of his acquaintance: he was deserted by all; and those who had formerly received the greatest benefits from him, seemed now converted into his most inveterate enemies. As he was conducting to execution, the people loaded him with insult and execration. He attempted to hide his face with his

277 Sejanus disgraced, and put to death.

his hands; but even this was denied him, and his hands were secured. Nor did the rage of his enemies subside with his death; his body was ignominiously dragged about the ſtreets, and his whole family executed with him.

His death only lighted up the emperor's rage for further executions. The priſons were crowded with pretended accomplices in the conſpiracy of Sejanus. Tiberius began to grow weary of particular executions: he therefore gave orders, that all the accuſed ſhould be put to death together, without further examination. Of 20 ſenators, whom he choſe for his council, he put 16 to death. "Let them hate me," cried he, "ſo long as they obey me." He then averred, that Priam was an happy man, who outlived all his poſterity. In this manner there was not a day without ſome barbarous execution, in which the ſufferers were obliged to undergo the moſt ſhameful indignities and exquiſite torments. When one Camillus had killed himſelf to avoid the torture: "Ah," cried Tiberius, "how that man has been able to eſcape me!" When a priſoner earneſtly intreated that he would not defer his death: "No," cried the tyrant, "I am not ſufficiently your friend, to ſhorten your torment." He often ſatisfied his eyes with the tortures of the wretches that were put to death before him; and in the days of Suetonius the rock was to be ſeen, from whom he ordered ſuch as had diſpleaſed him to be thrown headlong. As he was one day examining ſome perſons upon the rack, he was told that an old friend of his was come from Rhodes to ſee him. Tiberius ſuppoſing him brought for the purpoſe of information, immediately ordered him to the torture; and when he was convinced of his miſtake, he ordered him to be put to death, to prevent farther diſcovery.

278 Monſtrous cruelty of Tiberius.

In this manner did the tyrant continue to torment others, although he was himſelf ſtill more tortured by his own ſuſpicions; ſo that in one of his letters to the ſenate, he confeſſed that the gods and goddeſſes had ſo afflicted and confounded him, that he knew not what or how to write. In the mean time the frontier provinces were invaded with impunity by the barbarians. Mæſia was ſeized on by the Dacians and Sarmations; Gaul was waſted by the Germans, and Armenia conquered by the king of Parthia. Tiberius, however, was ſo much a ſlave to his brutal appetites, that he left his provinces wholly to the care of his lieutenants, and they were intent rather on the accumulation of private fortune, than the ſafety of the ſtate. Such a total diſorder in the empire, produced ſuch a degree of anxiety in him who governed it, that he was heard to wiſh, that heaven and earth might periſh with him when he died. At length, however, in the 22d year of his reign, he began to feel the approaches of his diſſolution, and all his appetites totally to forſake him. He now, therefore, found it was time to think of a ſucceſſor, and heſitated for a long while, whether he ſhould chooſe Caligula, whoſe vices were too apparent to eſcape his obſervation. He had been often heard to ſay, that this youth had all the faults of Sylla, without his virtues; that he was a ſerpent that would ſting the empire, and a Phæton that would ſet the world in a flame. However, notwithſtanding all his well grounded apprehenſions, he named him for his ſucceſſor; willing, perhaps, by the enormity of Caligula's conduct, to cover the memory of his own.

279 Chooſes Caligula for his ſucceſſor.

But though he thought fit to chooſe a ſucceſſor, he concealed his approaching decline with the utmoſt care, as if he was willing at once to hide it from the world and himſelf. He long had a contempt for phyſic, and refuſed the advice of ſuch as attended him: he even ſeemed to take a pleaſure in being preſent at the ſports of the ſoldiers, and ventured himſelf to throw a javelin at a boar that was let looſe before him. The effort which he made upon this occaſion cauſed a pain in his ſide, which haſtened the approaches of death: ſtill, however, he ſeemed willing to avoid his end; and ſtrove, by change of place, to put off the inquietude of his own reflections. He left his favourite iſland, and went upon the continent, where he at laſt fixed at the promontory of Miſenum. It was here that Charicles, his phyſician, pretending to kiſs his hand, felt the failure of his pulſe; and appriſed Macro, the emperor's preſent favourite, that he had not above two days to live. Tiberius, on the contrary, who had perceived the art of Charicles, did all in his power to impreſs his attendants with an opinion of his health: he continued at table till the evening; he ſaluted all his gueſts as they left the room, and read the acts of the ſenate, in which they had abſolved ſome perſons he had written againſt with great indignation. He reſolved to take ſignal vengeance of their diſobedience, and meditated new ſchemes of cruelty, when he fell into ſuch faintings, as all believed were fatal. It was in this ſituation, that, by Macro's advice, Caligula prepared to ſecure the ſucceſſion. He received the congratulations of the whole court, cauſed himſelf to be acknowledged by the Prætorian ſoldiers, and went forth from the emperor's apartment amidſt the applauſes of the multitude; when all of a ſudden he was informed that the emperor was recovered, that he had begun to ſpeak, and deſired to eat. This unexpected account filled the whole court with terror and alarm: every one who had before been earneſt in teſtifying their joy, now re-aſſumed their pretended ſorrow, and left the new emperor, thro' a feigned ſolicitude for the fate of the old. Caligula himſelf ſeemed thunderſtruck; he preſerved a gloomy ſilence, expecting nothing but death, inſtead of the empire at which he had aſpired. Macro, however, who was hardened in crimes, ordered that the dying emperor ſhould be diſpatched, by ſmothering him with pillows, or, as others will have it, by poiſon. In this manner Tiberius died, in the 78th year of his age, after reigning 22.

280 Corruptions of the Romans at this time.

The Romans were, at this time, arrived at their higheſt pitch of effeminacy and vice. The wealth of almoſt every nation of the empire, having, for ſome time, circulated thro' the city, brought with it the luxuries peculiar to each country; ſo that Rome preſented a deteſtable picture of various pollution. In this reign lived Apicius, ſo well known for having reduced gluttony into a ſyſtem; ſome of the moſt notorious in this way, thought it no ſhame to give near 100 pounds for a ſingle fiſh, and exhauſt a fortune of 50,000 pounds in one entertainment. Debaucheries of every other kind kept pace with this; while the deteſtable folly of the times thought it was refining upon pleaſure to make it unnatural. There were at Rome men called *ſpintriæ*, whoſe ſole trade it was to ſtudy new modes of pleaſure; and theſe were univerſally favourites

Rome. rites of the great. The senators were long fallen from their authority, and were no less estranged from their integrity and honour. Their whole study seemed to be, how to invent new ways of flattering the emperor, and various methods of tormenting his supposed enemies. The people were still more corrupt: they had, for some years, been accustomed to live in idleness, upon the donations of the emperor; and, being satisfied with subsistence, entirely gave up their freedom. Too effeminate and cowardly to go to war, they only railed against their governors; so that they were bad soldiers and seditious citizens. In the 18th year of this monarch's reign, Christ was crucified. Shortly after his death, Pilate is said to have wrote to Tiberius an account of his passion, resurrection, and miracles; upon which the emperor made a report of the whole to the senate, desiring that Christ might be accounted a God by the Romans. But the senate being displeased that the proposal had not come first from themselves, refused to allow of his apotheosis; alleging an ancient law, which gave them the superintendance in all matters of religion. They even went so far, as by an edict to command that all Christians should leave the city: but Tiberius, by another edict, threatened death to all such as should accuse them; by which means they continued unmolested during the rest of his reign.

181 Christ crucified.

No monarch ever came to the throne with more advantages than Caligula. He was the son of Germanicus, who had been the darling of the army and the people. He was bred among the soldiers, from whom he received the name of *Caligula*, from the short buskin, called *caliga*, that was worn by the common centinels, and which was also usually worn by him. As he approached Rome, the principal men of the state went out in crowds to meet him. He received the congratulations of the people on every side, all equally pleased in being free from the cruelties of Tiberius, and in hoping new advantages from the virtues of his successor.

Caligula seemed to take every precaution to impress them with the opinion of an happy change. Amidst the rejoicings of the multitude, he advanced mourning, with the dead body of Tiberius, which the soldiers brought to be burnt at Rome, according to the custom of that time. Upon his entrance into the city, he was received with new titles of honour by the senate, whose chief employment seemed now to be, the art of increasing their emperor's vanity. He was left co-heir with Gemellus, grandson to Tiberius; but they set aside the nomination, and declared Caligula sole successor to the empire. The joy for this election was not confined to the narrow bounds of Italy; it spread through the whole empire, and victims without number were sacrificed upon the occasion. Some of the people, upon his going into the island of Campania, made vows for his return; and shortly after, when he fell sick, the multitudes crowded whole nights round his palace, and some even devoted themselves to death in case he recovered, setting up bills of their resolutions in the streets. In this affection of the citizens, strangers themselves seemed ambitious of sharing. Artabanus, king of Parthia, sought the emperor's alliance with assiduity. He came to a personal conference with one of his legates; passed the Euphrates, adored the Roman eagles, and kissed the emperor's images; so that the whole world seemed combined to praise him for virtues which they supposed him to possess. Rome.

182 Caligula begins to reign well.

The new emperor at first seemed extremely careful of the public favour; and having performed the funeral solemnities of Tiberius, he hastened to the islands of Pandataria and Pontia, to remove the ashes of his mother and brothers, exposing himself to the dangers of tempestuous weather, to give a lustre to his piety. Having brought them to Rome, he instituted annual solemnities in their honour, and ordered the month of September to be called *Germanicus*, in memory of his father. These ceremonies being over, he conferred the same honours upon his grandmother Antonia, which had before been given to Livia; and ordered all informations to be burnt, that any ways exposed the enemies of his family. He even refused a paper that was offered him, tending to the discovery of a conspiracy against him; alleging, That he was conscious of nothing to deserve any man's hatred, and therefore had no fears from their machinations. He caused the institutions of Augustus, which had been disused in the reign of Tiberius, to be revived; undertook to reform many abuses in the state, and severely punished corrupt governors. Among others, he banished Pontius Pilate into Gaul, where this unjust magistrate afterwards put an end to his life by suicide. He banished the spintriæ, or inventors of abominable recreations, from Rome; attempted to restore the ancient manner of electing magistrates by the suffrages of the people; and gave them a free jurisdiction, without any appeal to himself. Altho' the will of Tiberius was annulled by the senate, and that of Livia suppressed by Tiberius, yet he caused all their legacies to be punctually paid; and in order to make Gemellus amends for missing the crown, he caused him to be elected Princeps Juventutis, or principal of the youth. He restored some kings to their dominions who had been unjustly dispossessed by Tiberius, and gave them the arrears of their revenues. And, that he might appear an encourager of every virtue, he ordered a female slave a large sum of money for enduring the most exquisite torments without discovering the secrets of her master. So many concessions, and such apparent virtue, could not fail of receiving just applause. A shield of gold, bearing his image, was decreed to be carried annually to the Capitol, attended by the senate, and the sons of the nobility, singing in praise of the emperor's virtues. It was likewise ordained, that the day on which he was appointed to the empire should be called *Pubitia;* implying, that when he came to govern, the city received a new foundation.

183 But becomes a most outrageous tyrant.

In less than eight months all this shew of moderation and clemency vanished; while furious passions, unexampled avarice, and capricious cruelty, began to take their turn in his mind. As most of the cruelties of Tiberius arose from suspicion, so most of those committed by Caligula took rise from prodigality. Some indeed assert, that a disorder which happened soon after his accession to the empire, entirely discomposed his understanding. However this may be, madness itself could scarce dictate cruelties more extravagant, or inconsistencies more ridiculous than are imputed to him; some of them appear almost beyond belief, as they seem entirely without any motive to incite such barbarities.

The

Rome. The first object of his cruelty was a person named *Politus*, who had devoted himself to death, in case the emperor, who was then sick, should recover. When Caligula's health was re-established, he was informed of the zeal of Politus, and actually compelled him to complete his vow. This ridiculous devotee was therefore led round the city, by children, adorned with chaplets, and then put to death, being thrown headlong from the ramparts. Another, named *Secundus*, had vowed to fight in the amphitheatre upon the same occasion. To this he was also compelled, the emperor himself choosing to be a spectator of the combat. However, he was more fortunate than the former, being so successful as to kill his adversary, by which he obtained a release from his vow. Gemellus was the next who suffered from the tyrant's inhumanity. The pretence against him was, that he had wished the emperor might not recover, and that he had taken a counter-poison to secure him from any secret attempts against his life. Caligula ordered him to kill himself; but as the unfortunate youth was ignorant of the manner of doing it, the emperor's messengers soon instructed him in the fatal lesson. Silenus, the emperor's father-in-law, was the next that was put to death upon slight suspicions; and Gercinus, a senator of noted integrity, refusing to witness falsely against him, shared his fate. After these followed a crowd of victims to the emperor's avarice or suspicion. The pretext against him was their enmity to his family; and in proof of his accusations he produced those very memorials, which but a while before he pretended to have burnt. Among the number of those who were sacrificed to his jealousy, was Macro, the late favourite of Tiberius, and the person to whom Caligula owed his empire. He was accused of many crimes, some of which were common to the emperor as well as to him, and his death brought on the ruin of his whole family.

These cruelties, however, only seemed the first fruits of a mind naturally timid and suspicious: his vanity and profusion soon gave rise to others which were more atrocious, as they sprung from less powerful motives. His pride first began by assuming to himself the title of *ruler*, which was usually granted only to kings. He would also have taken the crown and diadem, had he not been advised that he was already superior to all the monarchs of the world. Not long after, he assumed divine honours, and gave himself the names of such divinities as he thought most agreeable to his nature. For this purpose he caused the heads of the statues of Jupiter and some other gods to be struck off, and his own to be put in their places. He frequently seated himself between Castor and Pollux, and ordered all who came to their temple to worship, should pay their adorations only to him; nay, at last he altered their temple to the form of a portico, which he joined to his palace, that the very gods, as he said, might serve him in the quality of porters.

He was not less notorious for the depravation of his appetites, than for his ridiculous presumptions. Neither person, place, nor sex, were obstacles to the indulgence of his unnatural lusts. There was scarce a lady of any quality in Rome that escaped his lewdness; and, indeed, such was the degeneracy of the times, that there were few ladies who did not think this disgrace an honour. He committed incest with his three sisters, and at public feasts they lay with their heads upon his bosom by turns. Of these he prostituted Livia and Agrippina to his vile companions, and then banished them as adulteresses and conspirators against his person. As for Drusilla, he took her from her husband Longinus, and kept her as his wife. Her he loved so affectionately, that, being sick, he appointed her as heiress of his empire and fortune; and she happening to die before him, he made her a goddess. Nor did her example when living, appear more dangerous to the people than her divinity, when dead. To mourn for her death was a crime, as she was become a goddess; and to rejoice for her divinity was capital, because she was dead. Nay, even silence itself was an unpardonable insensibility, either of the emperor's loss or his sister's advancement. Thus he made his sister subservient to his profit, as before he had done to his pleasure; raising vast sums of money by granting pardons to some, and by confiscating the goods of others. As to his marriages, whether he contracted them with greater levity, or dissolved them with greater injustice, is not easy to determine. Being present at the nuptials of Livia Orestilla with Piso, as soon as the solemnity was over, he commanded her to be brought to him as his own wife, and then dismissed her in a few days. He soon after banished her upon suspicion of cohabiting with her husband after she was parted from him. He was enamoured of Lollia Paulina, upon a bare relation of her grandmother's beauty; and thereupon took her from her husband, who commanded in Macedonia: notwithstanding which, he repudiated her as he had done the former, and likewise forbad her future marrying with any other. The wife who caught most firmly upon his affections was Milonia Cæsonia, whose chief merit lay in her perfect acquaintance with all the alluring arts of her sex, for she was otherwise possessed neither of youth nor beauty. She continued with him during his reign; and he loved her so ridiculously, that he sometimes showed her to his soldiers dressed in armour, and sometimes to his companions stark naked.

But of all his vices, his prodigality was the most remarkable, and that which in some measure gave rise to the rest. The luxuries of former emperors were simplicity itself, when compared to those which he practised. He contrived new ways of bathing, where the richest oils and most precious perfumes were exhausted with the utmost profusion. He found out dishes of immense value; and had even jewels, as we are told, dissolved among his sauces. He sometimes had services of pure gold presented before his guests instead of meat; observing, that a man should be an œconomist or an emperor.

For several days together he flung considerable sums of money among the people. He ordered ships of a prodigious bulk to be built of cedar, the sterns of ivory inlaid with gold and jewels, the sails and tackling of various silks, while the decks were planted with the choicest fruit trees, under the shade of which he often dined. Here, attended by all the ministers of his pleasures, the most exquisite singers, and the most beautiful youths, he coasted along the shore of Campania with great splendor. All his buildings seemed rather calculated to raise astonishment, than to answer the purposes

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purposes of utility. But the most notorious instance of his fruitless profusion was the vast bridge at Puteoli, which he undertook in the third year of his reign. To satisfy his desire of being master as well of the ocean as the land, he caused an infinite number of ships to be fastened to each other, so as to make a floating bridge from Baiæ to Puteoli, across an arm of the sea three miles and an half broad. The ships being placed in two rows, in form of a crescent, were secured to each other with anchors, chains, and cables. Over these were laid vast quantities of timber, and upon that earth, so as to make the whole resemble one of the streets of Rome. He next caused several houses to be built upon his new bridge, for the reception of himself and his attendants, into which fresh water was conveyed by pipes from land. He then repaired thither with all his court, attended by prodigious throngs of people, who came from all parts to be spectators of such an expensive pageant. It was there that Caligula, adorned with all the magnificence of eastern royalty, sitting on horseback with a civic crown and Alexander's breast-plate, attended by the great officers of the army, and all the nobility of Rome, entered at one end of the bridge, and with ridiculous importance rode to the other. At night, the number of torches and other illuminations with which this expensive structure was adorned, cast such a gleam as illuminated the whole bay, and all the neighbouring mountains. This seemed to give the weak emperor new cause for exultation; boasting that he had turned night into day, as well as sea into land. The next morning he again rode over in a triumphant chariot, followed by a numerous train of charioteers, and all his soldiers in glittering armour. He then ascended a rostrum erected for the occasion, where he made a solemn oration in praise of the greatness of his enterprise, and the assiduity of his workmen and his army. He then distributed rewards among his men, and a splendid feast succeeded. In the midst of the entertainment many of his attendants were thrown into the sea; several ships filled with spectators, were attacked and sunk in an hostile manner; and although the majority escaped through the calmness of the weather, yet many were drowned; and some who endeavoured to save themselves by climbing to the bridge, were struck down again by the emperor's command. The calmness of the sea during this pageant, which continued for two days, furnished Caligula with fresh opportunities for boasting; being heard to say, "that Neptune took care to keep the sea smooth and serene, merely out of reverence to himself."

Expences like these, it may be naturally supposed, must have exhausted the most unbounded wealth: in fact, after reigning about a year, Caligula found his revenues totally exhausted; and a fortune of about 18,000,000 of our money, which Tiberius had amassed together, entirely spent in extravagance and folly. Now, therefore, his prodigality put him upon new methods of supplying the exchequer; and as before his profusion, so now his rapacity became boundless. He put in practice all kinds of rapine and extortion; while his principal study seemed to be the inventing new imposts and illicit confiscations. Every thing was taxed, to the very wages of the meanest tradesman. He caused freemen to purchase their freedom a second time; and poisoned many who had named him for their heir, to have the immediate possession of their fortunes. He set up a brothel in his own palace, by which he gained considerable sums by all the methods of prostitution. He also kept a gaming-house, in which he himself presided, scrupling none of the meanest tricks in order to advance his gains. On a certain occasion having had a run of ill luck, he saw two rich knights passing thro' his court; upon which he suddenly rose up, and causing both to be apprehended, confiscated their estates, and then joining his former companions, boasted that he never had a better throw in his life. Another time, wanting money for a stake, he went down and caused several noblemen to be put to death; and then returning, told the company that they sat playing for trifles while he had won 60,000 sesterces at a cast.

Ridiculous expeditions against Britain and Germany.

Such insupportable and capricious cruelties produced many secret conspiracies against him; but these were for a while deferred, upon account of his intended expedition against the Germans and Britons, which he undertook in the third year of his reign. For this purpose, he caused numerous levies to be made in all parts of the empire; and talked with so much resolution, that it was universally believed he would conquer all before him. His march perfectly indicated the inequality of his temper: sometimes it was so rapid, that the cohorts were obliged to leave their standards behind them; at other times it was so slow, that it more resembled a pompous procession than a military expedition. In this disposition he would cause himself to be carried on eight mens shoulders, and order all the neighbouring cities to have their streets well swept and watered to defend him from the dust. However, all these mighty preparations ended in nothing. Instead of conquering Britain, he only gave refuge to one of its banished princes; and this he described in a letter to the senate, as taking possession of the whole island. Instead of conquering Germany, he only led his army to the sea-shore in Batavia. There disposing his engines and warlike machines with great solemnity, and drawing up his men in order of battle, he went on board his galley, with which coasting along, he commanded his trumpets to sound and the signal to be given as if for an engagement; upon which, his men having had previous orders, immediately fell to gathering the shells that lay upon the shore into their helmets, terming them the *spoils of the conquered ocean, worthy of the palace and the capitol.* After this doughty expedition, calling his army together as a general after victory, he harangued them in a pompous manner, and highly extolled their atchievements; and then distributing money among them, dismissed them with orders to be joyful, and congratulated them upon their riches. But that such exploits should not pass without a memorial, he caused a lofty tower to be erected by the sea-side; and ordered the galleys in which he had put to sea, to be conveyed to Rome in a great measure by land.

289 Meanness of the senate.

After numberless instances of folly and cruelty in this expedition, among which he had intentions of destroying the whole army that had formerly mutinied under his father Germanicus, he began to think of a triumph. The senate, who had long been the timid ministers of his pride and cruelty, immediately set about consulting how to satisfy his expectations. They considered that a triumph would, even to himself, appear

Rome. pear as a burlesque upon his expedition: they therefore decreed him only an ovation. Having come to this resolution, they sent him a deputation, informing him of the honours granted him, and the decree, which was drawn up in terms of the most extravagant adulation. However, their flattery was far from satisfying his pride. He considered their conduct rather as a diminution of his power, than an addition to his glory. He therefore ordered them, on pain of death, not to concern themselves with his honours; and being met by their messengers on the way, who invited him to come and partake of the preparations which the senate had decreed, he informed them that he would come; and then laying his hand upon his sword, added, that he would bring that also with him. In this manner, either quite omitting his triumph, or deferring it to another time, he entered the city with only an ovation: while the senate passed the whole day in acclamations in his praise, and speeches filled with the most excessive flattery. This conduct in some measure served to reconcile him, and soon after their excessive zeal in his cause entirely gained his favour. For it happened that Protogenes, who was one of the most intimate and the most cruel of his favourites, coming into the house, was fawned upon by the whole body of the senate, and particularly by Proculus. Whereupon Protogenes with a fierce look, asked how one who was such an enemy to the emperor could be such a friend to him? There needed no more to excite the senate against Proculus. They instantly seized upon him, and violently tore him in pieces; plainly showing by their conduct, that tyranny in a prince produces cruelty in those whom he governs.—It was after returning from this extravagant expedition, that he was waited upon by a deputation of the Jews of Alexandria, who came to deprecate his anger for not worshipping his divinity as other nations had done. The emperor gave them a very ungracious reception, and would probably have destroyed their countrymen if he had not soon after been cut off.

This affair of the Jews remained undecided during his reign; but it was at last settled by his successor to their satisfaction. It was upon this occasion that Philo made the following remarkable answer to his associates, who were terrified with apprehensions of the emperor's indignation; "Fear nothing, (cried he to them), Caligula, by declaring against us, puts God on our side."

The continuation of this horrid reign seemed to threaten universal calamity: however, it was but short. 286 Conspiracy formed against the emperor. There had already been several conspiracies formed to destroy the tyrant, but without success. That which at last succeeded in delivering the world of this monster, was concerted under the influence of Cassius Cherea, tribune of the prætorian bands. This was a man of experienced courage, an ardent admirer of freedom, and consequently an enemy to tyrants. Besides the motives which he had in common with other men, he had received repeated insults from Caligula, who took all occasions of turning him into ridicule, and impeaching him of cowardice, merely because he had an effeminate voice. Whenever Cherea came to demand the watch-word from the emperor, according to custom, he always gave him either Venus, Adonis, or some such, implying effeminacy and softness. He therefore secretly imparted his designs to several senators and knights, whom he knew to have received personal injuries from Caligula, or to be apprehensive of those to come. Among these was Valerius Asiaticus, whose wife the emperor had debauched. Annius Vincianus, who was suspected of having been in a former conspiracy, was now desirous of really engaging in the first design that offered. Besides these, were Clemens the prefect; and Calistus, whose riches made him obnoxious to the tyrant's resentment. Rome.

While these were deliberating upon the most certain and speedy method of destroying the tyrant, an unexpected incident gave new strength to the conspiracy. Pompedius, a senator of distinction, having been accused before the emperor, of having spoken of him with disrespect, the informer cited one Quintilia, an actress, to confirm his accusation. Quintilia, however, was possessed of a degree of fortitude not easily found. She denied the fact with obstinacy; and being put to the torture at the informer's request, she bore the severest torments of the rack with unshaken constancy. But what is most remarkable of her resolution is, that she was acquainted with all the particulars of the conspiracy; and although Cherea was appointed to preside at her torture, she revealed nothing: on the contrary, when she was led to the rack, she trod upon the toe of one of the conspirators, intimating at once her knowledge of the confederacy, and her own resolution not to divulge it. In this manner she suffered until all her limbs were dislocated; and in that deplorable state was presented to the emperor, who ordered her a gratuity for what she had suffered. Cherea could now no longer contain his indignation at being thus made the instrument of a tyrant's cruelty. He therefore proposed to the conspirators to attack him as he went to offer sacrifices in the capitol, or while he was employed in the secret pleasures of the palace. The rest, however, were of opinion, that it was best to fall upon him when he should be unattended; by which means they would be more certain of success. After several deliberations, it was at last resolved to attack him during the continuance of the Palatine games, which lasted four days; and to strike the blow when his guards should have the least opportunity to defend him. In consequence of this, the three first days of the games passed without affording that opportunity which was so ardently desired. Cherea now, therefore, began to apprehend, that deferring the time of the conspiracy might be a mean to divulge it: he even began to dread, that the honour of killing the tyrant might fall to the lot of some other person more bold than himself. Wherefore, he at last resolved to defer the execution of his plot only to the day following, when Caligula should pass through a private gallery, to some baths not far distant from the palace.

The last day of the games was more splendid than 287 Who is murdered. the rest; and Caligula seemed more sprightly and condescending than usual. He took great amusement in seeing the people scramble for the fruits and other rarities thrown by his order among them; and seemed no way apprehensive of the plot formed for his destruction. In the mean time the conspiracy began to transpire; and had he possessed any friends, it could not have failed of being discovered. The conspirators waited a great part of the day with the most extreme anxiety; and at one time Caligula seemed resolved to spend the whole day without any refreshment. This unexpected delay

Rome.

delay entirely exasperated Cherea; and had he not been restrained, he would have gone and perpetrated his design in the midst of all the people. Just at that instant, while he was yet hesitating what he should do, Asprenas, one of the conspirators, persuaded Caligula to go to the bath and take some slight refreshment, in order to enjoy the rest of the entertainment with greater relish. The emperor therefore rising up, the conspirators used every precaution to keep off the throng, and to surround him, under pretence of greater assiduity. Upon entering into the little vaulted gallery that led to the bath, he was met by a band of Grecian children who had been instructed in singing, and were come to perform in his presence. He was once more therefore going to return into the theatre with them, had not the leader of the band excused himself, as having a cold. This was the moment that Cherea seized to strike him to the ground; crying out, "Tyrant, think upon this." Immediately after, the other conspirators rushed in; and while the emperor continued to resist, crying out, that he was not yet dead, they dispatched him with 30 wounds, in the 29th year of his age, after a short reign of three years ten months and eight days. With him, his wife and infant daughter also perished; the one being stabbed by a centurion, the other having its brains dashed out against the wall. His coin was also melted down by a decree of the senate; and such precautions were taken, that all seemed willing, that neither his features nor his name might be transmitted to posterity.

288 Great confusion ensues on his death.

As soon as the death of Caligula was made public, it produced the greatest confusion in all parts of the city. The conspirators, who only aimed at destroying a tyrant without attending to a successor, had all sought safety by retiring to private places. Some thought the report of the emperor's death was only an artifice of his own, to see how his enemies would behave. Others averred that he was still alive, and actually in a fair way to recover. In this interval of suspence, the German guards finding it a convenient time to pillage, gave a loose to their licentiousness, under a pretence of revenging the emperor's death. All the conspirators and senators that fell in their way, received no mercy: Asprenas, Norbanus, and Anteius, were cut to pieces. However, they grew calm by degrees, and the senate was permitted to assemble, in order to deliberate upon what was necessary to be done in the present emergency.

In this deliberation, Saturninus, who was then consul, insisted much upon the benefits of liberty; and talked in raptures of Cherea's fortitude, alleging that it deserved the highest reward. This was a language highly pleasing to the senate. Liberty now became the favourite topic; and they even ventured to talk of extinguishing the very name of Cæsar. Impressed with this resolution, they brought over some cohorts of the city to their side, and boldly seized upon the capitol. But it was now too late for Rome to gain her pristine freedom; the populace and the army opposing their endeavours. The former were still mindful of their ancient hatred to the senate; and remembered the donations and public spectacles of the emperors with regret. The latter were sensible they could have no power but in a monarchy; and had some hopes that the election of the emperor would fall to their determination. In this opposition of interests, and variety of opinions, chance seemed at last to decide the fate of the empire. Some soldiers happening to run about the palace, discovered Claudius, Caligula's uncle, lurking in a secret place, where he had hid himself through fear. Of this personage, who had hitherto been despised for his imbecillity, they resolved to make an emperor: and accordingly carried him upon their shoulders to the camp, where they proclaimed him at a time he expected nothing but death.

289 Claudius made emperor.

The senate now, therefore, perceiving that force alone was likely to settle the succession, were resolved to submit, since they had no power to oppose. Claudius was the person most nearly allied to the late emperor, then living; being the nephew of Tiberius, and the uncle of Caligula. The senate therefore passed a decree, confirming him in the empire; and went soon after in a body, to render him their compulsive homage. Cherea was the first who sell a sacrifice to the jealousy of this new monarch. He met death with all the fortitude of an ancient Roman; desiring to die by the same sword with which he had killed Caligula. Lupus, his friend, was put to death with him; and Sabinus, one of the conspirators, laid violent hands on himself.

Claudius was 50 years old when he began to reign. The complicated diseases of his infancy had in some measure affected all the faculties both of his body and mind. He was continued in a state of pupillage much longer than was usual at that time; and seemed, in every part of his life, incapable of conducting himself. Not that he was entirely destitute of understanding, since he had made a tolerable proficiency in the Greek and Latin languages, and even wrote an history of his own time; which, however destitute of other merit, was not contemptible in point of style. Nevertheless, with this share of erudition, he was unable to advance himself in the state, and seemed utterly neglected until he was placed all at once at the head of affairs.

290 His happy administration in the beginning of his reign.

The commencement of his reign gave the most promising hopes of an happy continuance. He began by passing an act of oblivion for all former words and actions, and disannulled all the cruel edicts of Caligula. He forbade all persons, upon severe penalties, to sacrifice to him as they had done to Caligula; was assiduous in hearing and examining complaints; and frequently administered justice in person; tempering, by his mildness, the severity of the law. We are told of his bringing a woman to acknowledge her son, by adjudging her to marry him. The tribunes of the people coming one day to attend him when he was on his tribunal, he courteously excused himself for not having room for them to sit down. By this deportment he so much gained the affections of the people, that upon a vague report of his being slain by surprise, they ran about the streets in the utmost rage and consternation, with horrid imprecations against all such as were accessary to his death; nor could they be appeased, until they were assured, with certainty, of his safety. He took a more than ordinary care that Rome should be continually supplied with corn and provisions, securing the merchants against pirates. He was not less assiduous in his buildings, in which he excelled almost all that went before him. He constructed a wonderful aqueduct, called after his own name, much surpassing

any

Rome. any other in Rome, either for workmanship, or plentiful supply. It brought water from 40 miles distance, through great mountains, and over deep valleys; being built on stately arches, and furnishing the highest parts of the city. He made also an haven at Ostia; a work of such immense expence, that his successors were unable to maintain it. But his greatest work of all was the draining of the lake Fucinus, which was the largest in Italy, and bringing its water into the Tiber, in order to strengthen the current of that river. For effecting this, among other vast difficulties, he mined through a mountain of stone three miles broad, and kept 30,000 men employed for 11 years together.

To this solicitude for the internal advantages of the state, he added that of a watchful guardianship over the provinces. He restored Judea to Herod Agrippa, which Caligula had taken from Herod Antipas, his uncle, the man who had put John the Baptist to death, and who was banished by order of the present emperor. Claudius also restored such princes to their kingdoms as had been unjustly dispossessed by his predecessors; but deprived the Lycians and Rhodians of their liberty, for having promoted insurrections, and crucified some citizens of Rome.

391 Is expedition against Britain.

He even undertook to gratify the people by foreign conquest. The Britons, who had, for near 100 years, been left in sole possession of their own island, began to seek the mediation of Rome, to quell their intestine commotions. The principal man who desired to subject his native country to the Roman dominion, was one Bericus, who, by many arguments, persuaded the emperor to make a descent upon the island, magnifying the advantages that would attend the conquest of it. In pursuance of his advice, therefore, Plautius the prætor was ordered to pass over into Gaul, and make preparations for this great expedition. At first, indeed, his soldiers seemed backward to embark; declaring, that they were unwilling to make war beyond the limits of the world, for so they judged Britain to be. However, they were at last persuaded to go; and the Britons, under the conduct of their king Cynobelinus, were several times overthrown. And these successes soon after induced Claudius to go into Britain in person, upon pretence that the natives were still seditious, and had not delivered up some Roman fugitives who had taken shelter among them; but for a particular account of the exploits of the Romans in this island, see the article ENGLAND.

392 Induced his favourites to commit many acts of cruelty.

But though Claudius gave in the beginning of his reign the highest hopes of an happy continuance, he soon began to lessen his care for the public, and to commit to his favourites all the concerns of the empire. This weak prince was unable to act but under the direction of others. The chief of his directors was his wife Messalina; whose name is almost become a common appellation to women of abandoned characters. However, she was not less remarkable for her cruelties than her lusts; as by her intrigues she destroyed many of the most illustrious families of Rome. Subordinate to her were the emperor's freedmen; Pallas, the treasurer; Narcissus, the secretary of state; and Callistus, the master of the requests. These entirely governed Claudius; so that he was only left the fatigues of ceremony, while they were possessed of all the power of the state.

It would be tedious to enumerate the various cruelties which these insidious advisers obliged the feeble emperor to commit: those against his own family will suffice. Appius Silanus, a person of great merit, who had been married to the emperor's mother-in-law, was put to death upon the suggestions of Messalina. After him he slew both his sons-in-law, Silanus and Pompey, and his two nieces the Livias, one the daughter of Drusus, the other of Germanicus; and all without permitting them to plead in their defence, or even without assigning any cause for his displeasure. Great numbers of others fell a sacrifice to the jealousy of Messalina and her minions; who bore so great a sway in the state, that all offices, dignities, and governments, were entirely at their disposal. Every thing was put to sale: they took money for pardons and penalties; and accumulated, by these means, such vast sums, that the wealth of Crassus was considered as nothing in comparison. One day, the emperor complaining that his exchequer was exhausted, he was ludicrously told, that it might be sufficiently replenished if his two freedmen would take him into partnership. Still, however, during such corruption, he regarded his favourites with the highest esteem, and even solicited the senate to grant them peculiar marks of their approbation. These disorders in the ministers of government did not fail to produce conspiracies against the emperor. Statius Corvinus and Gallus Affinius formed a conspiracy against him. Two knights, whose names are not told us, privately combined to assassinate him. But the revolt which gave him the greatest uneasiness, and which was punished with the most unrelenting severity, was that of Camillus, his lieutenant-general in Dalmatia. This general, incited by many of the principal men of Rome, openly rebelled against him, and assumed the title of *emperor*. Nothing could exceed the terrors of Claudius, upon being informed of this revolt: his nature and his crimes had disposed him to be more cowardly than the rest of mankind; so that when Camillus commanded him by letters to relinquish the empire, and retire to a private station, he seemed inclined to obey. However, his fears upon this occasion were soon removed: for the legions which had declared for Camillus being terrified by some prodigies, shortly after abandoned him; so that the man whom but five days before they had acknowledged as emperor, they now thought it no infamy to destroy. The cruelty of Messalina and her minions upon this occasion seemed to have no bounds. They so wrought upon the emperor's fears and suspicions, that numbers were executed without trial or proof; and scarce any, even of those who were but suspected, escaped, unless by ransoming their lives with their fortunes.

393 Their infamous conduct.

By such cruelties as these, the favourites of the emperor endeavoured to establish his and their own authority: but in order to increase the necessity of their assistance, they laboured to augment the greatness of his terrors. He now become a prey to jealousy and disquietude. Being one day in the temple, and finding a sword that was left there by accident, he convened the senate in a fright, and informed them of his danger. After this he never ventured to go to any feast without being surrounded by his guards, nor would he suffer any man to approach him without a previous search. Thus wholly employed by his anxiety for self-

Rome. self-preservation, he entirely left the care of the state to his favourites, who by degrees gave him a relish for slaughter. From this time, he seemed delighted with inflicting tortures; and on a certain occasion continued a whole day at the city Tibur, waiting for an hangman from Rome, that he might feast his eyes with an execution in the manner of the ancients. Nor was he less regardless of the persons he condemned, than cruel in the infliction of their punishment. Such was his extreme stupidity, that he would frequently invite those to supper whom he had put to death but the day before; and often denied the having given orders for an execution, but a few hours after pronouncing sentence. Suetonius assures us, that there were no less than 35 senators and above 300 knights executed in his reign; and that such was his unconcern in the midst of slaughter, that one of the tribunes bringing him an account of a certain senator who was executed, he quite forgot his offence, but calmly acquiesced in his punishment.

294 Extravagant lewdness of the empress Messalina.

In this manner was Claudius urged on by Messalina to commit cruelties, which he considered only as wholesome severities; while, in the mean time, she put no bounds to her enormities. The impunity of her past vices only increasing her confidence to commit new, her debaucheries became every day more notorious, and her lewdness exceeded what had ever been seen at Rome. She caused some women of the first quality to commit adultery in the presence of their husbands, and destroyed such as refused to comply. After appearing for some years insatiable in her desires, she at length fixed her affections upon Caius Silius, the most beautiful youth in Rome. Her love for the young Roman seemed to amount even to madness. She obliged him to divorce his wife Junia Syllana, that she might entirely possess him to herself. She obliged him to accept of immense treasures, and valuable presents; cohabiting with him in the most open manner, and treating him with the most shameless familiarity. The very imperial ornaments were transferred to his house; and the emperor's slaves and attendants had orders to wait upon the adulterer. Nothing was wanting to complete the insolence of their conduct but their being married together; and this was soon after effected. They relied upon the emperor's imbecillity for their security, and only waited till he retired to Ostia to put their ill-judged project in execution. In his absence they celebrated their nuptials with all the ceremonies and splendor which attend the most confident security. Messalina gave a loose to her passion, and appeared as a Bacchanalian with a thyrsus in her hand; while Silius assumed the character of Bacchus, his body being adorned with robes imitating ivy, and his legs covered with buskins. A troop of singers and dancers attended, who heightened the revel with the most lascivious songs and the most indecent attitudes. In the midst of this riot, one Valens, a buffoon, is said to have climbed a tree; and being demanded what he saw, answered that he perceived a dreadful storm coming from Ostia. What this fellow spoke at raudom, was actually at that time in preparation. It seems that some time before there had been a quarrel between Messalina and Narcissus, the emperor's first freedmen. This subtle minister therefore desired nothing more than an opportunity of ruining the empress, and he judged this to be a most favourable occasion. He first made the discovery by means of two concubines who attended the emperor, who were instructed to inform him of Messalina's marriage as the news of the day, while Narcissus himself stepped in to confirm their information. Finding it operated upon the emperor's fears as he could wish, he resolved to alarm him still more by a discovery of all Messalina's projects and attempts. He aggravated the danger, and urged the expediency of speedily punishing the delinquents. Claudius, quite terrified at so unexpected a relation, supposed the enemy were already at his gates; and frequently interrupted his freedman, by asking if he was still master of the empire. Being assured that he yet had it in his power to continue so, he resolved to go and punish the affront offered to his dignity without delay. Nothing could exceed the consternation of Messalina and her thoughtless companions, upon being informed that the emperor was coming to disturb their festivity. Every one retired in the utmost confusion. Silius was taken. Messalina took shelter in some gardens which she had lately seized upon, having expelled Asiaticus the true owner, and put him to death. From thence she sent Britannicus, her only son by the emperor, with Octavia her daughter, to intercede for her, and implore his mercy. She soon after followed them herself; but Narcissus had so fortified the emperor against her arts, and contrived such methods of diverting his attention from her defence, that she was obliged to return in despair. Narcissus being thus far successful, led Claudius to the house of the adulterer, there showing him the apartments adorned with the spoils of his own palace; and then conducting him to the prætorian camp, revived his courage by giving him assurances of the readiness of the soldiers to defend him. Having thus artfully wrought upon his fears and resentment, the wretched Silius was commanded to appear; who, making no defence, was instantly put to death in the emperor's presence. Several others shared the same fate; but Messalina still flattered herself with hopes of pardon. She resolved to leave neither prayers nor tears unattempted to appease the emperor. She sometimes even gave a loose to her resentment, and threatened her accusers with vengeance. Nor did she want ground for entertaining the most favourable expectations. Claudius have returned from the execution of her paramour, and having allayed his resentment in a banquet, began to relent. He now therefore commanded his attendants to apprise that miserable creature, meaning Messalina, of his resolution to hear her accusation the next day, and ordered her to be in readiness with her defence. The permission to defend herself would have been fatal to Narcissus; wherefore he rushed out, and ordered the tribunes and centurions who were in readiness, to execute her immediately by the emperor's command. Claudius was informed of her death in the midst of his banquet; but this insensible idiot shewed not the least appearance of emotion. He continued at table with his usual tranquillity; and the day following, while he was sitting at dinner, he asked why Messalina was absent, as if he had totally forgotten her crimes and her punishment.

295 She is put to death.

Claudius being now a widower, declared publicly, that as he had hitherto been unfortunate in his marriages, he would remain single for the future, and that he would be contented to forfeit his life in case he broke his

Rome. his resolution. However, the resolutions of Claudius were but of short continuance. Having been accustomed to live under the controul of women, his present freedom was become irksome to him, and he was entirely unable to live without a director. His freedmen therefore perceiving his inclinations, resolved to procure him another wife; and, after some deliberation, they fixed upon Agrippina, the daughter of his brother Germanicus. This woman was more practised in vice than even the former empress. Her cruelties were more dangerous, as they were directed with greater caution: she had poisoned her former husband, to be at liberty to attend the calls of ambition; and, perfectly acquainted with all the infirmities of Claudius, only made use of his power to advance her own. However, as the late declaration of Claudius seemed to be an obstacle to his marrying again, persons were suborned to move in the senate, that he should be compelled to take a wife, as a matter of great importance to the commonwealth; and some more determined flatterers than the rest, left the house, as with a thorough resolution, that instant, to constrain him. When this decree passed in the senate, Claudius had scarce patience to contain himself a day before the celebration of his nuptials. However, such was the detestation in which the people in general held these incestuous matches, that though they were made lawful, yet only one of his tribunes, and one of his freedmen, followed his example.

296 The emperor marries Agrippina.

Claudius having now received a new director, submitted with more implicit obedience than in any former part of his reign. Agrippina's chief aims were to gain the succession in favour of her own son Nero, and to set aside the claims of young Britannicus, son to the emperor and Messalina. For this purpose she married Nero to the emperor's daughter Octavia, a few days after her own marriage. Not long after this, she urged the emperor to strengthen the succession, in imitation of his predecessors, by making a new adoption; and caused him take in her son Nero, in some measure to divide the fatigues of government. Her next care was to increase her son's popularity, by giving him Seneca for a tutor. This excellent man, by birth a Spaniard, had been banished by Claudius, upon the false testimony of Messalina, who had accused him of adultery with Julia the emperor's niece. The people loved and admired him for his genius, but still more for his strict morality; and a part of his reputation necessarily devolved to his pupil. This subtle woman was not less assiduous in pretending the utmost affection for Britannicus; whom, however, she resolved in a proper time to destroy: but her jealousy was not confined to this child only; she, shortly after her accession, procured the deaths of several ladies who had been her rival in the emperor's affections. She displaced the captains of the guard, and appointed Burrhus to that command; a person of great military knowledge, and strongly attached to her interests. From that time she took less pains to disguise her power, and frequently entered the capitol in a chariot; a privilege which none before were allowed, except of the sacerdotal order.

In the 12th year of this monarch's reign, she persuaded him to restore liberty to the Rhodians, of which he had deprived them some years before; and to remit the taxes of the city Ilium, as having been the progenitors of Rome. Her design in this was to increase the popularity of Nero, who pleaded the cause of both cities with great approbation. Thus did this ambitious woman take every step to aggrandize her son, and was even contented to become hateful herself to the public, merely to increase his popularity. Rome.

Such a very immoderate abuse of her power, served at last to awaken the emperor's suspicions. Agrippina's imperious temper began to grow insupportable to him; and he was heard to declare, when heated with wine, that it was his fate to suffer the disorders of his wives, and to be their executioner. This expression sunk deep on her mind, and engaged all her faculties to prevent the blow. Her first care was to remove Narcissus, whom she hated upon many accounts, but particularly for his attachment to Claudius. This minister, for some time, opposed her designs; but at length thought fit to retire by a voluntary exile into Campania. The unhappy emperor, thus exposed to all the machinations of his insidious consort, seemed entirely regardless of the dangers that threatened his destruction. His affection for Britannicus was perceived every day to increase, which served also to increase the vigilance and jealousy of Agrippina. She now, therefore, resolved not to defer a crime which she had meditated a long while before; namely, that of poisoning her husband. She for some time, however, debated with herself in what manner she should administer the poison; as she feared too strong a dose would discover her treachery, and one too weak might fail of its effect. At length she determined upon a poison of singular efficacy to destroy his intellects, and yet not suddenly to terminate his life. As she had been long conversant in this horrid practice, she applied to a woman called *Locusta*, notorious for assisting on such occasions. The poison was given to the emperor among mushrooms, a dish he was particularly fond of. Shortly after having eaten, he dropped down insensible; but this caused no alarm, as it was usual with him to sit eating till he had stupefied all his faculties, and was obliged to be carried off to his bed from the table. However, his constitution seemed to overcome the effects of the potion, when Agrippina resolved to make sure of him: wherefore she directed a wretched physician, who was her creature, to thrust a poisoned feather down his throat, under pretence of making him vomit; and this dispatched him.

297 By whom he is poisoned.

The reign of the emperor, feeble and impotent as he was, produced no great calamities in the state, since his cruelties were chiefly levelled at those about his person. The list of the inhabitants of Rome at this time amounted to six millions eight hundred and forty-four thousand souls; a number equal perhaps to all the people of England at this day. The general character of the times was that of corruption and luxury: but the military spirit of Rome, though much relaxed from its former severity, still continued to awe mankind; and tho' during this reign, the empire might be justly said to be without a head, yet the terror of the Roman name alone kept the nations in obedience.

Claudius being destroyed, Agrippina took every precaution to conceal his death from the public, until she had settled her measures for securing the succession. A strong guard was placed at all the avenues of the palace, while she amused the people with various reports; at one time giving out that he was still alive;

at

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at another, that he was recovering. In the mean while, she made sure of the person of young Britannicus, under a pretence of affection for him. Like one overcome with the extremity of her grief, she held the child in her arms, calling him the dear image of his father, and thus preventing his escape. She used the same precautions with regard to his sisters, Octavia and Antonia; and even ordered an entertainment in the palace, as if to amuse the emperor. At last, when all things were adjudged, the palace-gates were thrown open, and Nero, accompanied by Burrhus, prefect of the Prætorian guards, issued to receive the congratulations of the people and the army. The cohorts then attending, proclaimed him with the loudest acclamations, tho' not without making some inquiries after Britannicus. He was carried in a chariot to the rest of the army; wherein having made a speech proper to the occasion, and promising them a donation, in the manner of his predecessors, he was declared emperor by the army, the senate, and the people.

298 Nero succeeds to the empire.

Nero's first care was, to show all possible respect to the deceased emperor, in order to cover the guilt of his death. His obsequies were performed with a pomp equal to that of Augustus: the young emperor pronounced his funeral oration, and he was canonized among the gods. The funeral oration, tho' spoken by Nero, was drawn up by Seneca; and it was remarked, that this was the first time a Roman emperor needed the assistance of another's eloquence.

Nero, though but 17 years of age, began his reign with the general approbation of mankind. As he owed the empire to Agrippina, so in the beginning he submitted to her directions with the most implicit obedience. On her part, she seemed resolved on governing with her natural ferocity, and considered her private animosities as the only rule to guide her in public justice. Immediately after the death of Claudius, she caused Silanus, the pro-consul of Asia, to be assassinated upon very slight suspicions, and without ever acquainting the emperor with her design. The next object of her resentment was Narcissus, the late emperor's favourite; a man equally notorious for the greatness of his wealth, and the number of his crimes. He was obliged to put an end to his life by Agrippina's order, tho' Nero refused his consent.

299 His excellent administration for five years.

This bloody onset would have been followed by many severities of the same nature, had not Seneca and Barrhus, the emperor's tutor and general, opposed. These worthy men, although they owed their rise to the empress, were above being the instruments of her cruelty. They, therefore, combined together in an opposition; and gaining the young emperor on their side, formed a plan of power, at once the most merciful and wise. The beginning of this monarch's reign, while he continued to act by their counsels, has always been considered as a model for succeeding princes to govern by. The famous emperor Trajan used to say, "That for the first five years of this prince, all other governments came short of his." In fact, the young monarch knew so well how to conceal his innate depravity, that his nearest friends could scarce perceive his virtues to be but assumed. He appeared just, liberal, and humane. When a warrant for the execution of a criminal was brought him to be signed, he was heard to cry out, with seeming concern, "Would to Heaven that I had never learned to write!" The senate, upon a certain occasion, giving him their applause, for the regularity and justice of his administration; he replied with singular modesty, "That they should defer their thanks till he had deserved them." His condescension and affability were not less than his other virtues; so that the Romans began to think, that the clemency of this prince would compensate for the tyranny of his predecessors.

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In the mean time, Agrippina, who was excluded from any share in government, attempted, by every possible method, to maintain her declining power. Perceiving that her son had fallen in love with a freedwoman, named *Acte*, and dreading the influence of a concubine, she tried every art to prevent his growing passion. However, in so corrupt a court, it was no difficult matter for the emperor to find other confidents, ready to assist him in his wishes. The gratification of his passion, therefore, in this instance, only served to increase his hatred for the empress. Nor was it long before he gave evident marks of his disobedience, by displacing Pallas her chief favourite. It was upon this occasion, that she first perceived the total declension of her authority; which threw her into the most ungovernable fury. In order to give terror to her rage, she proclaimed that Britannicus, the real heir to the throne, was still living, and in a condition to receive his father's empire, which was now possessed by an usurper. She threatened to go to the camp, and there expose his baseness and her own, invoking all the furies to her assistance. These menaces served to alarm the suspicions of Nero; who, though apparently guided by his governors, yet had begun to give way to his natural depravity. He, therefore, determined upon the death of Britannicus, and contrived to have him poisoned at a public banquet. Agrippina, however, still retained her natural ferocity: she took every opportunity of obliging and flattering the tribunes and centurions; she heaped up treasures with a rapacity beyond her natural avarice; all her actions seemed calculated to raise a faction, and make herself formidable to the emperor. Whereupon Nero commanded her German guard to be taken from her, and obliged her to lodge out of the palace. He also forbid particular persons to visit her, and went himself but rarely and ceremoniously to pay her his respects. She now, therefore, began to find, that, with the emperor's favour, she had lost the assiduity of her friends. She was even accused by Silana of conspiring against her son, and of designing to marry Plautius, a person descended from Augustus, and of making him emperor. A short time after, Pallas, her favourite, together with Barrhus, were arraigned for a similar offence, and intending to set up Cornelius Sylla. These informations being proved void of any foundation, the informers were banished; a punishment which was considered as very inadequate to the greatness of the offence.

300 He provokes his mother.

301 Poisons his brother.

302 Shameful behaviour of the emperor.

As Nero increased in years, his crimes seemed to increase in equal proportion. He now began to find a pleasure in running about the city by night, disguised like a slave. In this vile habit he entered taverns and brothels, attended by the lewd ministers of his pleasures, attempting the lives of such as opposed him, and frequently endangering his own. In imitation of the emperor's example, numbers of profligate young men

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men infested the streets likewise; so that every night the city was filled with tumult and disorder. However, the people bore all these levities, which they ascribed to the emperor's youth, with patience, having occasion every day to experience his liberality, and having also been gratified by the abolition of many of their taxes. The provinces also were no way affected by these riots; for except disturbances on the side of the Parthians, which were soon suppressed, they enjoyed the most perfect tranquillity.

But those sensualities, which, for the first four years of his reign, produced but few disorders, in the fifth became alarming. He first began to transgress the bounds of decency, by publicly abandoning Octavia, his present wife; and then by taking Poppea, the wife of his favourite Otho, a woman more celebrated for her beauty than her virtues. This was another grating circumstance to Agrippina, who vainly used all her interest to disgrace Poppea, and reinstate herself in her son's lost favour. Historians assert, that she even offered to satisfy his passion herself, by an incestuous compliance; and that, had not Seneca interposed, the son would have joined in the mother's crime. This, however, does not seem probable, since we find Poppea victorious, soon after, in the contention of interests; and at last impelling Nero to parricide, to satisfy her revenge. She began her arts by urging him to divorce his present wife, and marry herself: she reproached him as a pupil, who wanted not only power over others, but liberty to direct himself. She insinuated the dangerous designs of Agrippina; and, by degrees, accustomed his mind to reflect on parricide without horror. His cruelties against his mother began rather by various circumstances of petty malice, than by any downright injury. He encouraged several persons to tease her with litigious suits; and employed some of the meanest of the people to sing satirical songs against her, under her windows: but, at last, finding these ineffectual in breaking her spirit, he resolved on putting her to death. His first attempt was by poison; but this, tho' twice repeated, proved ineffectual, as she had fortified her constitution against it by antidotes. This failing, a ship was contrived in so artificial a manner, as to fall to pieces in the water; on board of which, she was invited to sail to the coasts of Calabria. However, this plot was as ineffectual as the former: the mariners, not being apprised of the secret, disturbed each other's operations; so that the ship not sinking as readily as was expected, Agrippina found means to continue swimming, till she was taken up by some trading vessels passing that way. Nero finding all his machinations were discovered, resolved to throw off the mask, and put her openly to death, without further delay. He therefore caused a report to be spread, that she had conspired against him, and that a poniard was dropped at his feet by one who pretended a command from Agrippina to assassinate him. In consequence of this, he applied to his governors Seneca and Burrhus, for their advice how to act, and their assistance in ridding him of his fears. Things were now come to such a crisis, that no middle way could be taken; and either Nero or Agrippina was to fall. Seneca, therefore, kept a profound silence: while Burrhus, with more resolution, refused to be perpetrator of so great a crime; alleging, that the army was entirely devoted to all the descendants of Cæsar, and would never be brought to imbrue their hands in the blood of any of his family. In this embarrassment, Anicetus, the contriver of the ship abovementioned, offered his services; which Nero accepted with the greatest joy, crying out, "That then was the first moment he ever found himself an emperor." This freedman, therefore, taking with him a body of soldiers, furrounded the house of Agrippina, and then forced open the doors. The executioners having dispatched her with several wounds, left her dead on the couch, and went to inform Nero of what they had done. Some historians say, that Nero came immediately to view the body; that he continued to gaze upon it with pleasure, and ended his horrid survey, by coolly observing, that he never thought his mother had been so handsome. However this be, he vindicated his conduct next day to the senate; who not only excused, but applauded his impiety.

303 Causes his mother to be murdered.

All the bounds of virtue being thus broken down, Nero now gave a loose to his appetites, that were not only sordid but inhuman. There seemed an odd contrast in his disposition; for while he practised cruelties, which were sufficient to make the mind shudder with horror, he was fond of those amusing arts that soften and refine the heart. He was particularly addicted, even from childhood, to music, and not totally ignorant of poetry. But chariot-driving was his favourite pursuit. He never missed the circus, when chariot-races were to be exhibited there; appearing at first privately, and soon after publicly; till at last, his passion increasing by indulgence, he was not content with being merely a spectator, but resolved to become one of the principal performers. His governors, however, did all in their power to restrain this perverted ambition; but finding him resolute, they inclosed a space of ground in the valley of the Vatican, where he first exhibited only to some chosen spectators, but shortly after invited the whole town. The praises of his flattering subjects only stimulated him still more to these unbecoming pursuits; so that he now resolved to assume a new character, and to appear as a singer upon the stage.

304 Folly and meanness of Nero.

His passion for music, as was observed, was no less natural to him than the former; but as it was less manly, so he endeavoured to defend it by the example of some of the most celebrated men, who practised it with the same fondness. He had been instructed in the principles of this art from his childhood; and upon his advancement to the empire, he had put himself under the most celebrated masters. He patiently submitted to their instructions, and used all those methods which singers practise, either to mend the voice, or improve its volubility. Yet, notwithstanding all his assiduity, his voice was but a wretched one, being both feeble and unpleasant. However, he was resolved to produce it to the public, such as it was; for flattery, he knew, would supply every deficiency. His first public appearance was at games of his own institution, called *juveniles*; where he advanced upon the stage, tuning his instrument to his voice with great appearance of skill. A groupe of tribunes and centurions attended behind him; when his old governor Burrhus stood by his hopeful pupil, with indignation in his countenance and praises on his lips.

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He was desirous also of becoming a poet: but he was unwilling to undergo the pain of study, which a proficiency in that art requires; he was desirous of being a poet ready made. For this purpose, he got together several persons, who were considered as great wits at court, tho' but very little known as such to the public. These attended him with verses which they had composed at home, or which they blabbed out extemporaneously; and the whole of their compositions being tacked together, by his direction, was called a *poem*. Nor was he without his philosophers also; he took a pleasure in hearing their debates after supper, but he heard them merely for his amusement.

Furnished with such talents as these for giving pleasure, he was resolved to make the tour of his empire, and give the most public display of his abilities wherever he came. The place of his first exhibition, upon leaving Rome, was Naples. The crowds there were so great, and the curiosity of the people so earnest in hearing him, that they did not perceive an earthquake that happened while he was singing. His desire of gaining the superiority over the other actors was truly ridiculous: he made interest with his judges, reviled his competitors, formed private factions to support him, all in imitation of those who got their livelihood upon the stage. While he continued to perform, no man was permitted to depart from the theatre, upon any pretence whatsoever. Some were so fatigued with hearing him, that they leaped privately from the walls, or pretended to fall into fainting fits, in order to be carried out. Nay, it is said, that several women were delivered in the theatre. Soldiers were placed in several parts to observe the looks and gestures of the spectators, either to direct them where to point their applause, or restrain their displeasure. An old senator, named *Vespasian*, afterwards emperor, happening to fall asleep upon one of these occasions, very narrowly escaped with his life.

After being fatigued with the praises of his countrymen, Nero resolved upon going over into Greece, to receive new theatrical honours. The occasion was this. The cities of Greece had made a law to send him the crowns from all the games; and deputies were accordingly dispatched with this (to him) important embassy. As he one day entertained them at his table in the most sumptuous manner, and conversed with them with the utmost familiarity, they intreated to hear him sing. Upon his complying, the artful Greeks testified all the marks of ecstasy and rapture. Applauses so warm, were peculiarly pleasing to Nero: he could not refrain from crying out, That the Greeks alone were worthy to hear him; and accordingly prepared without delay to go into Greece, where he spent the whole year ensuing. In this journey, his retinue resembled an army in number; but it was only composed of singers, dancers, taylors, and other attendants upon the theatre. He passed over all Greece, and exhibited at all their games, which he ordered to be celebrated in one year. At the Olympic games he resolved to show the people something extraordinary; wherefore, he drove a chariot with 10 horses: but being unable to sustain the violence of the motion, he was driven from his seat. The spectators, however, gave their unanimous applause, and he was crowned as conqueror. In this manner he obtained the prize at the Isthmian, Pythian, and Nemean games. The Greeks were not sparing of their crowns; he obtained 1800 of them. An unfortunate singer happened to oppose him on one of these occasions, and exerted all the powers of his art, which, it appears, were prodigious. But he seems to have been a better singer than a politician; for Nero ordered him to be killed on the spot. Upon his return from Greece, he entered Naples, through a breach in the walls of the city, as was customary with those who were conquerors in the Olympic games. But all the splendor of his return was reserved for his entry into Rome. There he appeared seated in the chariot of Augustus, dressed in robes of purple, and crowned with wild olive, which was the Olympic garland. He bore in his hand the Pythian crown, and had 1100 more carried before him. Beside him sat one Diodorus, a musician; and behind him followed a band of singers, as numerous as a legion, who sung in honour of his victories. The senate, the knights, and the people, attended this puerile pageant, filling the air with their acclamations. The whole city was illuminated, every street smoked with incense; wherever he passed, victims were slain; the pavement was strewed with saffron, while garlands of flowers, ribbons, fowls, and pasties, (for so we are told), were showered down upon him from the windows as he passed along. So many honours only inflamed his desires of acquiring new; he at last began to take lessons in wrestling; willing to imitate Hercules in strength, as he had rivalled Apollo in activity. He also caused a lion of pasteboard to be made with great art, against which he undauntedly appeared in the theatre, and struck it down with a blow of his club.

But his cruelties even outdid all his other extravagancies, a complete list of which would exceed the limits of the present article. He was often heard to observe, that he had rather be hated than loved. When one happened to say in his presence, That the world might be burned when he was dead: "Nay," replied Nero, "let it be burnt while I am alive." In fact, a great part of the city of Rome was consumed by fire shortly after. This remarkable conflagration took place in the 11th year of Nero's reign. The fire began among certain shops, in which were kept such goods as were proper to feed it; and spread every way with such amazing rapidity, that its havock was felt in distant streets, before any measures to stop it could be tried. Besides an infinite number of common houses, all the noble monuments of antiquity, all the stately palaces, temples, porticoes, with goods, riches, furniture, and merchandize, to an immense value, were devoured by the flames, which raged first in the low regions of the city, and then mounted to the higher with such terrible violence and impetuosity, as to frustrate all relief. The shrieks of the women, the various efforts of some endeavouring to save the young and tender, of others attempting to assist the aged and infirm, and the hurry of such as strove only to provide for themselves, occasioned a mutual interruption and universal confusion. Many, while they chiefly regarded the danger that pursued them from behind, found themselves suddenly involved in the flames before and on every side. If they escaped into the quarters adjoining, or into the parts quite remote, there too they met

305 Burning of Rome.

Rome. met with the devouring flames. At last, not knowing whither to fly, nor where to seek sanctuary, they abandoned the city, and repaired to the open fields. Some, out of despair for the loss of their whole substance, others, thro' tenderness for their children and relations, whom they had not been able to snatch from the flames, suffered themselves to perish in them, tho' they had easy means to escape. No man dared to stop the progress of the fire, there being many who had no other business but to prevent with repeated menaces all attempts of that nature; nay, some were, in the face of the public, seen to throw lighted firebrands into the houses, loudly declaring that they were authorised so to do; but whether this was only a device to plunder more freely, or in reality they had such orders, was never certainly known.

Nero, who was then at Antium, did not offer to return to the city, till he heard that the flames were advancing to his palace, which, after his arrival, was, in spite of all opposition, burnt down to the ground, with all the houses adjoining to it. However, Nero, affecting compassion for the multitude, thus vagabond and bereft of their dwellings, laid open the field of Mars, and all the great edifices erected there by Agrippa, and even his own gardens. He likewise caused tabernacles to be reared in haste for the reception of the forlorn populace; from Ostia too, and the neighbouring cities, were brought, by his orders, all sorts of furniture and necessaries, and the price of corn was considerably lessened. But these bounties, however generous and popular, were bestowed in vain, because a report was spread abroad, that, during the time of this general conflagration, he mounted his domestic stage, and sung the destruction of Troy, comparing the present desolation to the celebrated calamities of antiquity. At length, on the sixth day, the fury of the flames was stopped at the foot of mount Esquiline, by levelling with the ground an infinite number of buildings; so that the fire found nothing to encounter, but the open fields and empty air.

But scarce had the late alarm ceased, when the fire broke out anew with fresh rage, but in places more wide and spacious; whence fewer persons were destroyed, but more temples and public porticoes were overthrown. As this second conflagration broke out in certain buildings belonging to Tigellinus, they were both generally ascribed to Nero; and it was conjectured, that, by destroying the old city, he aimed at the glory of building a new one, and calling it by his name. Of the fourteen quarters into which Rome was divided, four remained entire, three were laid in ashes, and, in the seven others, there remained here-and-there a few houses, miserably shattered, and half consumed. Among the many ancient and stately edifices, which the rage of the flames utterly consumed, Tacitus reckons the temple dedicated by Servius Tullius to the Moon; the temple and great altar consecrated by Evander to Hercules; the chapel vowed by Romulus to Jupiter Stator; the court of Numa, with the temple of Vesta, and in it the tutelar gods peculiar to the Romans. In the same fate were involved the inestimable treasures acquired by so many victories, the wonderful works of the best painters and sculptors of Greece, and, what is still more to be lamented, the ancient writings of celebrated authors, till then preserved perfectly entire. It was observed, that the fire began the same day on which the Gauls, having formerly taken the city, burnt it to the ground. Rome.

306 Nero's golden palace.

Upon the ruins of the demolished city, Nero founded a palace, which he called his *golden house*; tho' it was not so much admired on account of an immense profusion of gold, precious stones, and other inestimable ornaments, as for its vast extent, containing spacious fields, large wildernesses, artificial lakes, thick woods, orchards, vineyards, hills, groves, &c. The entrance of this stately edifice was wide enough to receive a colossus, representing Nero, 120 feet high: the galleries, which consisted of three rows of tall pillars, were each a full mile in length: the lakes were encompassed with magnificent buildings, in the manner of cities; and the woods stocked with all manner of wild beasts. The house itself was tiled with gold: the walls were covered with the same metal, and richly adorned with precious stones and mother-of-pearl, which in those days was valued above gold: the timber-work and cielings of the rooms were inlaid with gold and ivory: the roof of one of the banqueting-rooms resembled the firmament both in its figure and motion, turning incessantly about night and day, and showering all sorts of sweet waters. When this magnificent structure was finished, Nero approved of it only so far as to say, that *at length he began to lodge like a man.* Pliny tells us, that this palace extended quite round the city. Nero, it seems, did not finish it; for the first order Otho signed, was, as we read in Suetonius, for fifty millions of sesterces to be employed in perfecting the golden palace which Nero had begun.

307 Undertakes to cut a canal from Avernus to Tiber.

The projectors of the plan were Severus and Celer, two bold and enterprising men, who soon after put the emperor upon a still more expensive and arduous undertaking, namely, that of cutting a canal through hard rocks and steep mountains, from the lake Avernus to the mouth of the Tiber, 160 miles in length, and of such breadth that two galleys of five ranks of oars might easily pass abreast. His view in this was to open a communication between Rome and Campania, free from the troubles and dangers of the sea; for, this very year, a great number of vessels laden with corn were shipwrecked at Misenum, the pilots choosing rather to venture out in a violent storm, than not to arrive at the time they were expected by Nero. For the projecting of this great undertaking, the emperor ordered the prisoners from all parts to be transported into Italy; and such as were convicted, whatever their crimes were, to be condemned only to his works. Nero, who undertook nothing with more ardour and readiness than what was deemed impossible, expended incredible sums in this rash undertaking, and exerted all his might to cut thro' the mountains adjoining to the lake Avernus; but, not being able to remove by art the obstacles of nature, he was in the end obliged to drop the enterprize.

308 Rome rebuilt.

The ground that was not taken up by the foundations of Nero's own palace, he assigned for houses, which were not placed, as after the burning of the city by the Gauls, at random, and without order; but the streets were laid out regularly, spacious and straight; the edifices restrained to a certain height, perhaps of 70 feet, according to the plan of Augustus; the courts

Rome.

were widened; and to all the great houses which stood by themselves, and were called *isles*, large porticos were added, which Nero engaged to raise at his own expence, and to deliver to each proprietor the squares about them clear from all rubbish. He likewise promised rewards according to every man's rank and substance; and fixed a day for the performance of his promise, on condition that against that day their several houses and palaces were finished. He moreover made the following wise regulations to obviate such a dreadful calamity for the future; to wit, That the new buildings should be raised to a certain height without timber; that they should be arched with stone from the quarries of Gabii and Alba, which were proof against fire; that over the common springs, which were diverted by private men for their own uses, overseers should be placed to prevent that abuse; that every citizen should have ready in his house some machine proper to extinguish the fire; that no wall should be common to two houses, but every house be inclosed within its own peculiar walls, &c. Thus the city in a short time rose out of its ashes with new lustre, and more beautiful than ever. However, some believed, that the ancient form was more conducing to health, the rays of the sun being hardly felt on account of the narrowness of the streets and the height of the buildings, whereas now there was no shelter against the scorching heat. We are told, that Nero designed to extend the walls to Ostia, and to bring from thence by a canal the sea into the city.

The emperor used every art to throw the odium of this conflagration upon the Christians, who were at that time gaining ground in Rome. Nothing could be more dreadful than the persecution raised against them upon this false accusation, of which an account is given under the article *Ecclesiastical* History. Hitherto, however, the citizens of Rome seemed comparatively exempted from his cruelties, which chiefly fell upon strangers and his nearest connections; but a conspiracy formed against him by Piso, a man of great power and integrity, which was prematurely discovered, opened a new train of suspicions that destroyed many of the principal families in Rome. This conspiracy, in which several of the chief men of the city were concerned, was first discovered by the indiscreet zeal of a woman named *Epicharis*, who, by some means now unknown, had been let into the plot, which she revealed to Volusius, a tribune, in order to prevail upon him to be an accomplice. Volusius, instead of coming into her design, went and discovered what he had learned to Nero, who immediately put Epicharis in prison. Soon after, a freedman belonging to Scænius, one of the accomplices, made a farther discovery. The conspirators were examined apart; and as their testimonies differed, they were put to the torture. Natalis was the first who made a confession of his own guilt and that of many others. Scævinius gave a list of the conspirators still more ample. Lucan, the poet, was amongst the number; and he, like the rest, in order to save himself, still farther enlarged the catalogue, naming, among others, Attilia, his own mother. Epicharis was now, therefore, again called upon and put to the torture: but her fortitude was proof against all the tyrant's cruelty; neither scourging, nor burning, nor all the malicious methods used by the executioners, could extort the smallest confession. She was therefore remanded to prison, with orders to have her tortures renewed the day following. In the mean time she found an opportunity of strangling herself with her handkerchief, by hanging it against the back of her chair. On the discoveries already made, Piso, Lateranus, Fennius Rufus, Subrius Flavius, Sulpicius Asper, Vestinus the consul, and numberless others, were all executed without mercy. But the two most remarkable personages who fell on this occasion were Seneca the philosopher, and Lucan the poet, who was his nephew. It is not certainly known, whether Seneca was really concerned in this conspiracy or not. This great man had for some time perceived the outrageous conduct of his pupil; and, finding himself incapable of controuling his savage disposition, had retired from court into solitude and privacy. However, his retreat did not now protect him: for Nero, either having real testimony against him, or else hating him for his virtues, sent a tribune to inform him that he was suspected as an accomplice, and soon after sent him an order to put himself to death, with which he complied.

309 The conspiracy of Piso.

In this manner was the whole city filled with slaughter, and frightful instances of treachery. No matter was secure from the vengeance of his slaves, nor even parents from the baser attempts of their children. Not only throughout Rome, but the whole country round, bodies of soldiers were seen in pursuit of the suspected and the guilty. Whole crowds of wretches loaded with chains were led every day to the gates of the palace, to wait their sentence from the tyrant's own lips. He always presided at the torture in person, attended by Tigelinus, captain of the guard, who, from being the most abandoned man in Rome, was now become his principal minister and favourite.

Nor were the Roman provinces in a better situation than the capital city. The example of the tyrant seemed to influence his governors, who gave instances not only of their rapacity, but of their cruelty, in every part of the empire. In the seventh year of his reign, the Britons revolted, under the conduct of their queen Boadicia*; but were at last so completely defeated, that ever after, during the continuance of the Romans among them, they lost not only all hopes, but even all desire of freedom.

* See *England*.

310 Success against the Parthians, &c.

A war also was carried on against the Parthians, for the greatest part of this reign, conducted by Corbulo; who, after many successes, had dispossessed Tiridates, and settled Tigranes in Armenia in his room. Tiridates, however, was soon after restored by an invasion of the Parthians into that country: but being once more opposed by Corbulo, the Romans and Parthians came to an agreement, that Tiridates should continue to govern Armenia, upon condition that he should lay down his crown at the feet of the emperor's statue, and receive it as coming from him; all which he shortly after performed. A ceremony, however, which Nero desired to have repeated to his person; wherefore, by letters and promises, he invited Tiridates to Rome, granting him the most magnificent supplies for his journey. Nero attended his arrival with very sumptuous preparations. He received him seated on a throne, accompanied by the senate standing round him, and the whole army drawn out with all imagi-

nable

Rome.

nable splendor. Tiridates ascended the throne with great reverence; and approaching the emperor, fell down at his feet, and in the most abject terms acknowledged himself his slave. Nero raised him up, telling him with equal arrogance, that he did well, and that by his submission he had gained a kingdom which his ancestors could never acquire by their arms. He then placed the crown on his head, and, after the most costly ceremonies and entertainments, he was sent back to Armenia with incredible sums of money to defray the expences of his return.

311 Revolt of the Jews.

In the 12th year of this emperor's reign, the Jews also revolted, having been severely oppressed by the Roman governor. It is said that Florus, in particular, was arrived at that degree of tyranny, that by public proclamation he gave permission to plunder the country, provided he received half the spoil. These oppressions drew such a train of calamities after them, that the sufferings of all other nations were slight in comparison to what this devoted people afterwards endured, as is related under the article Jews. In the meantime, Nero proceeded in his cruelties at Rome with unabated severity.

The valiant Corbulo, who had gained so many victories over the Parthians, could not escape his fury. Nor did the empress Poppæa herself escape; whom, in a fit of anger, he kicked when she was pregnant, by which she miscarried and died. At last the Romans began to grow weary of such a monster, and there appeared a general revolution in all the provinces.

312 Revolt of Vindex in Gaul.

The first appeared in Gaul, under Julius Vindex, who commanded the legions there, and publicly protested against the tyrannical government of Nero. He appeared to have no other motive for this revolt than that of freeing the world from an oppressor; for when it was told him that Nero had set a reward upon his head of 10,000,000 of sesterces, he made this gallant answer, "Whoever brings me Nero's head, shall, if he pleases, have mine." But still more to show that he was not actuated by motives of private ambition, he proclaimed Sergius Galba, emperor, and invited him to join in the revolt. Galba, who was at that time governor of Spain, was equally remarkable for his wisdom in peace, and his courage in war. But as all talents under corrupt princes are dangerous, he for some years had seemed willing to court obscurity, giving himself up to an inactive life, and avoiding all opportunities of signalizing his valour. He now therefore, either through the caution attending old age, or from a total want of ambition, appeared little inclined to join with Vindex, and continued for some time to deliberate with his friends on the part he should take.

In the mean time, Nero, who had been apprised of the proceedings against him in Gaul, appeared totally regardless of the danger, privately flattering himself that the suppression of this revolt would give him an opportunity of fresh confiscations. But the actual revolt of Galba, the news of which arrived soon after, affected him in a very different manner. The reputation of that general was such, that from the moment he declared against him, Nero considered himself as undone. He received the account as he was at supper; and instantly, struck with terror, overturned the table with his foot, breaking two crystal vases of immense value. He then fell into a swoon; from which when he recovered, he tore his cloaths, and struck his head, crying out, "that he was utterly undone." He then began to meditate slaughters more extensive than he yet had committed. He resolved to massacre all the governors of provinces, to destroy all exiles, and to murder all the Gauls in Rome, as a punishment for the treachery of their countrymen. In short, in the wildness of his rage, he thought of poisoning the whole senate, of burning the city, and turning the lions kept for the purposes of the theatre, out upon the people. These designs being impracticable, he resolved at last to face the danger in person. But his very preparations served to mark the infatuation of his mind. His principal care was, to provide waggons for the convenient carriage of his musical instruments; and to dress out his concubines like Amazons, with whom he intended to face the enemy. He also made a resolution, that if he came off with safety and empire, he would appear again upon the theatre with the lute, and would equip himself as a pantomime.

313 And of Galba.

While Nero was thus frivolously employed, the revolt became general. Not only the armies in Spain and Gaul, but also the legions in Germany, Africa, and Lusitania, declared against him. Virginius Rufus alone, who commanded an army on the Upper Rhine, for a while continued in suspense; during which, his forces without his permission, falling upon the Gauls, routed them with great slaughter, and Vindex slew himself. But this ill success noway advanced the interests of Nero; he was so detested by the whole empire, that he could find none of the armies faithful to him, however they might disagree with each other. He therefore called for Locusta to furnish him with poison; and, thus prepared for the worst, he retired to the Servilian gardens, with a resolution of flying into Egypt. He accordingly dispatched the freedmen, in which he had the most confidence, to prepare a fleet at Ostia; and in the mean while, sounded, in person, the tribunes and centurions of the guard, to know if they were willing to share his fortunes. But they all excused themselves, under divers pretexts. One of them had the boldness to answer him by part of a line from Virgil: *Usque adeone miserum est mori?* "Is death then such a misfortune?" Thus destitute of every resource, all the expedients that cowardice, revenge, or terror could produce, took place in his mind by turns. He at one time resolved to take refuge among the Parthians; at another, to deliver himself up to the mercy of the insurgents: one while, he determined to mount the rostrum, to ask pardon for what was past, and to conclude with promises of amendment for the future. With these gloomy deliberations he went to bed; but waking about midnight, he was surprised to find his guards had left him. The prætorian soldiers, in fact, having been corrupted by their commander, had retired to their camp, and proclaimed Galba emperor. Nero immediately sent for his friends, to deliberate upon his present exigence; but his friends also forsook him. He went in person from house to house; but all the doors were shut against him, and none were found to answer his inquiries. While he was pursuing this inquiry, his very domestics followed the general defection; and having plundered his apartment, escaped different ways. Being now reduced to desperation, he desired that one of his favourite gladiators might come and dispatch him:

314 Miserable situation of Nero.

Rome. him: but even in this request, there was none found to obey. "Alas! (cried he) have I neither friend nor enemy?" And then running desperately forth, seemed resolved to plunge headlong into the Tiber. But just then his courage beginning to fail him, he made a sudden stop, as if willing to recollect his reason; and asked for some secret place, where he might re-assume his courage, and meet death with becoming fortitude. In this distress, Phaon, one of his freedmen, offered him his country-house, at about four miles distant, where he might for some time remain concealed. Nero accepted his offer; and, half dressed as he was, with his head covered, and hiding his face with an handkerchief, he mounted on horseback, attended by four of his domestics, of whom the wretched Sporus was one. His journey, tho' quite short, was crowded with adventures. Round him he heard nothing but confused noises from the camp, and the cries of the soldiers, imprecating a thousand evils upon his head. A passenger, meeting him on the way, cried, "There go men in pursuit of Nero." Another asked him, if there was any news of Nero in the city? His horse taking fright at a dead body that lay near the road, he dropped his handkerchief; and a soldier that was near, addressed him by name. He now therefore quitted his horse, and forsaking the highway, entered a thicket that led towards the back part of Phaon's house, through which he crept, making the best of his way among the reeds and brambles, with which the place was overgrown. When he was arrived at the back part of the house, while he was waiting till there should be a breach made in the wall, he took up some water in the hollow of his hands from a pool to drink; saying, "To this liquor is Nero reduced." When the hole was made large enough to admit him, he crept in upon all-fours, and took a short repose upon a wretched pallet, that had been prepared for his reception. Being pressed by hunger, he demanded somewhat to eat: they brought him a piece of brown bread, which he refused; but drank a little water. During this interval, the senate finding the prætorian guards had taken part with Galba, declared him emperor, and condemned Nero to die *more majorum;* that is, "according to the rigour of the ancient laws." These dreadful tidings were quickly brought by one of Phaon's slaves from the city, while Nero yet continued lingering between his hopes and his fears. When he was told of the resolution of the senate against him, he asked the messenger what he meant by being punished "according to the rigor of the ancient laws?" To this he was answered, that the criminal was to be stripped naked, his head was to be fixed in a pillory, and in that posture he was to be scourged to death. Nero was so terrified at this, that he seized two poniards which he had brought with him, and examining their points, returned them to their sheaths, saying, that the fatal moment was not yet arrived. However, he had little time to spare; for the soldiers who had been sent in pursuit of him were just then approaching the house: wherefore hearing the sound of the horses feet, he set a dagger to his throat, with which, by the assistance of Epaphroditus, his freedman and secretary, he gave himself a mortal wound. He was not quite dead when one of the centurions entering the room, and pretending he came to his relief, attempted to stop the blood with his cloak. But Nero regarding him with a stern countenance, said, "It is now too late. Is this your fidelity?" Upon which, with his eyes fixed, and frightfully staring, he expired, in the 32d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign. Rome.

315 His death.

316 Uneasiness of Galba in the beginning of his reign.

Galba was 72 years old when he was declared emperor, and was then in Spain with his legions. However, he soon found that his being raised to the throne was but an inlet to new disquietudes. His first embarrassment arose from a disorder in his own army; for upon his approaching the camp, one of the wings of horse repenting of their choice, prepared to revolt, and he found it no easy matter to reconcile them to their duty. He also narrowly escaped assassination from some slaves, who were presented to him by one of Nero's freedmen with that intent. The death of Vindex also served to add not a little to his disquietudes; so that, upon his very entrance into the empire, he had some thoughts of putting an end to his own life. But hearing from Rome that Nero was dead, and the empire transferred to him, he immediately assumed the title and ensigns of command. In his journey towards Rome, he was met by Rufus Virginius, who, finding the senate had decreed him the government, came to yield him obedience. This general had more than once refused the empire himself, which was offered him by his soldiers; alleging, that the senate alone had the disposal of it, and from them only he would accept the honour.

317 Faults in his administration.

Galba having been brought to the empire by means of his army, was at the same time willing to suppress their power to commit any future disturbance. His first approach to Rome was attended with one of those rigorous strokes of justice which ought rather to be denominated *cruelty*, than any thing else. A body of mariners, whom Nero had taken from the oar and enlisted among the legions, went to meet Galba, three miles from the city, and with loud importunities demanded a confirmation of what his predecessor had done in their favour. Galba, who was rigidly attached to the ancient discipline, deferred their request to another time. But they, considering this delay as equivalent to an absolute denial, insisted in a very disrespectful manner; and some of them even had recourse to arms: whereupon Galba ordered a body of horse attending him, to ride in among them, and thus killed 7000 of them; but not content with this punishment, he afterwards ordered them to be decimated. Their insolence demanded correction; but such extensive punishments deviated into cruelty. His next step to curb the insolence of the soldiers, was his discharging the German cohort, which had been established by the former emperors as a guard to their persons. Those he sent home to their own country unrewarded; pretending they were disaffected to his person. He seemed to have two other objects also in view: namely, to punish those vices which had come to an enormous height in the last reign, with the strictest severity; and to replenish the exchequer, which had been quite drained by the prodigality of his predecessors. But these attempts only brought on him the imputation of severity and avarice; for the state was too much corrupted to admit of such an immediate transition from vice to virtue. The people had long been maintained in sloth and luxury by the prodigality of the former emperors, and could not think of being obliged to seek for new means of

of subsistence, and to retrench their superfluities. They began therefore to satirize the old man, and turn the simplicity of his manners into ridicule. Among the marks of avarice recorded of him, he is said to have proaned upon having an expensive soup served up to his table; he is said to have presented to his steward, for his fidelity, a plate of beans; a famous player upon the flute, named *Canus*, having greatly delighted him, it is reported, that he drew out his purse and gave him five-pence, telling him, that it was private, and not public money. By such ill-judged frugalities, at such a time, Galba began to lose his popularity; and he, who before his accession was esteemed by all, being become emperor, was considered with ridicule and contempt. But there are some circumstances alleged against him, less equivocal than those trifling ones already mentioned. Shortly after his coming to Rome, the people were presented with a most grateful spectacle; which was that of Locusta, Elius, Policletus, Petronius, and Petinus, all the bloody ministers of Nero's cruelty, drawn in fetters through the city, and publicly executed. But Tigelinus, who had been more active than all the rest, was not there. The crafty villain had taken care for his own safety, by the largeness of his bribes; and though the people cried out for vengeance against him, at the theatre, and at the circus, yet the emperor granted him his life and pardon. Helotus, the eunuch, also, who had been the instrument of poisoning Claudius, escaped, and owed his safety to the proper application of his wealth. Thus, by the inequality of his conduct, he became despicable to his subjects. At one time, shewing himself severe and frugal; at another, remiss and prodigal; condemning some illustrious persons without any hearing, and pardoning others though guilty: in short, nothing was done but by the mediation of his favourites; all offices were venal, and all punishments redeemable by money.

Affairs were in this unsettled posture at Rome, when the provinces were yet in a worse condition. The success of the army in Spain in choosing an emperor, induced the legions in the other parts to wish for a similar opportunity. Accordingly, many seditions were kindled, and several factions promoted in different parts of the empire, but particularly in Germany. There were then in that province, two Roman armies; the one which had lately attempted to make Rufus Virginius emperor, as has been already mentioned, and which was commanded by his lieutenant: the other commanded by Vitellius, who long had an ambition to obtain the empire for himself. The former of these armies despising their present general, and considering themselves as suspected by the emperor for having been the last to acknowledge his title, resolved now to be foremost in denying it. Accordingly, when they were summoned to take the oaths of homage and fidelity, they refused to acknowledge any other commands but those of the senate. This refusal they backed by a message of the prætorian bands, importing, that they were resolved not to acquiesce in the election of an emperor created in Spain, and desiring that the senate should proceed to a new choice.

Galba being informed of this commotion, was sensible, that, beside his age, he was less respected for want of an heir. He resolved therefore to put what he had formerly designed in execution, and to adopt some person whose virtues might deserve such advancement, and protect his declining age from danger. His favourites understanding his determination, instantly resolved to give him an heir of their own choosing; so that there arose a great contention among them upon this occasion. Otho made warm application for himself; alleging the great services he had done the emperor, as being the first man of note who came to his assistance when he had declared against Nero. However, Galba, being fully resolved to consult the public good alone, rejected his suit; and on a day appointed, ordered Piso Lucinianus to attend him. The character given by historians of Piso is, that he was every way worthy of the honour designed him. He was noway related to Galba; and had no other interest but merit to recommend him to his favour. Taking this youth therefore by the hand, in the presence of his friends, he adopted him to succeed in the empire, giving him the most wholesome lessons for guiding his future conduct. Piso's conduct showed that he was highly deserving this distinction: in all his deportment there appeared such modesty, firmness, and equality of mind, as bespoke him rather capable of discharging, than ambitious of obtaining, his present dignity. But the army and the senate did not seem equally disinterested upon this occasion; they had been long used to bribery and corruption, that they could now bear no emperor who was not in a capacity of satisfying their avarice. The adoption therefore of Piso was but coldly received; for his virtues were no recommendation in a nation of universal depravity.

318 Otho declared emperor.

Otho now finding his hopes of adoption wholly frustrated, and still further stimulated by the immense load of debt which he had contracted by his riotous way of living, resolved upon obtaining the empire by force, since he could not by peaceable succession. In fact, his circumstances were so very desperate, that he was heard to say, that it was equal to him whether he fell by his enemies in the field, or by his creditors in the city. He therefore raised a moderate sum of money, by selling his interest to a person who wanted a place; and with this bribed two subaltern officers in the prætorian bands, supplying the deficiency of largesses by promises and plausible pretences. Having in this manner, in less than eight days, corrupted the fidelity of the soldiers, he stole secretly from the emperor while he was sacrificing; and assembling the soldiers, in a short speech urged the cruelties and avarice of Galba. Finding these his invectives received with universal shouts by the whole army, he entirely threw off the mask, and avowed his intentions of dethroning him. The soldiers being ripe for sedition, immediately seconded his views: taking Otho upon their shoulders, they immediately proclaimed him emperor; and, to strike the citizens with terror, carried him with their swords drawn into the camp.

319 Galba marvelled.

Galba, in the mean time, being informed of the revolt of the army, seemed utterly confounded, and indeed want of sufficient resolution to face an event which he should have long foreseen. In this manner the poor old man continued wavering and doubtful; till at last, being deluded by a false report of Otho's being slain, he rode into the forum in complete armour, attended by many of his followers. Just at the same instant, a body

Rome. body of horſe ſent from the camp to deſtroy him, entered on the oppoſite ſide, and each party prepared for the encounter. For ſome time hoſtilities were ſuſpended on each ſide; Galba confuſed and irreſolute, and his antagoniſts ſtruck with horror at the baſeneſs of their enterpriſe. At length, however, finding the emperor in ſome meaſure deſerted by his adherents, they ruſhed in upon him, trampling under foot the crowds of people that then filled the forum. Galba ſeeing them approach, ſeemed to recollect all his former fortitude; and bending his head forward, bid the aſſaſſins ſtrike it off if it were for the good of the people. This was quickly performed; and his head being ſet upon the point of a lance, was preſented to Otho, who ordered it to be contemptuouſly carried round the camp; his body remaining expoſed in the ſtreets, till it was buried by one of his ſlaves. He died in the 73d year of his age, after a ſhort reign of ſeven months.

No ſooner was Galba thus murdered, than the ſenate and people ran in crowds to the camp, contending who ſhould be foremoſt in extolling the virtues of the new emperor, and depreſſing the character of him they had ſo unjuſtly deſtroyed. Each laboured to excel the reſt in his inſtances of homage; and the leſs his affections were for him, the more did he indulge all the vehemence of exaggerated praiſe. Otho finding himſelf ſurrounded by congratulating multitudes, immediately repaired to the ſenate, where he received the titles uſually given to the emperors; and from thence returned to the palace, ſeemingly reſolved to reform his life, and aſſume manners becoming the greatneſs of his ſtation.

He began his reign by a ſignal inſtance of clemency, in pardoning Marius Celſus, who had been highly favoured by Galba; and not contented with barely forgiving, he advanced him to the higheſt honours; aſſerting, that "fidelity deſerved every reward." This act of clemency was followed by another of juſtice, equally agreeable to the people. Tigellinus, Nero's favourite, he who had been the promoter of all his cruelties, was now put to death; and all ſuch as had been unjuſtly baniſhed, or ſtripped, at his inſtigation, during Nero's reign, were reſtored to their country and fortunes.

320 Vitellius revolts. In the mean time, the legions in Lower Germany, having been purchaſed by the large gifts and ſpecious promiſes of Vitellius their general, were at length induced to proclaim him emperor; and regardleſs of the ſenate, declared that they had an equal right to appoint to that high ſtation with the cohorts at Rome. The news of this conduct in the army ſoon ſpread conſternation throughout Rome; but Otho was particularly ſtruck with the account, as being apprehenſive that nothing but the blood of his countrymen could decide a conteſt of which his own ambition only was the cauſe. He now therefore fought to come to an agreement with Vitellius; but this not ſucceeding, both ſides began their preparations for war. News being received that Vitellius was upon his march to Italy, Otho departed from Rome with a vaſt army to oppoſe him. But though he was very powerful with regard to numbers, his men, being little uſed to war, could not be relied on. He ſeemed by his behaviour ſenſible of the diſproportion of his forces; and he is ſaid to have been tortured with frightful dreams and the moſt uneaſy apprehenſions. It is alſo reported by ſome, that one night fetching many profound ſighs in his ſleep, his ſervants ran haſtily to his bed-ſide, and found him ſtretched on the ground. He alleged he had ſeen the ghoſt of Galba, which had, in a threatening manner, beat and puſhed him from the bed; and he afterwards uſed many expiations to appeaſe it. However this be, he proceeded with a great ſhow of courage till he arrived at the city of Brixellum, on the river Po, where he remained, ſending his forces before him under the conduct of his generals Suetonius and Celſus, who made what haſte they could to give the enemy battle. The army of Vitellius, which conſiſted of 70,000 men, was commanded by his generals Valens and Cecina, he himſelf remaining in Gaul in order to bring up the reſt of his forces. Thus both ſides haſtened to meet each other with ſo much animoſity and precipitation, that three conſiderable battles were fought in the ſpace of three days. One near Placentia, another near Cremona, and a third at a place called *Caſtor;* in all which, Otho had the advantage. But theſe ſucceſſes were but of ſhort-lived continuance; for Valens and Cecina, who had hitherto acted ſeparately, joining their forces, and reinforcing their armies with freſh ſupplies, reſolved to come to a general engagement. Otho, who by this time had joined his army at a little village called *Bedriacum*, finding the enemy, notwithſtanding their late loſſes, inclined to come to a battle, reſolved to call a council of war to determine upon the proper meaſures to be taken. His generals were of opinion to protract the war: but others, whoſe inexperience had given them confidence, declared, that nothing but a battle could relieve the miſeries of the ſtate; proteſting, that Fortune, and all the gods, with the divinity of the emperor himſelf, favoured the deſign, and would undoubtedly proſper the enterpriſe. In this advice Otho acquieſced: he had been for ſome time ſo uneaſy under the war, that he ſeemed willing to exchange ſuſpenſe for danger. However, he was ſo ſurrounded with flatterers, that he was prohibited from being perſonally preſent in the engagement, but prevailed upon to reſerve himſelf for the fortune of the empire, and wait the event at Brixellum. The affairs of both armies being thus adjuſted, they came to an engagement at Bedriacum; where, in the beginning, thoſe on the ſide of Otho ſeemed to have the advantage. At length, the ſuperior diſcipline of the legions of Vitellius turned the ſcale of victory. Otho's army fled in great confuſion towards Bedriacum, being purſued with a miſerable ſlaughter all the way.

321 Otho defeated at Bedriacum.

322 Deſpairs, and kills himſelf. In the mean time, Otho waited for the news of the battle with great impatience, and ſeemed to tax his meſſengers with delay. The firſt account of his defeat was brought him by a common ſoldier, who had eſcaped from the field of battle. However, Otho, who was ſtill ſurrounded by flatterers, was deſired to give no credit to a baſe fugitive, who was guilty of falſehoood only to cover his own cowardice. The ſoldier, however, ſtill perſiſted in the veracity of his report; and, finding none inclined to believe him, immediately fell upon his ſword, and expired at the emperor's feet. Otho was ſo much ſtruck with the death of this man, that he cried out, that he would cauſe the ruin of no more ſuch valiant and worthy ſoldiers, but would end the conteſt the ſhorteſt way; and therefore having exhort-

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ed his followers to submit to Vitellius, he put an end to his own life.

It was no sooner known that Otho had killed himself, than all the soldiers repaired to Virginius, the commander of the German legions, earnestly intreating him to take upon him the reins of government; or at least, intreating his mediation with the generals of Vitellius in their favour. Upon his declining their request, Rubrius Gallus, a person of considerable note, undertook their embassy to the generals of the conquering army; and soon after obtained a pardon for all the adherents of Otho.

325 Vitellius declared emperor.

Vitellius was immediately after declared emperor by the senate; and received the marks of distinction which were now accustomed to follow the appointment of the strongest side. At the same time, Italy was severely distressed by the soldiers, who committed such outrages as exceeded all the oppressions of the most calamitous war. Vitellius, who was yet in Gaul, resolved, before he set out for Rome, to punish the prætorian cohorts, who had been the instruments of all the late disturbances in the state. He therefore caused them to be disarmed, and deprived of the name and honour of soldiers. He also ordered 150 of those who were most guilty to be put to death.

As he approached towards Rome, he passed through the towns with all imaginable splendor; his passage by water was in painted galleys, adorned with garlands of flowers, and profusely furnished with the greatest delicacies. In his journey there was neither order nor discipline among his soldiers; they plundered wherever they came, with impunity; and he seemed no way displeased with the licentiousness of their behaviour.

Upon his arrival at Rome, he entered the city, not as a place he came to govern with justice, but as a town that became his own by the laws of conquest. He marched through the streets mounted on horseback, all in armour; the senate and people going before him, as if the captives of his late victory. He the next day made the senate a speech, in which he magnified his own actions, and promised them extraordinary advantages from his administration. He then harangued the people, who, being now long accustomed to flatter all in authority, highly applauded and blessed their new emperor.

326 His shameful gluttony, and other vices.

In the mean time, his soldiers being permitted to satiate themselves in the debaucheries of the city, grew totally unfit for war. The principal affairs of the state were managed by the lowest wretches. Vitellius, more abandoned than they, gave himself up to all kinds of luxury and profuseness: but gluttony was his favourite vice, so that he brought himself to a habit of vomiting, in order to renew his meals at pleasure. His entertainments, though seldom at his own cost, were prodigiously expensive; he frequently invited himself to the tables of his subjects, breakfasting with one, dining with another, and supping with a third, all in the same day. The most memorable of these entertainments, was that made for him by his brother on his arrival at Rome. In this were served up 2000 several dishes of fish, and 7000 of fowl, of the most valuable kinds. But in one particular dish, he seemed to have outdone all the former profusion of the most luxurious Romans. This dish, which was of such magnitude as to be called the *shield of Minerva*, was filled with an olio made from the sounds of the fish called *scarri*, the brains of pheasants and woodcocks, the tongues of the most costly birds, and the spawn of lampreys brought from the Carpathian sea. In order to cook this dish properly, a furnace was built in the fields, as it was too large for any kitchen to contain it.

In this manner did Vitellius proceed; so that Josephus tells us, if he had reigned long, the whole empire would not have been sufficient to have maintained his gluttony. All the attendants of his court fought to raise themselves, not by their virtues and abilities, but the sumptuousness of their entertainments. This prodigality produced its attendant, want; and that, in turn, gave rise to cruelty.

Those who had formerly been his associates, were now destroyed without mercy. Going to visit one of them in a violent fever, he mingled poison with his water, and delivered it to him with his own hands. He never pardoned those money-lenders who came to demand payment of his former debts. One of the number coming to salute him, he immediately ordered him to be carried off to execution; but shortly after, commanding him to be brought back, when all his attendants thought it was to pardon the unhappy creditor, Vitellius gave them soon to understand, that it was merely to have the pleasure of feeding his eyes with his torments. Having condemned another to death, he executed his two sons with him, only for their presuming to intercede for their father. A Roman knight being dragged away to execution, and crying out that he had made the emperor his heir, Vitellius demanded to see the will, where finding himself joint heir with another, he ordered both to be executed, that he might enjoy the legacy without a partner.

By the continuance of such vices and cruelties as these, he became odious to all mankind, and the astrologers began to prognosticate his ruin. A writing was set up in the forum to this effect: "We, in the name of the ancient Chaldeans, give Vitellius warning to depart this life by the calends of October." Vitellius, on his part, received this information with terror, and ordered all the astrologers to be banished from Rome. An old woman having foretold, that if he survived his mother, he should reign many years in happiness and security, this gave him a desire of putting her to death; which he did, by refusing her sustenance, under the pretence of its being prejudicial to her health. But he soon saw the futility of relying upon such vain prognostications; for his soldiers, by their cruelty and rapine, having become insupportable to the inhabitants of Rome, the legions of the East, who had at first acquiesced in his dominion, began to revolt, and shortly after unanimously resolved to make Vespasian emperor.

327 Vespasian proclaimed emperor.

Vespasian, who was appointed commander against the rebellious Jews, had reduced most of their country, except Jerusalem, to subjection. The death of Nero, however, had at first interrupted the progress of his arms, and the succession of Galba gave a temporary check to his conquests, as he was obliged to send his son Titus to Rome, to receive that emperor's commands. Titus, however, was so long detained by contrary winds, that he received news of Galba's death before he set sail. He then resolved to continue neuter, during the civil wars between Otho and Vitellius; and when

Rome. when the latter prevailed, he gave him his homage with reluctance. But being desirous of acquiring reputation, though he disliked the government, he determined to lay siege to Jerusalem, and actually made preparations for that great undertaking, when he was given to understand, that Vitellius was detested by all ranks in the empire. These murmurings increased every day, while Vespasian secretly endeavoured to advance the discontents of the army. By these means they began at length to fix their eyes upon him as the person the most capable and willing to terminate the miseries of his country, and put a period to the injuries it suffered. Not only the legions under his command, but those in Mœsia and Pannonia came to the same resolution, so that they declared themselves for Vespasian. He was also without his own consent proclaimed emperor at Alexandria, the army there confirming it with extraordinary applause, and paying their accustomed homage. Still, however, Vespasian seemed to decline the honour done him; till at length his soldiers compelled him, with their threats of immediate death, to accept a title, which, in all probability, he wished to enjoy. He now, therefore, called a council of war: where it was resolved, that his son Titus should carry on the war against the Jews; and that Mutianus, one of his generals, should, with the greatest part of his legions, enter Italy; while Vespasian himself should levy forces in all parts of the east, in order to reinforce them in case of necessity.

During these preparations, Vitellius, tho' buried in sloth and luxury, was resolved to make an effort to defend the empire; wherefore his chief commanders, Valens and Cecina, were ordered to make all possible preparations to resist the invaders. The first army that entered Italy with an hostile intention, was under the command of Antonius Primus, who was met by Cecina near Cremona. A battle was expected to ensue; but a negociation taking place, Cecina was prevailed upon to change sides, and declare for Vespasian. His army, however, quickly repented of what they had done; and imprisoning their general, attacked Antonius, though without a leader. The engagement continued during the whole night: in the morning, after a short repast, both armies engaged a second time; when the soldiers of Antonius saluting the rising sun, according to custom, the Vitellians supposing that they had received new reinforcements, betook themselves to flight, with the loss of 30,000 men. Shortly after, freeing their general Cecina from prison, they prevailed upon him to intercede with the conquerors for pardon; which they obtained, tho' not without the most horrid barbarities committed upon Cremona, the city to which they had retired for shelter.

328 Vitellius defeated.

When Vitellius was informed of the defeat of his army, his former insolence was converted into an extreme of timidity and irresolution. At length he commanded Julius Priscus, and Alphenus Varus, with some forces that were in readiness, to guard the passes of the Appennines, to prevent the enemy's march to Rome; reserving the principal body of his army to secure the city, under the command of his brother Lucius. But being persuaded to repair to his army in person, his presence only served to increase the contempt of his soldiers. He there appeared irresolute, and still luxurious, without counsel or conduct, ignorant of war, and demanding from others those instructions which it was his duty to give. After a short continuance in the camp, and understanding the revolt of his fleet, he returned once more to Rome: but every day only served to render his affairs still more desperate; till at last he made offers to Vespasian of resigning the empire, provided his life were granted, and a sufficient revenue for his support. In order to enforce his request, he issued from his palace in deep mourning, with all his domestics weeping round him. He then went to offer the sword of justice to Cecilius, the consul; which he refusing, the abject emperor prepared to lay down the ensigns of the empire in the temple of Concord. But being interrupted by some, who cried out, That he himself was Concord, he resolved, upon so weak an encouragement, still to maintain his power, and immediately prepared for his defence.

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During this fluctuation of counsels, one Sabinus, who had advised Vitellius to resign, perceiving his desperate situation, resolved, by a bold step, to oblige Vespasian, and accordingly seized upon the Capitol. But he was premature in his attempt; for the soldiers of Vitellius attacked him with great fury, and, prevailing by their numbers, soon laid that beautiful building in ashes. During this dreadful conflagration, Vitellius was feasting in the palace of Tiberius, and beholding all the horrors of the assault with great satisfaction. Sabinus was taken prisoner, and shortly after executed by the emperor's command. Young Domitian, his nephew, who was afterwards emperor, escaped by flight, in the habit of a priest; and all the rest who survived the fire were put to the sword.

329 The capitol burnt.

But this success served little to improve the affairs of Vitellius. He vainly sent messenger after messenger, to bring Vespasian's general, Antonius, to a composition. This commander gave no answer to his requests, but still continued his march towards Rome. Being arrived before the walls of the city, the forces of Vitellius were resolved upon defending it to the utmost extremity. It was attacked on three sides, with the utmost fury; while the army within, sallying upon the besiegers, defended it with equal obstinacy. The battle lasted a whole day, till at last the besieged were driven into the city, and a dreadful slaughter made of them in all the streets, which they vainly attempted to defend. In the mean time, the citizens stood by, looking on as both sides fought; and, as if they had been in a theatre, clapped their hands; at one time encouraging one party, and again the other. As either turned their backs, the citizens would then fall upon them in their places of refuge, and so kill and plunder them without mercy. But what was still more remarkable, during these dreadful slaughters both within and without the city, the people would not be prevented from celebrating one of their riotous feasts, called the *Saturnalia*; so that at one time might have been seen a strange mixture of mirth and misery, of cruelty and lewdness; in one place, buryings and slaughters; in another, drunkenness and feasting; in a word, all the horrors of a civil war, and all the licentiousness of the most abandoned security!

330 Dreadful situation Rome.

During this complicated scene of misery, Vitellius retired privately to his wife's house, upon mount Aventine,

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tine, designing that night to fly to the army commanded by his brother at Tarracina. But, quite incapable, through fear, of forming any resolution, he changed his mind, and returned again to his palace, now void and desolate; all his slaves forsaking him in his distress, and purposely avoiding his presence. There, after wandering for some time, quite disconsolate, and fearing the face of every creature he met, he hid himself in an obscure corner, from whence he was soon taken by a party of the conquering soldiers. Still, however, willing to add a few hours more to his miserable life, he begged to be kept in prison till the arrival of Vespasian at Rome, pretending that he had secrets of importance to discover. But his intreaties were vain: the soldiers binding his hands behind him, and throwing an halter round his neck, led him along, half naked, into the public forum, upbraiding him, as they proceeded, with all those bitter reproaches their malice could suggest, or his own cruelty could deserve. They also tied his hair backwards, as was usual with the most infamous malefactors, and held the point of a sword under his chin, to prevent his hiding his face from the public. Some cast dirt and filth upon him as he passed, others struck him with their hands; some ridiculed the defects of his person, his red fiery face, and the enormous greatness of his belly. At length, being come to the place of punishment, they killed him with many blows; and then dragging the dead body through the streets with an hook, they threw it, with all possible ignominy, into the river Tiber. Such was the miserable end of this emperor, in the 57th year of his age, after a short reign of eight months and five days.

331 Dreadful cruelties practised by the soldiers.

Vitellius being dead, the conquering army pursued their enemies throughout the city, while neither houses nor temples afforded refuge to the fugitives. The streets and public places were all strewed with dead, each man lying slain where it was his misfortune to be overtaken by his unmerciful pursuers. But not only the enemy suffered in this manner, but many of the citizens, who were obnoxious to the soldiers, were dragged from their houses, and killed without any form of trial. The heat of their resentment being somewhat abated, they next began to seek for plunder; and under pretence of searching for the enemy, left no place without marks of their rage or rapacity. Besides the soldiers, the lower rabble joined in these detestable outrages; some slaves came and discovered the riches of their masters; some were detected by their nearest friends; the whole city was filled with outcry and lamentation; insomuch, that the former ravages of Otho and Vitellius were now considered as slight evils in comparison.

At length, however, upon the arrival of Mutianus, general to Vespasian, these slaughters ceased, and the state began to wear the appearance of former tranquillity. Vespasian was declared emperor, by the unanimous consent both of the senate and the army; and dignified with all those titles, which now followed rather the power than the merit of those who were appointed to govern. Messengers were dispatched to him into Egypt, desiring his return, and testifying the utmost desire for his government. However, the winter being dangerous for sailing, he deferred his voyage to a more convenient season. Perhaps, also, the dissensions in other parts of the empire retarded his return to Rome; for one Claudius Civilis, in Lower Germany, excited his countrymen to revolt, and destroyed the Roman garrisons, which were placed in different parts of that province. But, to give his rebellion an air of justice, he caused his army to swear allegiance to Vespasian, until he found himself in a condition to throw off the mask. When he thought himself sufficiently powerful, he disclaimed all submission to the Roman government; and having overcome one or two of the lieutenants of the empire, and being joined by such of the Romans as refused obedience to the new emperor, he boldly advanced to give Cerealis, Vespasian's general, battle. In the beginning of this engagement, he seemed successful, breaking the Roman legions, and putting their cavalry to flight. But at length Cerealis by his conduct turned the fate of the day, and not only routed the enemy, but took and destroyed their camp. This engagement, however, was not decisive; several others ensued with doubtful success. An accommodation at length took place. Civilis obtained peace for his countrymen, and pardon for himself; for the Roman empire, was, at this time, so torn by its own divisions, that the barbarous nations around made incursions with impunity, and were sure of obtaining peace whenever they thought proper to demand it.

332 Vespasian proclaimed emperor of Rome.

333 Revolt of Claudius Civilis.

334 Irruption of the Sarmatians.

During the time of these commotions in Germany, the Sarmatians, a barbarous nation in the north-east of the empire, suddenly passed the river Iser, and marched into the Roman dominions with such celerity and fury, as to destroy several garrisons, and an army under the command of Fonteius Agrippa. However, they were driven back, by Rubrius Gallus, Vespasian's lieutenant, into their native forests; where several attempts were made to confine them by garrisons and forts, placed along the confines of their country. But these hardy nations, having once found the way into the empire, never after desisted from invading it upon every opportunity, till at length they over-ran and destroyed it entirely.

Vespasian continued some months at Alexandria in Egypt, where it is said he cured a blind and a lame man by touching them. Before he set out for Rome, he gave his son Titus the command of the army that was to lay siege to Jerusalem; while he himself went forward, and was met many miles from Rome by all the senate, and near half the inhabitants, who gave the sincerest testimonies of their joy, in having an emperor of such great and experienced virtues. Nor did he in the least disappoint their expectations; being equally assiduous in rewarding merit, and pardoning his adversaries; in reforming the manners of the citizens, and setting them the best example in his own.

335 Titus sent against Jerusalem.

In the mean time, Titus carried on the war against the Jews with vigour, which ended in the terrible destruction of the city, mentioned under the article Jews. After which his soldiers would have crowned Titus as conqueror; but he refused the honour, alleging, that he was only an instrument in the hand of Heaven, that manifestly declared its wrath against the Jews. At Rome, however, all mouths were filled with the praises of the conqueror, who had not only showed himself an excellent general, but a courageous combatant:

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batant: his return, therefore, in triumph, which he did with his father, was marked with all the magnificence and joy that was in the power of men to express. All things that were esteemed valuable or beautiful among men, were brought to adorn this great occasion. Among the rich spoils were exposed vast quantities of gold taken out of the temple; but the book of their law was not the least remarkable amongst the magnificent profusion. A triumphal arch was erected upon this occasion, on which were described all the victories of Titus over the Jews, which remains almost entire to this very day. Vespasian likewise built a temple to Peace, wherein were deposited most of the Jewish spoils; and having now calmed all the commotions in every part of the empire, he shut up the temple of Janus, which had been open about five or six years.

336 Various abuses reformed by Vespasian.

Vespasian having thus given security and peace to the empire, resolved to correct numberless abuses which had grown up under the tyranny of his predecessors. To effect this with greater ease, he joined Titus with him in the consulship and tribunitial power, and in some measure admitted him a partner in all the highest offices of the state. He began with restraining the licentiousness of the army, and forcing them back to their pristine discipline. He abridged the processes that had been carried to an unreasonable length in the courts of justice. He took care to rebuild such parts of the city as had suffered in the late commotions; particularly the Capitol, which had been lately burnt; and which he now restored to more than former magnificence. He likewise built a famous amphitheatre, the ruins of which are to this day an evidence of its ancient grandeur. The other ruinous cities of the empire also shared his paternal care; he improved such as were declining, adorned others, and built many anew. In such acts as these, he passed a long reign of clemency and moderation; so that it is said, no man suffered by an unjust or a severe decree during his administration.

337 Adventures and death of Julius Sabinus.

Julius Sabinus seems to be the only person who was treated with greater rigour than was usual with this emperor. Sabinus was commander of a small army in Gaul, and had declared himself emperor upon the death of Vitellius. However, his army was shortly after overcome by Vespasian's general, and he himself compelled to seek safety by flight. He for some time wandered thro' the Roman provinces, without being discovered: but finding the pursuit every day become closer, he was obliged to hide himself in a cave; in which he remained concealed for no less than nine years, attended all the time by his faithful wife Empona, who provided provisions for him by day, and repaired to him by night. However, she was at length discovered in the performance of this pious office, and Sabinus was taken prisoner and carried to Rome. Great intercession was made to the emperor in his behalf: Empona herself appearing with her two children, and imploring her husband's pardon. However, neither her tears nor intreaties could prevail; Sabinus had been too dangerous a rival for mercy; so that, tho' she and her children were spared, her husband suffered by the executioner.

338 Clemency and good qualities of the emperor.

But this seems to be the only instance in which he resented past offences. He caused the daughter of Vitellius, his avowed enemy, to be married into a noble family, and he himself provided her a suitable fortune. One of Nero's servants coming to beg for pardon for having once rudely thrust him out of the palace, and insulted him when in office, Vespasian only took his revenge by serving him just in the same manner. When any plots or conspiracies were formed against him, he disdained to punish the guilty, saying, That they deserved rather his contempt for their ignorance, than his resentment; as they seemed to envy him a dignity of which he daily experienced the uneasiness. His liberality towards the encouragement of arts and learning, was not less than his clemency. He settled a constant salary of 100,000 sesterces upon the teachers of rhetoric. He was particularly favourable to Josephus, the Jewish historian. Quinctilian the orator, and Pliny the naturalist, flourished in his reign, and were highly esteemed by him. He was no less an encourager of all other excellencies in art; and invited the greatest masters and artificers from all parts of the world, making them considerable presents, as he found occasion.

Yet all his numerous acts of generosity and magnificence could not preserve his character from the imputation of rapacity and avarice. He revived many obsolete methods of taxation; and even bought and sold commodities himself, in order to increase his fortune. He is charged with advancing the most avaricious governors to the provinces, in order to share their plunder on their return to Rome. He defended to some very unusual and dishonourable imposts, even to the laying a tax upon urine. When his son Titus remonstrated against the meanness of such a tax, Vespasian taking a piece of money, demanded if the smell offended him; and then added, that this very money was produced by urine. But in excuse for this, we must observe, that the exchequer, when Vespasian came to the throne, was so much exhausted, that he informed the senate that it would require a supply of three hundred millions (of our money) to re-establish the commonwealth. This necessity must naturally produce more numerous and heavy taxations than the empire had hither to experienced: but while the provinces were thus obliged to contribute to the support of his power, he took every precaution to provide for their safety; so that we find but two insurrections in this reign.—In the fourth year of his reign, Antiochus king of Comagena, holding a private correspondence with the Parthians, the declared enemies of Rome, was taken prisoner in Cilicia, by Pyrrhus the governor, and sent bound to Rome. But Vespasian generously prevented all ill treatment, by giving him a residence at Lacedæmon, and allowing him a revenue suitable to his dignity. About the same time also, the Alani, a barbarous people inhabiting along the river Tanais, abandoned their barren wilds, and invaded the kingdom of Media. From thence passing into Armenia, after great ravages, they overthrew Tiridates, the king of that country, with prodigious slaughter. Titus was at length sent to chastise their insolence: but the barbarians retired at the approach of the Roman army, loaden with plunder; being compelled to wait a more favourable opportunity of renewing their irruptions. These incursions, however, were but a transient storm, the effects of which were soon repaired by the emperor's moderation,

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deration and assiduity. We are told, that he now formed and established a thousand nations, which had scarcely before amounted to 200. No provinces in the empire lay out of his view and protection. He had, during his whole reign, a particular regard to Britain; his generals, Petilius Cerealis, and Julius Frontinus, brought the greatest part of the island into subjection; and Agricola, who succeeded soon after, compleated what they had begun. See ENGLAND.

339 Death of Vespasian.

In this manner, having reigned 10 years, loved by his subjects, and deserving their affection, he was surprised by an indisposition at Campania, which he at once declared would be fatal, crying out, in the spirit of Paganism, "Methinks I am going to be a God." Removing from thence to the city, and afterwards to a country-seat near Reate, he was there taken with a flux, which brought him to the last extremity. However, perceiving his end approach, and just going to expire, he cried out, that an emperor ought to die standing; wherefore, raising himself upon his feet, he expired in the hands of those that sustained him.

340 Titus succeeds to the Empire.

Titus being joyfully received as emperor, notwithstanding a slight opposition from his brother Domitian, who maintained that he himself was appointed, and that Titus had falsified the will, began his reign with every virtue that became an emperor and a man. During the life of his father there had been many imputations against him; but upon his exaltation to the throne, he seemed entirely to take leave of his former vices, and became an example of the greatest moderation and humanity. He had long loved Berenice, sister to Agrippa king of Judea, a woman of the greatest beauty and allurements. But knowing that the connection with her was entirely disagreeable to the people of Rome, he sent her away, notwithstanding their mutual passion and the many arts she used to induce him to change his resolutions. He next discarded all those who had been the former ministers of his pleasures, and forebore to countenance the companions of his looser recreations, though he had formerly taken great pains in the selection. This moderation, added to his justice and generosity, procured him the love of all good men, and the appellation of the *delight of mankind;* which all his actions seemed calculated to ensure. As he came to the throne with all the advantages of his father's popularity, he was resolved to use every method to increase it. He therefore took particular care to punish all informers, false witnesses, and promoters of dissension; condemning them to be scourged in the most public streets, next to be dragged through the theatre, and then to be banished to the uninhabited parts of the empire, and sold as slaves. His courtesy and readiness to do good have been celebrated even by Christian writers; his principal rule being, never to send any petitioner dissatisfied away. One night, recollecting that he had done nothing beneficial to mankind the day preceding, he cried out among his friends, "I have lost a day." A sentence too remarkable not to be universally known.

341 A dreadful irruption of Vesuvius.

In this reign, an eruption of mount Vesuvius did considerable damage, overwhelming many towns, and sending its ashes into countries more than 100 miles distant. Upon this memorable occasion, Pliny the naturalist lost his life; for, being impelled by too eager a curiosity to observe the eruption, he was suffocated in the flames*. There happened also about this time a fire at Rome, which continued three days and nights, successively, which was followed by a plague, in which 10,000 men were buried in a day. The emperor, however, did all that lay in his power to repair the damage sustained by the public; and, with respect to the city, declared that he would take the whole loss of it upon himself. These disasters were in some measure counterbalanced by the successes in Britain, under Agricola. This excellent general having been sent into that country towards the latter end of Vespasian's reign, showed himself equally expert in quelling the refractory, and civilizing those who had formerly submitted to the Roman power. The Ordovices, or inhabitants of North Wales, were the first that were subdued. He then made a descent upon Mona, or the island of Anglesea; which surrendered at discretion. Having thus rendered himself master of the whole country, he took every method to restore discipline to his own army, and to introduce some share of politeness among those whom he had conquered. He exhorted them, both by advice and example, to build temples, theatres, and stately houses. He caused the sons of their nobility to be instructed in the liberal arts; he had them taught the Latin language, and induced them to imitate the Roman modes of dressing and living. Thus, by degrees, this barbarous people began to assume the luxurious manner of their conquerors, and in time even outdid them in all the refinements of sensual pleasure. For the success in Britain, Titus was saluted emperor the 15th time; but he did not long survive his honours, being seized with a violent fever at a little distance from Rome. Perceiving his death to approach, he declared, that during the whole course of his life he knew but of one action which he repented of; but that action he did not think proper to express. Shortly after, he died (not without suspicion of treachery from his brother Domitian, who had long wished to govern) in the 41st year of his age, having reigned two years two months and twenty days.

See *Vesuvius.*

342 Agricola civilizes the Britons.

343 Titus dies.

344 Succeeded by Domitian.

The love which all ranks of people bore to Titus, facilitated the election of his brother Domitian, notwithstanding the ill opinion many had already conceived of him. His ambition was already but too well known, and his pride soon appeared upon his coming to the throne; having been heard to declare, that he had given the empire to his father and brother, and now received it again as his due.

The beginning of his reign was universally acceptable to the people, as he appeared equally remarkable for his clemency, liberality, and justice. He carried his abhorrence of cruelty so far, as at one time to forbid the sacrificing of oxen. His liberality was such, that he would not accept of the legacies that were left him by such as had children of their own. His justice was such, that he would sit whole days and reverse the partial sentences of the ordinary judges. He appeared very careful and liberal in repairing the libraries which had been burnt, and recovering copies of such books as had been lost, sending on purpose to Alexandria to transcribe and transcribe them. But he soon began to show the natural deformity of his mind. Instead of cultivating literature, as his father and brother had done, he neglected all kinds of study, addicting himself wholly to the meaner pursuits, particu-

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larly archery and gaming. No emperor before him entertained the people with such various and expensive shows. During these diversions he distributed great rewards; sitting as president himself, adorned with a purple robe and crown, with the priests of Jupiter and the college of Flavian priests about him. The meanness of his occupations in solitude, were a just contrast to his exhibitions in public ostentation. He usually spent his hours of retirement in catching flies, and sticking them through with a bodkin; so that one of his servants being asked if the emperor was alone, he answered, that he had not so much as a fly to bear him company. His vices seemed every day to increase with the duration of his reign; and as he thus became more odious to his people, all their murmurs only served to add strength to his suspicions, and malice to his cruelty. His ungrateful treatment of Agricola seemed the first symptom of his natural malevolence. Domitian was always particularly fond of obtaining a military reputation, and therefore jealous of it in others. He had marched some time before into Gaul upon a pretended expedition against the Catti, a people of Germany; and, without ever seeing the enemy, resolved to have the honour of a triumph upon his return to Rome. For that purpose he purchased a number of slaves, whom he dressed in German habits; and at the head of this miserable procession entered the city amidst the apparent acclamations and concealed contempt of all his subjects. The successes therefore of Agricola in Britain, affected him with an extreme degree of envy. This admirable general, who is scarce mentioned by any other writer except Tacitus, pursued the advantages which he had already obtained. He routed the Caledonians; overcame Galgacus, the British chief, at the head of 30,000 men; and afterwards sending out a fleet to scour the coast, first discovered Great Britain to be an island †. He likewise discovered and subdued the Orkneys, and thus reduced the whole into a civilized province of the Roman empire. When the account of these successes was brought to Domitian, he received it with a seeming pleasure, but real uneasiness. He thought Agricola's rising reputation a reproach upon his own inactivity; and, instead of attempting to emulate, he resolved to suppress the merit of his services. He ordered him therefore the external marks of his approbation, and took care that triumphant ornaments, statues, and other honours, should be decreed him; but at the same he removed him from his command, under a pretence of appointing him to the government of Syria. By these means, Agricola surrendered up his government to Salustius Lucullus, but soon found that Syria was otherwise disposed of. Upon his return to Rome, which was privately and by night, he was coolly received by the emperor; and dying some time after in retirement, it was supposed by some that his end was hastened by Domitian's direction.

345 His enormous vices.

† See *Scotland*.

346 Many barbarous nations invade the empire.

Domitian soon after found the want of so experienced a commander, in the many irruptions of the barbarous nations that surrounded the empire. The Sarmatians in Europe, joined with those in Asia, made a formidable invasion; at once destroying a whole legion, and a general of the Romans. The Dacians, under the conduct of Decebalus their king, made an irruption, and overthrew the Romans in several engagements. Losses were followed by losses, so that every season became memorable for some remarkable overthrow. At last, however, the state making a vigorous exertion of its internal power, the barbarians were repelled, partly by force and partly by the assistance of money, which only served to enable them to make future invasions to greater advantage. But in whatever manner the enemy might have been repelled, Domitian was resolved not to lose the honour of a triumph. He returned in great splendor to Rome; and not contented with thus triumphing twice without a victory, he resolved to take the surname of *Germanicus*, for his conquest over a people with whom he never contended.

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In proportion as the ridicule increased against him, his pride seemed every day to demand greater homage. He would permit his statues to be made only of gold and silver; assumed to himself divine honours; and ordered that all men should treat him with the same appellations which they gave to the divinity. His cruelty was not behind his arrogance; he caused numbers of the most illustrious senators and others to be put to death upon the most trifling pretences. Salustius Lucullus, his lieutenant in Britain, was destroyed only for having given his own name to a new sort of lances of his own invention. Junius Rusticus died for publishing a book, in which he commended Thrasea and Priscus, two philosophers who opposed Vespasian's coming to the throne.

Such cruelties as these, that seem almost without a motive, may naturally be supposed to have produced rebellion. Lucius Antonius, governor in Upper Germany, knowing how much the emperor was detested at home, assumed the ensigns of imperial dignity. As he was at the head of a formidable army, his success remained long doubtful; but a sudden overflowing of the Rhine dividing his army, he was set upon at that juncture by Normandus, the emperor's general, and totally routed. The news of this victory, we are told, was brought to Rome, by supernatural means, on the same day that the battle was fought. Domitian's severity was greatly increased by this success, of short duration. In order to discover those who were accomplices with the adverse party, he invented new tortures, sometimes cutting off the hands, at other times thrusting fire into the privities of the people whom he suspected of being his enemies. During these cruelties, he aggravated their guilt by hypocrisy, never pronouncing sentence without a preamble full of gentleness and mercy. He was particularly terrible to the senate and nobility; the whole body of whom he frequently threatened entirely to extirpate. At one time, he surrounded the senate-house with his troops, to the great consternation of the senators. At another, he resolved to amuse himself with their terrors in a different manner. Having invited them to a public entertainment, he received them all very formally at the entrance of his palace, and conducted them into a spacious hall, hung round with black, and illuminated by a few melancholy lamps, that diffused light only sufficient to show the horrors of the place. All around were to be seen nothing but coffins, with the names of each of the senators written upon them, together with other objects of terror and instruments of execution. While the company beheld all the preparations with silent agony, several men, having their bodies black-

347 Monstrous cruelty of the emperor.

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blackened, each with a drawn ſword in one hand and a flaming torch in the other, entered the hall, and danced round them. After ſome time, when the gueſts expected nothing leſs than inſtant death, well knowing Domitian's capricious cruelty, the doors were ſet open, and one of the ſervants came to inform them, that the emperor gave all the company leave to withdraw.

Theſe cruelties were rendered ſtill more odious by his luſt and avarice. Frequently after preſiding at an execution, he would retire with the lewdeſt proſtitutes, and uſe the ſame baths which they did. His avarice, which was the conſequence of his profuſion, knew no bounds. He ſeized upon the eſtates of all againſt whom he could find the ſmalleſt pretenſions; the moſt trifling action, or word, againſt the majeſty of the prince, was ſufficient to ruin the poſſeſſor. He particularly exacted large ſums from the rich Jews; who even then began to practiſe the art of peculation, for which they are at preſent ſo remarkable. He was excited againſt them, not only by avarice, but by jealouſy. A prophecy had been long current in the eaſt, that a perſon from the line of David ſhould rule the world. Whereupon, this ſuſpicious tyrant, willing to evade the prediction, commanded all the Jews of the lineage of David to be diligently ſought out, and put to death. Two Chriſtians, grandſons of St Jude the apoſtle, of that line, were brought before him; but finding them poor, and no way ambitious of temporal power, he diſmiſſed them, conſidering them as objects too mean for his jealouſy. However, his perſecution of the Chriſtians was more ſevere than that of any of his predeceſſors. By his letters and edicts they were baniſhed in ſeveral parts of the empire, and put to death with all the tortures of ingenious cruelty. The predictions of Chaldeans and aſtrologers alſo, concerning his death, gave him moſt violent apprehenſions, and kept him in the moſt tormenting diſquietude. As he approached towards the end of his reign, he would permit no criminal, or priſoner, to be brought into his preſence, till they were bound in ſuch a manner as to be incapable of injuring him; and he generally ſecured their chains in his own hands. His jealouſies increaſed to that degree, that he ordered the gallery in which he walked to be ſet round with a pellucid ſtone, which ſerved as a mirror to reflect the perſons of all ſuch as approached him from behind. Every omen and prodigy gave him freſh anxiety.

348 He perſecutes the Jews and Chriſtians.

349 A conſpiracy formed againſt him.

But a period was ſoon to be put to this monſter's cruelty. Among the number of thoſe whom he at once careſſed and ſuſpected, was his wife Domitia, whom he had taken from Ælius Lama, her former huſband. This woman, however, was become obnoxious to him, for having placed her affections upon one Paris, a player; and he reſolved to diſpatch her, with ſeveral others that he either hated or ſuſpected. It was the tyrant's method to put down the names of all ſuch as he intended to deſtroy in his tablets, which he kept about him with great circumſpection. Domitia, fortunately happening to get a ſight of them, was ſtruck at finding her own name in the catalogue of thoſe fated to deſtruction. She ſhowed the fatal liſt to Norbanus and Petronius, præfects of the prætorian bands, who found themſelves ſet down; as likewiſe to Stephanus, the comptroller of the houſehold, who came into the conſpiracy with alacrity. Pathenius alſo, the chief chamberlain, was of the number. Theſe, after many conſultations, determined on the firſt opportunity to put their deſign in execution; and at length fixed on the 18th day of September for the completion of their attempt. Domitian, whoſe death was every day foretold by the aſtrologers, who, of conſequence, muſt at laſt be right in their predictions, was in ſome meaſure apprehenſive of that day; and as he had been ever timorous, ſo he was now more particularly upon his guard. He had ſome time before ſecluded himſelf in the moſt ſecret receſſes of his palace; and at midnight was ſo affrighted as to leap out of his bed, inquiring of his attendants what hour of the night it was. Upon their falſely aſſuring him that it was an hour later than that which he was taught to apprehend, quite tranſported, as if all danger was paſt, he prepared to go to the bath. Juſt then, Petronius his chamberlain came to inform him that Stephanus the comptroller of his houſehold deſired to ſpeak to him upon an affair of the utmoſt importance. The emperor having given orders that his attendants ſhould retire, Stephanus entered with his hand in a ſcarf, which he had worn thus for ſome days, the better to conceal a dagger, as none were permitted to approach the emperor except unarmed. He began by giving information of a pretended conſpiracy, and exhibited a paper in which the particulars were ſpecified. While Domitian was reading the contents with an eager curioſity, Stephanus drew his dagger, and ſtruck him in the groin. The wound not being mortal, Domitian caught hold of the aſſaſſin, and threw him upon the ground, calling out for aſſiſtance. He demanded alſo his ſword, that was uſually placed under his pillow; and a boy who attended in the apartment running to fetch it, found only the ſcabbard, for Parthenius had previouſly removed the blade. The ſtruggle with Stephanus ſtill continued: Domitian ſtill kept him under, and at one time attempted to wreſt the dagger from his hand, at another to tear out his eyes with his fingers. But Parthenius, with his freedman, a gladiator, and two ſubaltern officers, now coming in, ran all furiouſly upon the emperor, and diſpatched him with many wounds. In the mean time, ſome of the officers of the guard being alarmed, came to his aſſiſtance, but too late to ſave him; however, they ſlew Stephanus on the ſpot.

350 He is murdered.

When it was publicly known that Domitian was ſlain, the joy of the ſenate was ſo great, that being aſſembled with the utmoſt haſte, they began to load his memory with every reproach. His ſtatues were commanded to be taken down; and a decree was made, that all his inſcriptions ſhould be eraſed, his name ſtruck out of the regiſters of fame, and his funeral omitted. The people, who now took little part in the affairs of government, looked on his death with indifference; the ſoldiers alone, whom he had loaded with favours and enriched by largeſſes, ſincerely regretted their benefactor. The ſenate, therefore, reſolved to provide a ſucceſſor before the army could have an opportunity of taking the appointment upon themſelves: and Cocceius Nerva was choſen to the empire the very day on which the tyrant was ſlain.

351 Cocceius Nerva made emperor.

Nerva was of an illuſtrious family, as moſt ſay, by birth a Spaniard, and above 65 years old when he was called

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called to the throne. He was, at that time, the most remarkable man in Rome, for his virtues, moderation, and respect to the laws; and he owed his exaltation to the blameless conduct of his former life. When the senate went to pay him their submissions, he received them with his accustomed humility; while Arius Antonius, his most intimate friend, having embraced him with great familiarity, congratulated him on his accession to the empire: and indeed no emperor had ever shewed himself more worthy of the throne than Nerva; his only fault being that he was too indulgent, and often made a prey by his insidious courtiers.

352 His great clemency and moderation.

However, an excess of indulgence and humanity were faults that Rome could easily pardon, after the cruelties of such an emperor as Domitian. Being long accustomed to tyranny, they regarded Nerva's gentle reign with rapture, and even gave his imbecillity the name of benevolence. Upon coming to the throne, he solemnly swore that no senator of Rome should be put to death by his command, during his reign, though they gave ever so just a cause. He conferred great favours, and bestowed large gifts, upon his particular friends. His liberality was so extensive, that, upon his first promotion to the empire, he was constrained to sell his gold and silver plate, with his other rich moveables, to enable him to continue his liberalities. He released the cities of the empire from many severe impositions, which had been laid upon them by Vespasian; took off a rigorous tribute, which had been laid upon carriages; and restored those to their property who had been unjustly dispossessed by Domitian.

353 Makes several good laws.

During his short reign he made several good laws. He particularly prohibited the castration of male children; which had been likewise condemned by his predecessor, but not wholly removed. He put all those slaves to death, who had, during the last reign, informed against their masters. He permitted no statues to be erected to honour him, and converted into money such of Domitian's as had been spared by the senate. He sold many rich robes, and much of the splendid furniture of the palace, and retrenched several unreasonable expences at court. At the same time, he had so little regard for money, that when Herodes Atticus, one of his subjects, had found a large treasure, and wrote to the emperor how to dispose of it, he received for answer, that he might *use it:* but the finder still informing the emperor that it was a fortune too large for a private person, Nerva, admiring his honesty, wrote him word, that then he might *abuse it.*

A life of such generosity and mildness, was not, however, without its enemies. Calpurnius Crassus, with some others, formed a dangerous conspiracy to destroy him; but Nerva would use no severity: he rested satisfied with banishing those who were culpable, though the senate were for inflicting more rigorous punishments. But the most dangerous insurrection against his interests was from the prætorian bands; who, headed by Casparius Olianus, insisted upon revenging the late emperor's death, whose memory was still dear to them, from his frequent liberalities. Nerva, whose kindness to good men, rendered him more obnoxious to the vicious, did all in his power to stop the progress of this insurrection; he presented himself to the mutinous soldiers, and, opening his bosom, desired them to strike there, rather than be guilty of so much injustice. The soldiers, however, paid no regard to his remonstrances; but seizing upon Petronius and Parthenius, slew them in the most ignominious manner. Not content with this, they even compelled the emperor to approve of their sedition, and to make a speech to the people, in which he thanked the cohorts for their fidelity. So disagreeable a constraint upon the emperor's inclinations, was, in the end, attended with the most happy effects, as it caused the adoption of Trajan to succeed him in the empire. Nerva perceived that in the present turbulent disposition of the times, he stood in need of an assistant in the empire, who might share the fatigues of government, and contribute to keep the licentious in awe. For this purpose, setting aside all his own relations, he fixed upon Ulpius Trajan, an utter stranger to his family, who was then governor in Upper Germany, to succeed him. Having put his determination in execution, and performed the accustomed solemnities, he instantly sent off ambassadors to Cologne, where Trajan then resided, intreating his assistance in punishing those from whom he had received such an insult. The adoption of this admirable man, proved so great a curb to the licentiousness of the soldiery, that they continued in perfect obedience during the rest of this reign; and Casparius being sent to him, was, by his command, either banished or put to death.

354 Adopts Trajan as his successor.

355 Death of Nerva.

The adopting Trajan was the last public act of Nerva. In about three months after, having put himself in a violent passion with one Regulus a senator, he was seized with a fever, of which he shortly after died, after a short reign of one year four months and nine days. He was the first foreign emperor who reigned in Rome, and justly reputed a prince of great generosity and moderation. He is also celebrated for his wisdom, tho' with less reason, the greatest instance he gave of it, during his reign, being in the choice of his successor.

356 Great qualities of Trajan.

Trajan's family was originally from Italy, but he himself was born in Seville in Spain. He very early accompanied his father, who was a general of the Romans, in his expeditions along the Euphrates and the Rhine; and while yet very young, acquired a considerable reputation for military accomplishments. He enured his body to fatigue; he made long marches on foot; and laboured to acquire all that skill in war which was necessary for a commander. When he was made general of the army in Lower Germany, which was one of the most considerable employments in the empire, it made no alteration in his manners or way of living; and the commander was seen noway differing from the private tribune, except in his superior wisdom and virtues. The great qualities of his mind were accompanied with all the advantages of person. His body was majestic and vigorous; he was at that middle time of life which is happily tempered with the warmth of youth and the caution of age, being 42 years old. To these qualities were added, a modesty that seemed peculiar to himself alone; so that mankind found a pleasure in praising those accomplishments of which the possessor seemed no way conscious. Upon the whole, Trajan is distinguished as the greatest and the best emperor of Rome. Others might have equalled

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equalled him in war, and some might have been his rivals in clemency and goodness; but he seems the only prince who united these talents in the greatest perfection, and who appears equally to engage our admiration and our regard. Upon being informed of the death of Nerva, he prepared to return to Rome, whither he was invited by the united intreaties of the state. He therefore began his march with a discipline that was for a long time unknown in the armies of the empire. The countries through which he passed, were neither ravaged nor taxed, and he entered the city, not in a triumphant manner, though he had deserved it often, but on foot, attended by the civil officers of the state, and followed by his soldiers, who marched silently forward with modesty and respect. It would be tedious and unnecessary to enter into a detail of this good monarch's labours for the state. His application to business, his moderation to his enemies, his modesty in exaltation, his liberality to the deserving, and his frugality in his own expences; these have all been the subject of panegyric among his cotemporaries, and they continue to be the admiration of posterity. Upon giving the prefect of the prætorian band the sword, according to custom, he made use of this remarkable expression, "Take this sword, and use it, if I have merit, for me; if otherwise, against me." After which he added, That he who gave laws was the first who was bound to observe them. His failings, were his love of women, which however never hurried him beyond the bounds of decency; and his immoderate passion for war, to which he had been bred up from his childhood. The first war he was engaged in after his coming to the throne, was with the Dacians, who, during the reign of Domitian, had committed numberless ravages upon the provinces of the empire. He therefore raised a powerful army, and with great expedition marched into those barbarous countries, where he was vigorously opposed by Decebalus, the Dacian king, who for a long time withstood his boldest efforts; but was at last entirely reduced, and his kingdom made a Roman province, as is related under the article DACIA. At his return to Rome, he entered the city in triumph; and the rejoicings for his victories lasted for the space of 120 days.

Having thus given peace and prosperity to the empire, Trajan continued his reign, loved, honoured, and almost adored, by his subjects. He adorned the city with public buildings; he freed it from such men as lived by their vices; he entertained persons of merit with the utmost familiarity; and so little feared his enemies, that he could scarcely be induced to suppose that he had any.

357. He persecutes the Christians.

It had been happy for this great prince's memory, if he had shown equal clemency to all his subjects; but, about the ninth year of his reign, he was persuaded to look upon the Christians with a suspicious eye. The extreme veneration which he professed for the religion of the empire, set him sedulously to oppose every innovation, and the progress of Christianity seemed to alarm him. A law had for some time before been passed, in which all Hetariæ, or societies dissenting from the established religion, were considered as illegal, being reputed nurseries of imposture and sedition. Under the sanction of this law, the Christians were persecuted in all parts of the empire. Great numbers of them were put to death, as well by popular tumults as by edicts and judicial proceedings. However, the persecution ceased after some time; for the emperor having advice from Pliny, the pro-consul in Bithynia, of the innocence and simplicity of the Christians, and of their inoffensive and moral way of living, he suspended their punishments. But a total stop was put to them upon Tiberianus the governor of Palestine's sending him word, That he was wearied out with executing the laws against the Galileans, who crowded to execution in such multitudes, that he was at a loss how to proceed. Upon this information, the emperor gave orders, that the Christians should not be sought after; but if any offered themselves, that they should suffer. In this manner the rage of persecution ceased, and the emperor found leisure to turn the force of his arms against the Armenians and Parthians, who now began to throw off all submission to Rome.

358. Insurrection of the Jews.

While he was employed in these wars, there was a dreadful insurrection of the Jews in all parts of the empire. This wretched people, still infatuated, and ever expecting some signal deliverer, took the advantage of Trajan's absence in the east, to massacre all the Greeks and Romans whom they got into their power, without reluctance or mercy. This rebellion first began in Cyrene, a Roman province in Africa; from thence the flame extended to Egypt, and next to the island of Cyprus. These places they in a manner dispeopled with ungovernable fury. Their barbarities were such, that they eat the flesh of their enemies, wore their skins, sawed them asunder, cast them to wild beasts, made them kill each other, and studied new torments by which to destroy them. However, these cruelties were of no long duration: the governors of the respective provinces making head against their tumultuous fury, soon treated them with a retaliation of cruelty, and put them to death, not as human beings, but as outrageous pests to society. As the Jews had practised their cruelties in Cyprus particularly, a law was publicly enacted; by which it was made capital for any Jew to set foot on the island.

359. Successes of Trajan in the east.

During these bloody transactions, Trajan was prosecuting his successes in the east. His first march was into Armenia, the king of which country had disclaimed all alliance with Rome, and received the ensigns of royalty and dominion from the monarch of Parthia. However, upon the news of Trajan's expedition, his fears were so great, that he abandoned his country to the invaders; while the greatest part of his governors and nobility came submissively to the emperor, acknowledging themselves his subjects, and making him the most costly presents. Having in this manner taken possession of the whole country, and gotten the king into his power, he marched into the dominions of the king of Parthia. There entering the opulent kingdom of Mesopotamia, he reduced it into the form of a Roman province. From thence he went against the Parthians, marching on foot at the head of his army; in this manner crossing the rivers, and conforming to all the severities of discipline which were imposed on the meanest soldier. His successes against the Parthians were great and numerous. He conquered Syria and Chaldea, and took the famous city of Babylon. Here, attempting to cross the Euphrates,

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phrates, he was opposed by the enemy, who were resolved to stop his passage: but he secretly caused boats to be made upon the adjoining mountains; and bringing them to the water side, passed his army with great expedition, not, however, without great slaughter on both sides. From thence he traversed tracts of country which had never before been invaded by a Roman army, and seemed to take a pleasure in pursuing the same march which Alexander the Great had formerly marked out for him. Having passed the rapid streams of the Tigris, he advanced to the city Ctesiphon, which he took, and opened himself a passage into Persia, where he made many conquests, that were rather splendid than serviceable. After subduing all the country bordering on the Tigris, he marched southward to the Persian gulph, where he subdued a monarch who possessed a considerable island made by the divided streams of that river. Here, winter coming on, he was in danger of losing the greatest part of his army by the inclemency of the climate and the inundations of the river. He therefore with indefatigable pains fitted out a fleet, and sailing down the Persian gulph, entered the Indian ocean, conquering, even to the Indies, and subduing a part of them to the Roman empire. He was prevented from pursuing further conquests in this distant country, both by the revolt of many of the provinces he had already subdued, and by the scarcity of provisions, which seemed to contradict the reports of the fertility of the countries he was induced to invade. The inconveniencies of increasing age also contributed to damp the ardour of this enterprise, which at one time he intended to pursue to the confines of the earth. Returning, therefore, along the Persian gulph, and sending the senate a particular account of all the nations he had conquered, the names of which alone composed a long catalogue, he prepared to punish those countries which had revolted from him. He began by laying the famous city of Edessa, in Mesopotamia, in ashes; and in a short space of time, not only retook all those places which had before acknowledged subjection, but conquered many other provinces, so as to make himself master of the most fertile kingdoms of all Asia. In this train of successes he scarce met with a repulse, except before the city Atra, in the deserts of Arabia. Wherefore judging that this was a proper time for bounding his conquests, he resolved to give a master to the countries he had subdued. With this resolution he repaired to the city Ctesiphon, in Persia; and there, with great ceremony, crowned Parthamaspates king of Parthia, to the great joy of all his subjects. He established another king also over the kingdom of Albania, near the Caspian sea. Then placing governors and lieutenants in other provinces, he resolved to return to his capital in a more magnificent manner than any of his predecessors had done before him. He accordingly left Adrian general of all his forces in the east; and continued his journey towards Rome, where the most magnificent preparations were made for his arrival. However, he had not got farther than the province of Cilicia, when he found himself too weak to proceed in his usual manner. He therefore caused himself to be carried on ship-board to the city of Seleucia, where he died of the apoplexy, having been attacked by that disorder once before. During the time of his indisposition, his wife Plotina constantly attended near him; and, knowing the emperor's dislike to Adrian, it is thought forged the will, by which he was adopted to succeed.

360 He dies, and is succeeded by Adrian.

Trajan died in the 63d year of his age, after a reign of nineteen years six months and fifteen days. How highly he was esteemed by his subjects appears by their manner of blessing his successors, always wishing them the fortune of Augustus, and the goodness of Trajan. His military virtues, however, upon which he chiefly valued himself, produced no real advantages to his country; and all his conquests disappeared, when the power was withdrawn that enforced them.

Adrian was by descent a Spaniard, and of the same city where Trajan was born. He was nephew to Trajan, and married to Sabina his grand-niece. When Trajan was adopted to the empire, Adrian was a tribune of the army in Mæsia, and was sent by the troops to congratulate the emperor on his advancement. However, his brother-in-law, who desired to have an opportunity of congratulating Trajan himself, supplied Adrian with a carriage that broke down on the way. But Adrian was resolved to lose no time, and performed the rest of the journey on foot. This assiduity was very pleasing to the emperor; but he disliked Adrian from several more prevailing motives. His kinsman was expensive, and involved in debt. He was, besides, inconstant, capricious, and apt to envy another's reputation. These were faults, that, in Trajan's opinion, could not be compensated either by his learning or his talents. His great skill in the Greek and Latin languages, his intimate acquaintance with the laws of his country and the philosophy of the times, were no inducement to Trajan, who, being bred himself a soldier, desired to have a military man to succeed him. For this reason it was that the dying emperor would by no means appoint a successor; fearful, perhaps, of injuring his great reputation, by adopting a person that was unworthy. His death, therefore, was concealed for some time by Plotina his wife, till Adrian had founded the inclinations of the army, and found them firm in his interests. They then produced a forged instrument, importing that Adrian was adopted to succeed in the empire. By this artifice he was elected by all orders of the state, though then absent from Rome, being left at Antioch as general of the forces in the east.

Upon Adrian's election, his first care was to write the senate, excusing himself for assuming the empire without their previous approbation; imputing it to the hasty zeal of the army, who rightly judged that the senate ought not long to remain without a head. He then began to pursue a course quite opposite to that of his predecessor, taking every method of declining war, and promoting the arts of peace. He was quite satisfied with preserving the ancient limits of the empire, and seemed no way ambitious of extensive conquest. For this reason he abandoned all the conquests which Trajan had made, judging them to be rather an inconvenience than an advantage to the empire; and made the river Euphrates the boundary of the empire, placing the legions along its banks to prevent the incursions of the enemy.

371 He abandons all the eastern conquests of Adrian.

Having thus settled the affairs of the east, and leaving Severus governor of Syria, he took his journey by

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by land to Rome, ſending the aſhes of Trajan thither by ſea. Upon his approach to the city, he was informed of a magnificent triumph that was preparing for him; but this he modeſtly declined, deſiring that thoſe honours might be paid to Trajan's memory which they had deſigned for him. In conſequence of this command, a moſt ſuperb triumph was decreed, in which Trajan's ſtatue was carried as a principal figure in the proceſſion, it being remarked that he was the only man that ever triumphed after he was dead. Not content with paying him theſe extraordinary honours, his aſhes were placed in a golden urn, upon the top of a column 140 feet high. On this were engraven the particulars of all his exploits in baſſo relievo; a work of great labour, and which is ſtill remaining. But his virtues were contraſted by a ſtrange mixture of vices; or to ſay the truth, he wanted ſtrength of mind to preſerve his general rectitude of character without deviation. As an emperor, however, his conduct was moſt admirable, as all his public tranſactions appear dictated by the ſoundeſt policy and the moſt diſintereſted wiſdom. But theſe being already enumerated under the article ADRIAN, it would be ſuperfluous to repeat them in this place. He was ſucceeded by Marcus Antoninus, afterwards ſurnamed the *Pious*, whom he had adopted ſome time before his death. See ANTONINUS *Pius*.

362 Cauſes of the decline of the Roman empire.

From the beginning of the reign of Antoninus Pius, we may date the decline of the Roman empire. From the time of Cæſar to that of Trajan, ſcarce any of the emperors had either abilities or inclination to extend the limits of the empire, or even to defend it againſt the barbarous nations who ſurrounded it. During all this ſpace, only ſome inconſiderable provinces to the northward of Italy, and part of the iſland of Britain, had been ſubjugated. However, as yet, nothing was loſt; but the degeneracy and corruption of the people had ſown thoſe ſeeds of diſſolution which the empire quickly began to feel. The diſorders were grown to ſuch an height, that even Trajan himſelf could not cure them. Indeed his eaſtern conqueſts could ſcarce have been preſerved though the republic had been exiſting in all its glory; and therefore they were quietly reſigned by his ſucceſſor Adrian, as too diſtant, diſaffected, and ready to be over-run by the barbarous nations. The province of Dacia being nearer to the centre of government, was more eaſily preſerved; and of conſequence remained for a long time ſubject to Rome. During the 23 years of the reign of Antoninus, few remarkable events happened. The hiſtorians of thoſe times are exceſſive in their praiſes of his juſtice, generoſity, and other virtues, both public and private. He put a ſtop to the perſecution of the Chriſtians, which raged in the time of Trajan and Adrian, and reduced the Brigantes, a tribe of Britons, who had revolted. However, during his reign, ſeveral calamities befel the empire. The Tiber, overflowing its banks, laid the lower part of Rome under water. The inundation was followed by a fire, and this by a famine, which ſwept off great numbers, though the emperor took the utmoſt care to ſupply the city from the moſt diſtant provinces. At the ſame time the cities of Narbonne in Gaul, and Antioch in Syria, together with the great ſquare in Carthage, were deſtroyed by fire; however, the emperor ſoon reſtored them to their former condition. He died in the year 163, univerſally lamented by his ſubjects, and was ſucceeded by Marcus Aurelius, ſurnamed the *Philoſopher*, whom he had adopted towards the latter end of his reign.

The tranſactions of this emperor the reader will find related under the article ANTONINUS *Philoſophus* (A).

(A) As, after the death of Marcus Aurelius, the Roman empire declined very faſt, it may not be amiſs here to give ſome account of the military and other eſtabliſhments of the Roman emperors. Mr Gibbon obſerves, that, in the times of the commonwealth, the uſe of arms was confined to thoſe who had ſome property to defend, and an intereſt in maintaining the laws which were propoſed to be enacted. But, as the public freedom declined, and war became degraded into a trade, thoſe who had the property of the country choſe rather to hire others than to expoſe their own perſons, as is the caſe with our modern armies. Yet, even after all conſideration of property had been laid aſide among the common ſoldiers, the officers continued to be choſen from among thoſe who had a liberal education together with a good ſhare of property. However, as the common ſoldiers, in which the ſtrength of an army conſiſts, had now no more of that virtue called *patriotiſm*, the legions which were formerly almoſt invincible, no longer fought with the ſame ardour as before. In former times, the profeſſion of a ſoldier was more honourable than any other; but, when the ſoldiers came to be looked upon as hirelings, the honour of the profeſſion ſunk of courſe, and, by this means, one of the ſtrongeſt motives which the ſoldiers had to ſubmit to their ſevere diſcipline, and exert themſelves againſt their enemies, was removed. On the very firſt entrance of a ſoldier into the Roman ſervice, a ſolemn oath was adminiſtered to him, by which he engaged never to deſert his ſtandard; to ſubmit his own will to that of his leaders, and to ſacrifice his life for the ſafety of the emperor and the empire. The attachment which the Romans had to their ſtandards was indeed aſtoniſhing. The golden eagle, which appeared in the front of the legion, was almoſt an object of adoration with them; and it was eſteemed impious, as well as ignominious, to abandon that ſacred enſign in the time of danger. The centurions had a right to puniſh with blows, the generals with death; and it was an inflexible maxim of the Roman diſcipline, that a good ſoldier ſhould dread his officers much more than the enemy.

Notwithſtanding all this, ſo ſenſible were the Romans of the inſufficiency of mere valour without ſkill, that military exerciſes were the unremitted object of their diſcipline. The recruits and young ſoldiers were conſtantly trained both in the morning and evening; and even the veterans were not excuſed from the daily repetition of their exerciſe. Large ſheds were erected in the winter-quarters of the troops, that theſe uſeful labours might not be interrupted by tempeſtuous weather, and the weapons uſed in theſe imitations of war were always twice as heavy as thoſe made uſe of in real action. The ſoldiers were diligently inſtructed to march, to run, leap, ſwim, carry heavy burdens, and handle every ſpecies of weapon either for offence or defence; to form a variety of evolutions; and to move to the ſound of flutes in the pyrrhic or martial dance. It was the policy of the ableſt generals, and even of the emperors themſelves, to encourage theſe military ſtudies by their preſence and example; and we are informed that Adrian, as well as Trajan, frequently condeſcended to inſtruct the unexperienced ſoldiers, to reward the diligent, and ſometimes to diſpute with them the prize of ſuperior ſtrength and dexterity. Under the reigns of thoſe princes the ſcience of tactics

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After the death of Marcus Aurelius, his ſon Commodus ſucceeded to the imperial throne without oppoſition. He was in every reſpect unworthy of his father; and ſo prone to vice, that he was generally believed to have been the ſon, not of Marcus Aurelius, but of a celebrated gladiator, with whom the empreſs Fauſtina

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tics was cultivated with ſucceſs; and, as long as the empire retained any vigour, their military inſtructions were reſpected as the moſt perfect model of Roman diſcipline.

From the foundation of the city, as the Romans had in a manner been continually engaged in war, many alterations had taken place in the conſtitution of the legions. In the time of the emperors, the heavy-armed infantry, which compoſed its principal ſtrength, was divided into 10 cohorts and 55 companies, under the orders of a correſpondent number of tribunes and centurions. The firſt cohort, which always claimed the poſt of honour and the cuſtody of the eagle, was formed of 1105 ſoldiers, the moſt approved for valour and fidelity. The remaining nine cohorts conſiſted each of 555; and the whole body of legionary infantry conſiſted of 6100 men. Their arms were uniform, and excellently adapted to the nature of their ſervice; an open helmet with a lofty creſt; a breaſt-plate, or coat of mail; greaves on their legs, and a large buckler on their left arm. Their buckler was of an oblong and concave figure, four feet in length and two and an half in breadth; framed of a light wood, covered with a bull's hide, and ſtrongly guarded with braſs plates. Beſides a lighter ſpear, the legionary carried the pilum, a ponderous javelin about ſix feet long, and terminated by a maſſy triangular point of ſteel 18 inches in length. This weapon could do execution at the diſtance of 10 or 12 paces; but its ſtroke was ſo powerful that no cavalry durſt venture within its reach, and ſcarce any armour could be formed proof againſt it. As ſoon as the Roman had darted his pilum, he drew his ſword, and ruſhed forward to cloſe with the enemy. It was a ſhort well-tempered Spaniſh blade with a double edge, and equally calculated for the purpoſes of puſhing and ſtriking; but the ſoldier was always inſtructed to prefer the former uſe of his own weapon, as his body remained thereby the leſs expoſed, while at the ſame time he inflicted a more dangerous wound on his adverſary. The legion was uſually drawn up eight deep; and the regular diſtance of three feet was left between the files and ranks. Thus the ſoldier poſſeſſed a free ſpace for his arms and motions; and ſufficient intervals were allowed, through which ſeaſonable reinforcements might be introduced to the relief of the combatants. The cavalry, without which the force of the legion remained imperfect, was divided into ten troops or ſquadrons: the firſt, as the companion of the firſt cohort, conſiſted of 132 men; whilſt each of the other nine amounted only to 66. The entire eſtabliſhment formed a body of 726 horſe, naturally connected with its reſpective legion; but occaſionally acting in the line, and compoſing a part of the wings of the army. The cavalry of the ancient republic was compoſed of the nobleſt youths of Rome and Italy, who, by performing their military ſervice on horſeback, prepared themſelves for the offices of ſenator and conſul: but after the alteration of manners and government which took place at the end of the commonwealth, the moſt wealthy of the equeſtrian order were engaged in the adminiſtration of juſtice and of the revenue; and, whenever they embraced the profeſſion of arms, they were immediately entruſted with a troop of horſe or a cohort of foot, and the cavalry, as well as the infantry, were recruited from the provinces. The horſes were bred for the moſt part in Spain, or in Cappadocia. The Roman troopers deſpiſed the complete armour which encumbered the cavalry of the eaſt. Inſtead of this, their arms conſiſted only of an helmet, an oblong ſhield, light boots, and a coat of mail. A javelin, and a long broad ſword were their principal offenſive weapons. They ſeem to have borrowed the uſe of lances and iron maces from the barbarians.

Beſides the legionaries, the Romans, eſpecially in the times of the emperors, began to take auxiliaries into their pay. Conſiderable levies were regularly made among thoſe provincials who had not yet attained to the rank of Roman citizens. Many dependent princes and communities, diſperſed round the frontiers, were permitted, for a while, to hold their freedom and ſecurity by the tenure of military ſervice. Even ſelect troops of barbarians were compelled to enter into the ſervice; which was afterwards found to be a moſt deſtructive expedient, not only as it carried the Roman military ſkill among barbarians who were otherwiſe unacquainted with it, but it gave theſe auxiliaries themſelves frequent opportunities of revolting, and at laſt of deſtroying the emperors at pleaſure, and even of overturning the empire itſelf. The number of auxiliaries was ſeldom inferior to that of the legionaries themſelves. The braveſt and moſt faithful bands among them were placed under the command of prefects and centurions, and ſeverely trained in the arts of Roman diſcipline; but the far greater part retained thoſe arms which they had uſed in their native country. By this inſtitution, each legion, to whom a certain number of auxiliaries was allotted, contained within itſelf every ſpecies of lighter troops, and of miſſile weapons; and was capable of encountering every nation with the advantages of its reſpective arms and diſcipline. Nor was the legion deſtitute of what, in modern language, would be ſtyled a train of artillery. This conſiſted of 10 military engines of the largeſt ſize, and 56 ſmaller ones; but all of them, either in an oblique or horizontal manner, diſcharged ſtones and darts with irreſiſtible violence.

The camp of a Roman legion preſented the appearance of a fortified city. As ſoon as the ſpace was marked out, the pioneers carefully levelled the ground, and removed every impediment that might interrupt its perfect regularity. Its form was an exact quadrangle; and it may be computed that a ſquare of 700 yards was ſufficient for the encampment of 20,000 Romans, though a ſimilar number of modern troops would expoſe to the enemy a front of more than treble that extent. In the midſt of the camp, the prætorium, or general's tent, aroſe above the others; and the cavalry, infantry, and auxiliaries, had each their reſpective ſtations appointed them. The ſtreets were broad, and perfectly ſtraight; and a vacant ſpace of 200 feet was left on all ſides between the tents and rampart. The rampart itſelf was 12 feet high, armed with a line of ſtrong and intricate paliſades, and defended by a ditch 12 feet deep and as much broad. This labour was performed by the legions themſelves, to whom the uſe of the ſpade and pick-ax was no leſs familiar than that of the ſword or pilum. Whenever the trumpet gave the ſignal of departure, the camp was almoſt inſtantly broke up, and the troops fell into their ranks without delay or confuſion. Beſides their arms, which the ſoldiers ſcarcely conſidered as an encumbrance, they were laden with their kitchen-furniture, the inſtruments of fortification, and proviſions for many days. Under this weight, which would oppreſs a modern ſoldier, they were taught to advance by a regular ſtep, near 20 miles in ſix hours. On the appearance of an enemy, they threw aſide their baggage, and, by eaſy and rapid evolutions, converted the column of march into an order of battle. The ſlingers and archers ſkirmiſhed in the front; the auxiliaries formed the firſt line, and were ſeconded or ſuſtained by the legions. The cavalry covered the flanks, and the military engines were placed in the rear.

The numbers of the Roman armies are not eaſily calculated with any tolerable accuracy. We may compute, however, that the legion, which conſiſted of 6832 Romans, might, with its attendant auxiliaries, amount to 12,500 men.

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Rome. Faustina was supposed to be intimate. According to Mr Gibbon, however, Commodus was not, as has been represented, a tiger born with an insatiate thirst of human blood, and capable from his infancy of the most inhuman actions. Nature had formed him of a weak, rather than a wicked disposition. His simplicity and timidity

The peace establishment of Adrian and his successors was composed of no fewer than 30 of these formidable brigades; and most probably formed an army of 370,000 men. Instead of being confined within the walls of fortified cities, which the Romans considered as the refuge of weakness or pusillanimity, the legions were encamped on the banks of the great rivers, and along the frontiers of the barbarians. Three legions were sufficient for Britain. The principal strength lay upon the Rhine and Danube, and consisted of 16 legions disposed in the following proportions: two in the Lower, and three in the Upper Germany; one in Rhætia; one in Noricum; four in Pannonia; three in Mœsia; and two in Dacia. The defence of the Euphrates was intrusted to eight legions, six of whom were placed in Syria, and the other two in Cappadocia. With regard to Egypt, Africa, and Spain, as they were far removed from any important scene of war, a single legion maintained the domestic tranquillity of each of those great provinces. Italy was defended by the city cohorts and prætorian guards formerly mentioned. These differed nothing from the legions in their arms and institutions, except in a more splendid appearance and a less rigid discipline.

The Roman navy, though sufficient for every useful purpose of government, never seemed adequate to the greatness of the empire. The policy of the emperors was directed only to preserve the peaceful dominion of the Mediterranean sea, which was included within their dominions, and to protect the commerce of their subjects. Two permanent fleets were stationed by Augustus, one at Ravenna on the Adriatic, and the other at Misenum in the bay of Naples. A very considerable force was also stationed at Frejus in Provence; and the Euxine was guarded by 40 ships, and 3000 soldiers. To all these we may add the fleet which preserved the communication between Gaul and Britain, and a great number of vessels constantly maintained on the Rhine and Danube to harrass the enemy, or intercept the passage of the barbarians. The whole military establishment by sea and land amounted to about 450,000 men.

It was not, however, to this formidable power alone, that the empire owed its greatness. The policy of the laws contributed as much to its support as the martial establishment itself. According to Mr Gibbon, though the provinces might occasionally suffer from the partial abuse of delegated authority, the general principle of government was wise, simple, and beneficent. Among these beneficent principles he reckons that of universal toleration; but to this there were several exceptions: for the British Druids were persecuted and destroyed by the Romans on account of their religion; the Egyptians and Jews were sometimes persecuted; and the Christians were frequently so, and that even under the very best emperors, Trajan and Marcus Aurelius. However, as a very general toleration of religious sentiments did take place under the heathen emperors of Rome, we must certainly look upon this as one of the causes of the prosperity of the empire.

Another thing which greatly contributed to the strength and prosperity of the empire was the extending the freedom of Rome to so many people. "The narrow policy, says Mr Gibbon, of preserving without any foreign mixture, the pure blood of the ancient citizens, had checked the fortune and hastened the ruin of Athens and Sparta. During the most flourishing æra of the Athenian commonwealth, the number of citizens decreased gradually from about 30,000 to 21,000. If, on the contrary, we study the growth of the Roman republic, we may discover, that notwithstanding the incessant demands of wars and colonies, the citizens, who, in the time of Servius Tullius, amounted to no more than 83,000, were multiplied, before the end of the social war, to the number of 463,000 men able to bear arms in the service of their country. When the allies of Rome claimed an equal share of honours and privileges, the senate preferred the chance of war to a concession; however, at last, all the Italian states, except the Samnites and Lucanians, were admitted into the bosom of the republic, and soon contributed to the ruin of public freedom. When the popular assemblies had been suppressed by the administration of the emperors, the conquerors were distinguished from the vanquished nations only as the first and most honourable order of subjects; and their increase, however rapid, was no longer exposed to the same dangers. Yet the princes who adopted the maxims of Augustus, guarded with the strictest care the dignity of the Roman name, and diffused the freedom of the city with a prudent liberality.

"Till the privileges of the Romans had been progressively extended to all the inhabitants of the empire, an important distinction was preserved between Italy and the provinces. The estates of the Italians were exempted from taxes, and their persons from the arbitrary jurisdiction of governors. From the foot of the Alps to the extremity of Calabria, all the natives of Italy were born citizens of Rome. The provinces of the empire were destitute of any public force, or constitutional freedom. The free states and cities, which had embraced the cause of Rome, were insensibly sunk into real servitude. The public authority was every where engrossed by the ministers of the senate and of the emperors, and that authority was absolute. But the same salutary maxims of government which had secured the peace and obedience of Italy, were extended to the most distant conquests. A nation of Romans was gradually formed in the provinces, by the double expedient of introducing colonies, and of admitting the most faithful and deserving provincials to the freedom of Rome.

"So sensible were the Romans of the influence of language over national manners, that it was their most serious care to extend, with the progress of their arms, the use of the Latin tongue. The eastern provinces, however, were less docile in this respect than the western ones; and this obvious difference, made a distinction between the two portions of the empire, which became very remarkable when it began to decline. Nor was the influence of the Greek language and sentiments confined to the narrow limits of that once celebrated country. Their empire, by the progress of colonies and conquest, had been diffused from the Adriatic to the Euphrates and Nile. Asia was covered with Greek cities, and the long reign of the Macedonian kings had introduced a silent revolution into Syria and Egypt. In their pompous courts those princes united the elegance of Athens with the luxury of the east; and the example of the court was imitated, at an humble distance, by the higher ranks of their subjects. Such was the general division of the Roman empire into the Latin and Greek languages; to which we may add a third distinction for the body of the natives in Syria, and especially in Egypt. The use of their ancient dialects, by secluding them from the commerce of mankind, checked the improvements of these barbarians. The slothful effeminacy of the former exposed them to the contempt, the sullen ferociousness of the latter excited the aversion, of the Roman conquerors. They seldom desired or deserved the freedom of the city; and it is remarked, that more than 230 years elapsed after the ruin of the Ptolemies, before a native Egyptian was admitted into the senate of Rome.

"The number of subjects who acknowledged the laws of Rome, of citizens, of provincials, and of slaves, cannot now be fixed with such accuracy as the importance of the object would deserve. We are informed, that when the em-

Rome.

363 Monstrous cruelty of Commodus.

timidity rendered him the slave of his attendants, who gradually corrupted his mind. His cruelty, which at first obeyed the dictates of others, degenerated into habit, and at length became the ruling passion of his soul." But, however this may be, it is certain that the actions of this emperor were flagitious almost beyond a parallel. Many very strange instances of his cruelty are related by the ancients. He is said to have cut asunder a corpulent man whom he saw walking along the street; partly, to try his own strength, in which he greatly excelled; and partly, as he himself owned, out of curiosity, to see his entrails drop out at once. He took pleasure in cutting off the feet, and putting out the eyes, of such as he met in his rambles through the city; telling the former, after he had thus maimed them, that now they belonged to the nation of *Monopodii;* and the latter, that they were now become *Luscinii*, alluding to the word *luscus*, "one-eyed." Some he murdered because they were negligently dressed; others, because they seemed to be trimmed with too much nicety. He pretended to great skill in surgery, especially at letting blood: but sometimes, instead of easing by that means those whom he visited, or who were prevailed upon to recur to him, he cut off, by way of diversion, their ears and noses. His lewdness and debaucheries were equally remarkable, and equally infamous. However, he is said to have been exceedingly well skilled in archery, and to have performed incredible feats in that way. He excelled all men in strength; and is said to have run an elephant through with his spear, and to have killed in the amphitheatre 100 lions, one after another, and each of them at one blow. Forgetful of his dignity, he entered the lists with the common gladiators, and came off conqueror 735 times; whence he often subscribed himself in his letters, *the conqueror of* 1000 *gladiators*.

364 He concludes a peace with the barbarians.

The public transactions of this reign were but very few. Soon after his father's death, Commodus concluded a peace with the Marcommanni, Quadi, &c. on the following conditions. 1. That they should not settle within five miles of the Danube. 2. That they should deliver up their arms, and supply the Romans with a certain number of troops when required. 3. That they should assemble but once a month, in one place only, and that in presence of a Roman centurion. 4. That they should not make war upon the Jazyges, Buri, or Vandals, without the consent of the people of Rome. On the other hand, Commodus promised

emperor Claudius exercised the office of censor, he took an account of 6,945,000 Roman citizens; who with the proportion of women and children, must have amounted to about 20,000,000 of souls. The multitude of subjects of an inferior rank was uncertain and fluctuating: but after weighing with attention every circumstance which could influence the balance, it seems probable that there existed, in the time of Claudius, about twice as many provincials as there were Roman citizens, of either sex, and of every age; and that the slaves were at least equal in number to the free inhabitants of the Roman world. The total amount of this imperfect calculation would rise to about 120 millions of persons; a degree of population which possibly exceeds that of modern Europe, and forms the most numerous society that has ever been united under the same system of government.

"Domestic peace and union were the natural consequences of the moderate and comprehensive policy embraced by the Romans. The vanquished nations, blended into one great people, resigned the hope, nay even the wish, of resuming their independence, and scarcely considered their own existence as distinct from the existence of Rome. The established authority of the emperors pervaded, without an effort, the wide extent of their dominions, and was exercised with the same facility on the banks of the Thames, or of the Nile, as on those of the Tiber. The legions were destined to serve against the public enemy, and the civil magistrate seldom required the aid of a military force.

"It was scarcely possible that the eyes of cotemporaries should discover in the public felicity the latent causes of decay and corruption. This long peace, and the uniform government of the Romans, introduced a slow and secret poison into the vitals of the empire. The minds of men were gradually reduced to the same level; the fire of genius was extinguished, and even the military spirit evaporated. The natives of Europe were brave and robust. Spain, Gaul, Britain, and Illyricum, supplied the legions with excellent soldiers, and constituted the real strength of the monarchy. Their personal valour remained; but they no longer possessed that public courage which is nourished by the love of independence, the sense of national honour, the presence of danger, and the habit of command. They received laws and governors from the will of their sovereign, and trusted for their defence to a mercenary army. The posterity of their boldest leaders were contented with the rank of citizens and subjects. The most aspiring spirits resorted to the court or standard of the emperors; and the deserted provinces, deprived of political strength or union, insensibly sunk into the languid indifference of private life.

"The love of letters, almost inseparable from peace and refinement, was fashionable among the subjects of Adrian and the Antonines; who were themselves men of learning and curiosity. It was diffused over the whole extent of their empire; the most northern tribes of Britons had acquired a taste for rhetoric; Homer as well as Virgil were transcribed and studied on the banks of the Rhine and Danube; and the most liberal rewards sought out the faintest glimmerings of literary merit. The sciences of physic and astronomy were cultivated with some degree of reputation; but, if we except Lucian, an age of indolence passed away without producing a single writer of genius who deserved the attention of posterity. The authority of Plato, of Aristotle, of Zeno, and Epicurus, still reigned in the schools; and their systems, transmitted with blind deference from one generation of disciples to another, precluded every generous attempt to correct the errors or enlarge the bounds of the human mind. The beauties of the poets and orators, instead of kindling a fire like their own, produced only servile imitations; or, if any ventured to deviate from these models, they deviated at the same time from good sense and propriety. The provincials of Rome, trained by an uniform artificial education, were engaged in a very unequal competition with those bold ancients, who, by expressing their genuine feelings in their native tongue, had already occupied every place of honour. The name of *poet* was almost forgotten; that of *orator* was usurped by the sophists. A cloud of critics, of compilers, of commentators, darkened the face of learning, and the decline of genius was soon followed by the corruption of taste.

"Longinus observes and laments the degeneracy of his cotemporaries, which debased their sentiments, enervated their courage, and depressed their talents; comparing them to pygmies, whose stature has been diminished by constant pressure on their limbs. This diminutive stature of mankind was constantly sinking below the old standard, and the Roman world was indeed peopled by a race of pigmies; when the fierce giants of the north broke in and mended the puny breed. They restored a manly freedom; and, after the revolution of ten centuries, freedom became the happy parent of taste and science.

Rome. mised to abandon, which accordingly he did, all the castles and fortresses held by the Romans in their country, excepting such as were within five miles of the Danube. With the other German nations, whom his father had almost entirely reduced, he concluded a very dishonourable peace; nay, of some he purchased it with large sums of money.

Soon after the return of the emperor to Rome, his sister Lucilla, perceiving that he was universally abhorred on account of his cruelty, formed a conspiracy against his life. Among the conspirators were many senators of distinction. It was agreed among them that they should fall upon the emperor while he was going to the amphitheatre through a narrow and dark passage; and that Claudius Pompeianus, to whom Lucilla had betrothed her daughter, should give the first blow. But he, instead of striking at once, showed him the naked dagger, and cried out, "This present the senate sends you:" so that the guards had time to rescue the emperor, and to seize the conspirators, who were soon after put to death. The emperor banished his sister to the island of Capræe, where he soon after caused her to be privately murdered.

The favourite minister of Commodus was one Perennis; who in oppression and cruelty seems to have been nothing inferior to those of the most tyrannical emperors. During the first part of the reign of Commodus, he ruled with an absolute sway; but at last was torn in pieces by the enraged soldiery, whom he had offended by his too great severity. He was succeeded in his place by a freedman named *Cleander;* for the emperor himself was so much taken up with his pleasures, that he could not bestow even a moment on the affairs of state. The new minister abused his power in a more flagrant manner than even his predecessor had done. By him all things were openly set to sale; offices, provinces, public revenues, justice, and the lives of men both innocent and guilty. The minister, who ruled the emperor without controul, infused such terrors into his timorous mind, that he changed the captains of his guards almost continually. One Niger enjoyed the dignity only six hours; another only five days; and several others a still shorter space. Most of those officers lost their lives along with their employments; being accused of treason by Cleander, who continually solicited, and at last obtained, that important post for himself.

365 Revolt of Maternus. In the year 187 happened a remarkable revolt. One Maternus, a common soldier, having fled from his colours, and being joined by many others guilty of the same crime, grew in a short time so powerful, the banditti flocking to him from all parts, that he over-ran and plundered great part of Gaul and Spain; stormed the strongest cities; and struck the emperor and people of Rome with such terror, that troops were raised, and armies dispatched against him. Pescennius Niger was sent to make head against him in Gaul, where he became very intimate with Severus, who was then governor of Lyons, and who wrote a letter to the emperor, commending the prudent and gallant behaviour of Niger in pursuing the rebels. Maternus, finding himself reduced to great straits, divided his men into several small bands, and marched privately with them by different ways into Italy; having nothing less in view than to murder the emperor during the solemnity which was kept annually in honour of the mother of the gods, and on his death to seize upon the empire for himself. They all arrived at Rome undiscovered; and several of his men had already mixed themselves with the emperor's guards, when others of his own party betrayed him. He was immediately seized and executed; and his death put an end to the disturbances which some of his followers had begun to raise in other provinces. In the same year, broke out the most dreadful plague, says Dio Cassius, that had been known. It lasted two or three years; and raged with the greatest violence at Rome, where it frequently carried off 2000 persons a-day. The following year a dreadful fire, which consumed a great part of the city, was kindled by lightning; and at the same time the people were afflicted with a dreadful famine, occasioned, according to some authors, by Cleander, who, having now in view nothing less than the sovereignty itself, bought up underhand all the corn, in order to raise the price of it, and gain the affections of the soldiery and people by distributing it among them. Others tell us, however, that Papirius Dionysius, whose province it was to supply the city with provisions, contributed towards the famine, in order to make the people rise against Cleander. Be this as it will, however, the populace ascribed all their calamities to this hated minister; and one day, while the people were celebrating the Circassian games, a troop of children, having at their head a young woman of an extraordinary stature and fierce aspect, entering the circus, began to utter aloud many bitter invectives and dreadful curses against Cleander; which being for some time answered by the people with other invectives and curses, the whole multitude rose all of a sudden, and flew to the place where Cleander at that time resided with the emperor. There, renewing their invectives, they demanded the head of the minister who had been the occasion of so many calamities. Hereupon Cleander ordered the prætorian cavalry to charge the multitude; which they did accordingly, driving them with great slaughter into the city. But the populace discharging showers of stones, bricks, and tiles, from the tops of the houses and from the windows, and the city-guards at the same time taking part with the people, the prætorian horse were soon obliged to save themselves by flight: nor was the slaughter ended, till the emperor, apprised of the tumult, caused the head of Cleander to be struck off and thrown out to the enraged populace. The emperor himself did not long survive Cleander; being cut off by a conspiracy of Marcia his favourite concubine, Lætus captain of the guards, and Ecletus his chamberlain. 367 Commodus murdered.

No sooner was the death of Commodus known, than the senate assembled, and declared him a public enemy, loading him with curses, ordering his statues to be broken to pieces, and his name to be rased out of all public inscriptions; and demanded his body, that it might be dragged through the streets, and thrown into the Tiber. But Helvius Pertinax, whom the conspirators had previously designed for the empire, and who had already assumed it, prevented such an outrage, by letting the senators know that Commodus was already buried. This extraordinary personage had passed through many changes of fortune. He was originally the son of an enfranchised slave, called *Ælius*, who only gave him so much learning as to qualify him for 368 Pertinax raised to the empire.

keep-

Rome. keeping a little ſhop in the city. He then became a ſchoolmaſter, afterwards ſtudied the law, and after that became a ſoldier; in which ſtation his behaviour was ſuch, as cauſed him to be ſoon made captain of a cohort againſt the Parthians. Being thus introduced to arms, he went through the uſual gradation of military preferment in Britain and Mœſia, until he became the commander of a legion under Aurelius. In this ſtation he performed ſuch excellent ſervices againſt the barbarians, that he was made conſul, and ſucceſſively governor of Dacia, Syria, and Aſia Minor. In the reign of Commodus he was baniſhed; but ſoon after recalled, and ſent into Britain to reform the abuſes in the army. In this employment his uſual extraordinary fortune attended him: he was oppoſed by a ſedition among the legions, and left for dead among many others that were ſlain. However, he got over this danger, ſeverely puniſhed the mutineers, and eſtabliſhed regularity and diſcipline among the troops he was ſent to command. From thence he was removed into Africa, where the ſedition of the ſoldiers had like to have been as fatal to him as in his former government. Removing from Africa, and fatigued with an active life, he betook himſelf to retirement: but Commodus, willing to keep him ſtill in view, made him prefect of the city; which employment he filled, when the conſpirators fixed upon him as the propereſt perſon to ſucceed to the empire.

His being advanced by Commodus only ſerved to increaſe his fears of falling as an object of his ſuſpicions; when therefore the conſpirators repaired to his houſe by night, he conſidered their arrival as a command from the emperor for his death. Upon Lætus entering his apartment, Pertinax, without any ſhow of fear, cried out, That for many days he had expected to end his life in that manner, wondering that the emperor had deferred it ſo long. However, he was not a little ſurpriſed when informed of the real cauſe of their viſit; and being ſtrongly urged to accept of the empire, he at laſt complied with their offer.

369 His excellent reign. Being carried to the camp, Pertinax was proclaimed emperor: ſoon after, the citizens and ſenate conſented; the joy for the election of a new ſovereign being ſcarce equal to that for the death of the former. The provinces quickly followed the example of Rome; ſo that he began his reign with univerſal ſatisfaction to the whole empire, in the 68th year of his age.

Nothing could exceed the wiſdom and juſtice of this monarch's reign, the ſhort time it continued. He puniſhed all thoſe who had ſerved to corrupt the late emperor, and diſpoſed of his ill-got poſſeſſions to public uſes. He attempted to reſtrain the licentiouſneſs of the prætoran bands, and put a ſtop to the injuries and inſolences they committed againſt the people. He ſold moſt of the buffoons and jeſters of Commodus as ſlaves; particularly ſuch as had obſcene names. He continually frequented the ſenate as often as it ſat, and never refuſed an audience even to the meaneſt of the people. His ſucceſs in foreign affairs was equal to his internal policy. When the barbarous nations abroad had certain intelligence that he was emperor, they immediately laid down their arms, well knowing the oppoſition they were to expect from ſo experienced a commander. His great error was avarice; and that, in ſome meaſure, ſerved to haſten his ruin.

The prætorian ſoldiers, whoſe manners he had attempted to reform, having been long corrupted by the indulgence and profuſion of their former monarch, began to hate him for the parſimony and diſcipline he had introduced among them. They therefore reſolved to dethrone him; and for that purpoſe declared Maternus, an ancient ſenator, emperor, and endeavoured to carry him to the camp to proclaim him. Maternus, however, was too juſt to the merits of Pertinax, and too faithful a ſubject, to concur in their ſeditious deſigns; wherefore eſcaping out of their bands, he fled, firſt to the emperor, and then out of the city. They then nominated one Falco, another ſenator; whom the ſenate would have ordered for execution, had not Pertinax interpoſed, who declared that during his reign no ſenator ſhould ſuffer death.

370 Is murdered by the prætorian ſoldiers. The prætorian ſoldiers then reſolved unanimouſly not to uſe any ſecret conſpiracies, or private contrivances, but boldly to ſeize upon the emperor and empire at once. They accordingly, in a tumultuous manner, marched through the ſtreets of Rome, and entered the palace without oppoſition. Such was the terror at their approach, that the greateſt part of the emperor's attendants forſook him; while thoſe who remained earneſtly intreated him to fly to the body of the people, and intereſt them in his defence. However, he rejected their advice; declaring, that it was unworthy his imperial dignity, and all his paſt actions, to ſave himſelf by flight. Having thus reſolved to face the rebels, he had ſome hopes that his preſence alone would terrify and confound them. But what could his former virtues, or the dignity of command, avail againſt a tumultuous rabble, nurſed up in vice, and miniſters of former tyranny? One Thauſius, a Tungrian, ſtruck him with his lance on the breaſt, crying out, "The ſoldiers ſend you this." Pertinax finding all was over, covered his head with his robe, and ſunk down, mangled with a multitude of wounds, which he received from various aſſaſſins. Eclectus, and ſome more of his attendants, who attempted to defend him, were alſo ſlain: his ſon and daughter only eſcaped, who happened to be lodged out of the palace. Thus, after a reign of three months, Pertinax fell a ſacrifice to the licentious fury of the prætorian army. From the number of his adventures, he was called the *tennis-ball of Fortune;* and certainly no man ever experienced ſuch a variety of ſituations with ſo blameleſs a character.

371 The empire expoſed to ſale, and bought by Didius Julianus. The ſoldiers having committed this outrage, retired with great precipitation; and getting out of the city to the reſt of their companions, expeditiouſly fortified their camp, expecting to be attacked by the citizens. Two days having paſſed without any attempt of this kind, they became more inſolent; and willing to make uſe of the power of which they found themſelves poſſeſſed, made proclamation, that they would ſell the empire to whoever would purchaſe it at the higheſt price. In conſequence of this proclamation, ſo odious and unjuſt, only two bidders were found; namely, Sulpicianus and Didius Julianus: The former, a conſular perſon, præfect of the city, and ſon-in-law to the late emperor Pertinax; the latter, a conſular perſon likewiſe, a great lawyer, and the wealthieſt man in the city. He was ſitting with ſome friends at dinner when the proclamation was publiſhed; and being charmed with the proſpect of unbounded power, immediately roſe from

Rome. from table and hastened to the camp. Sulpicianus was got there before him; but as he had rather promises than treasure to bestow, the offers of Didius, who produced immense sums of ready money, prevailed. He was received into the camp by a ladder, and they instantly swore to obey him as emperor. From the camp he was attended by his new electors into the city; the whole body of his guards, which consisted of 10,000 men, ranged around him in such order, as if they had prepared for battle, and not for a peaceful ceremony. The citizens, however, refused to confirm his election; but rather cursed him as he passed. Upon being conducted to the senate-house, he addressed the few senators that were present in a very laconic speech: "Fathers, you want an emperor; and I am the fittest person you can choose." But even this, short as it seems, was unnecessary, since the senate had it not in their power to refuse their approbation. His speech being backed by the army, to whom he had given about a million of our money, succeeded. The choice of the soldiers was confirmed by the senate, and Didius was acknowledged emperor, now in the 57th year of his age.

It should seem by this weak monarch's conduct when seated on the throne, that he thought the government of an empire rather a pleasure than a toil. Instead of attempting to gain the hearts of his subjects, he gave himself up to ease and inactivity, utterly regardless of the duties of his station. He was mild and gentle indeed; neither injuring any, nor expecting to be injured. But that avarice, by which he became opulent, still followed him in his exaltation; so that the very soldiers who elected him, soon began to detest him for those qualities, so very opposite to a military character. The people also, against whose consent he was chosen, were no less inimical. Whenever he issued from his palace, they openly poured forth their imprecations against him; crying out, that he was a thief, and had stolen the empire. Didius, however, in the true spirit of a trader, patiently bore it all; sometimes beckoning them with smiles to approach him, and testifying his regard by every kind of submission.

372 Pescennius Niger and Septimius Severus aspire the empire.

While Didius was thus contemptuously treated at home, two valiant generals, in different parts of the empire, disclaimed his authority, and boldly resolved to attempt the throne for themselves. These were, Pescennius Niger, governor of Syria; and Septimius Severus, commander of the German legions. Niger was beloved by the people for his clemency and valour; and the report of his proposing Pertinax for his model, and resolving to revenge his death, gained him universal esteem among the people. Being thus apprised of their inclinations, he easily induced his army in Syria to proclaim him emperor; and his title was, shortly after, acknowledged by all the kings and potentates in Asia, who sent their ambassadors to him as their lawful prince. The pleasure of being thus treated as a monarch, in some measure retarded his endeavours to secure his title. Entirely satisfied with the homage of those about him, he neglected the opportunities of suppressing his rivals; and gave himself up to luxury and feasting at Antioch. The conduct of Severus, an African by birth, was very different. Being proclaimed by his army, he began by promising to revenge the death of Pertinax, and took upon him his name. He next secured the fidelity of all the strong places in his province; and then resolved, with the utmost expedition, to march with his whole force directly to Rome.

In the mean time, Didius, who disregarded the attempts of Niger, was greatly alarmed at those of Severus. He first, with many solicitations, procured the senate to proclaim him a traitor. He then applied himself to make the necessary provisions to oppose him, in which he found nothing but disappointment. The cohorts that elected him, were enervated by vice and luxury; the people detested his cause; and the cities of Italy had long been disused to the arts of war. Some advised him to march forward, and meet Severus as he was crossing the Alps; others were for sending the generals upon that expedition. The unfortunate Didius, unequal to the task of empire, and quite confounded with the multiplicity of counsels, could take no other resolution, but that of awaiting his rival's coming at Rome. Accordingly, soon after being informed of his approach, he obtained the consent of the senate to send his ambassadors, offering to make him a partner of the empire. But Severus rejected this offer, conscious of his own strength, and of the weakness of the proposer. The senate soon appeared of the same sentiments; and perceiving the timidity and weakness of their present master, began to abandon him, alleging, that he who could not defend the empire was not worthy to govern it. Didius vainly endeavoured to reduce them to their duty, first by intreaties, and then by threats; but these only served to hasten his destruction. The senate being called together, as was formerly practised in the times of the commonwealth by the consuls, they unanimously decreed, That Didius should be deprived of the empire, and that Severus should be proclaimed in his stead. They then commanded Didius to be slain; and sent messengers for this purpose to the palace, where they found him disarmed, and weeping among a few friends that still adhered to his interest. When the executioners began to prepare for their fatal errand, he expostulated with them, demanding what crime he had committed? He could not be persuaded to think, that paying his money, and receiving an empire in exchange, deserved so severe a punishment. The executioners, however, were neither able nor willing to enter into the merits of the cause; they presently led him into the secret baths of the palace, and obliging him to stretch his neck forwards, after the manner of condemned criminals, struck off his head, and placed it up in those courts where he had formerly pleaded with great success.

373 Julianus deposed and put to death.

The senate having thus dispatched Didius, sent ambassadors to Severus, yielding him obedience, granting him the ensigns and the usual titles of empire, and informing him of the death of Didius. Severus, who was now about 47 years of age, received them with all proper respect; and entertaining them honourably, continued his march towards Rome. As he came near the city, his first exertion of power was, to have all the prætorian soldiers who had lately sold the empire, come forth unarmed to meet him. These, though sensible of their danger, had no other resource left but compliance; and accordingly came forward with branches of laurel, as if to welcome his approach. Severus, however, soon showed how little capable their present submission was to atone for their past offences: after upbraiding

373 Severus declared emperor.

Rome. braiding them, in a short speech, with all their crimes, he commanded them to be instantly stripped of their military habits, deprived of the name and honour of soldiers, and banished 100 miles from Rome. He then entered the city in a military manner, took possession of the palace, and promised the senate to conduct himself with clemency and justice. However, though he united great vigour with the most refined policy, yet his African cunning was confidered as a particular defect in him. He is celebrated for his wit, learning, and prudence; but equally blamed for infidelity and cruelty. In short, he seemed alike disposed to the performance of the greatest acts of virtue, and the most bloody severities. He began his command, by seizing all the children of such as had employments or authority in the east, and detained them as pledges for their fathers loyalty. He next supplied the city with corn; and then with all possible expedition marched against Niger, who was still considered and honoured as emperor of the east.

374 Niger defeated and killed.

One of the chief obstacles to his march was, the leaving behind him Clodius Albinus, commander of the legions in Britain, whom he by all means wished to secure in his interests. For this end, he endeavoured to prevail upon him, by giving him hopes of succeeding to the empire; insinuating, that he himself was declining, and his children were as yet but infants. To deceive him still farther, he wrote in the same style to the senate, gave him the title of *Cæsar*, and ordered money to be coined with his image. These artifices serving to lull Albinus into false security, Severus marched against Niger with all his forces. After some undecisive conflicts, the last great battle that was fought between these extraordinary men, was upon the plains of Issus, on the very spot where Alexander had formerly conquered Darius. Besides the two great armies drawn up on the plain, the neighbouring mountains were covered with infinite numbers of people, who were merely led by curiosity to become spectators of an engagement that was to determine the empire of the world. Severus was conqueror; and Niger's head being struck off by some soldiers of the conquering army, was insultingly carried through the camp on the point of a lance.

This victory secured Severus in the possession of the throne. However, the Parthians, Persians, and some other neighbouring nations, took up arms, under a pretence of vindicating Niger's cause. The emperor marched against them in person, had many engagements with them, and obtained such signal victories over them, as enlarged the empire, and established peace in the east.

375 Albinus defeated and destroyed.

Niger being no more, Severus now turned his views against Albinus, whom he resolved by every means to destroy. For this purpose he sent assassins into Britain, under a pretence of bringing him letters, but in reality to dispatch him. Albinus being apprised of their designs, prevented their attempt by recurring to open force and proclaiming himself emperor. Nor was he without a powerful army to support his pretensions; of which Severus being sensible, bent his whole force to oppose him. From the east he continued his course across the straits of Byzantium, into the most western parts of Europe, without intermission. Albinus being informed of his approach, went over to meet him with his forces into Gaul; so that the campaign on both sides was carried on with great vigour. Fortune seemed for a while variable; but at last a decisive engagement came on, which was one of the most desperate recorded in the Roman history. It lasted from morning till night, without any seeming advantage on either side; at length the troops of Severus began to fly, and he himself happening to fall from his horse, the army of Albinus cried out, Victory. But the engagement was soon renewed with vigour by Lætus, one of Severus's commanders, who came up with a body of reserve, designing to destroy both parties and make himself emperor. This attempt, though designed against both, turned out entirely to the advantage of Severus. He therefore again charged with such fury and exactness, that he soon plucked the victory from those who but a short time before seemed conquerors; and pursuing them into the city of Lyons, took Albinus prisoner, and cut off his head; treating his dead body with insults that could only flow from a mean and revengeful temper. All the senators who were slain in battle, he ordered to be quartered; and such as were taken alive, were immediately executed.

Having thus secured himself in possession of the empire, upon his return to Rome he loaded his soldiers with rewards and honours; giving them such privileges as strengthened his own power, while they destroyed that of the state. For the soldiers, who had hitherto showed the strongest inclination to an abuse of power, were now made arbiters of the fate of emperors; and we shall henceforward behold them setting them up, and dethroning them, at pleasure.

Being thus secure of his army, he resolved to give way to his natural turn for conquest, and to oppose his arms against the Parthians, who were then invading the frontiers of the empire. Having therefore previously given the government of domestic policy to one Plautianus, a particular favourite of his, to whose daughter he married his son Caracalla, he set out for the east, and prosecuted the war with his usual expedition and success. He forced submission from the king of Armenia, destroyed several cities in Arabia Felix, landed on the Parthian coasts, took and plundered the famous city Ctesiphon, marched back through Palestine and Egypt, and at length returned to Rome in triumph.

During this interval, Plautianus, who was left to direct the affairs of Rome, began to think of aspiring to the empire himself. Upon the emperor's return, he employed a tribune of the prætorian cohorts, of which he was the commander, to assassinate him, as likewise his son Caracalla. The tribune seemed cheerfully to undertake this dangerous office; but instead of going through with it, informed Severus of his favourite's treachery. He at first received it as an improbable story, and as the artifice of some one who envied his favourite's fortune. However, he was at last persuaded to permit the tribune to conduct Plautianus to the emperor's apartments. With this intent, the tribune went and amused him with a pretended account of his killing the emperor and his son, desiring him, if he thought it fit to see them dead, to come with him to the palace. As Plautianus ardently desired their deaths, he readily gave credit to this relation; and following the tribune, he was conducted at midnight into the innermost recesses of the palace. But what must have been his disappointment, when, instead of finding the emperor

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peror lying dead, as he expected, he beheld the room lighted up with torches, and Severus, surrounded by his friends, prepared in array to receive him. Being asked by the emperor, with a stern countenance, what had brought him there at that unseasonable time? he was at first utterly confounded; wherefore, not knowing what excuse to make, he ingeniously confessed the whole, intreating forgiveness for what he had intended. The emperor seemed in the beginning inclined to pardon; but Caracalla, his son, who from the earliest age showed a disposition to cruelty, spurned him away in the midst of his supplications, and with his sword ran him through the body.

Severus having escaped this danger, spent a considerable time in visiting some cities in Italy, permitting none of his officers to sell places of trust or dignity, and distributing justice with the strictest impartiality. He took such an exact order in managing his exchequer, that, notwithstanding his great expences, he left more money behind him than any of his predecessors. His armies also were kept upon the most respectable footing; so that he feared no invasion. Being equally attentive to the preservation of all parts of the empire, he resolved to make his last expedition into Britain, where the Romans were in danger of being destroyed, or compelled to fly the province. Wherefore, after appointing his two sons Caracalla and Geta joint successors in the empire, and taking them with him, he landed in Britain, to the great terror of such as had drawn down his resentment. Upon his progress into the country, he left his son Geta in the southern part of the province, which had continued in obedience, and marched with his son Caracalla against the Caledonians. In this expedition, his army suffered prodigious hardships in pursuing the enemy; they were obliged to hew their way through intricate forests, to drain extensive marshes, and form bridges over rapid rivers; so that he lost 50,000 men by fatigue and sickness. However, he supported all these inconveniencies with the greatest bravery; and is said to have prosecuted his successes with such vigour, that he compelled the enemy to sue for peace; which they obtained, not without the surrender of a considerable part of their country. We must here observe, however, that the Picts and Caledonians are so often confounded together by historians, that many mistakes have thence arise concerning the progress and conquests of the Romans in the north of Britain. But from the boundary formed by the famous wall of Severus *, we must conclude, that no part of Caledonia properly so called, had been either on this or any other occasion ceded to him; and there is reason to believe, that he rather received checks from the people of that territory, than was ever able to make any considerable impression upon them. Be this however as it may, after having made peace, and built his wall, he retired to York; where, partly through age and fatigue, and partly through grief at the irreclaimable life of Caracalla, he found himself daily declining, having already lost the use of his feet. To add to the distress of his situation, he was informed that the soldiers had revolted, and declared his son emperor. In this exigence, he seemed once more to recall his natural vigour; he got himself immediately put into his litter, and commanded the new emperor, with the tribunes and centurions, to be brought before him. Though all were willing to court the favour of the young emperor, such was the authority of Severus, that none dared to disobey. They appeared before him confounded and trembling, and implored pardon upon their knees. Upon which, putting his hand to his head, he cried out, "Know, that it is the head that governs, and not the feet." However, soon perceiving his disorder to increase, and knowing that he could not outlive it, he called for poison; which being refused him, he loaded his stomach with food; which not being able to digest, it soon brought him to his end, in the 56th year of his age, after an active though cruel reign of about 18 years.

376 Expedition of Severus into Britain.

* See SEVERUS's *Wall*.

377 Severus dies.

378 Caracalla and Geta succeed.

Caracalla and Geta being acknowledged as emperors by the army, began to show a mutual hatred to each other even before their arrival at Rome. Their only agreement was, in resolving to deify Severus their father; but soon after, each sought to attach the senate and army to his own particular interest. They were of very opposite dispositions: Caracalla was fierce and cruel to an extreme degree; Geta was mild and merciful; so that the city soon found the dangerous effects of being governed by two princes of equal power and contrary inclinations.

But this opposition was of no long continuance; for Caracalla being resolved to govern alone, furiously entered Geta's apartment, and, followed by ruffians, slew him in his mother's arms. Having committed this detestable murder, he issued with great haste from the palace, crying out, That his brother would have slain him; and that he was obliged, in self-defence, to retaliate the intended injury. He then took refuge among the prætorian cohorts, and in a pathetic tone began to implore their assistance, still making the same excuse for his conduct. To this he added a much more prevailing argument, promising to bestow upon them the largesses usually given upon the election of new emperors, and distributing among them almost all the treasures which had been amassed by his father. By such persuasives, the soldiers did not hesitate to proclaim him sole emperor, and to stigmatize the memory of his brother Geta as a traitor and an enemy to the commonwealth. The senators were soon after induced, either through favour or fear, to approve what had been done by the army: Caracalla wept for the death of his brother whom he had slain; and, to carry his hypocrisy to the utmost extreme, ordered him to be adored as a god.

379 Geta murdered by Caracalla.

380 Who proves a most bloody tyrant.

Being now emperor, he went on to mark his course with blood. Whatever was done by Domitian or Nero, fell short of this monster's barbarities. Lætus, who first advised him to murder his brother, was the first who fell a sacrifice to his jealousy. His own wife, Plautina, followed. Papinian, the renowned civilian, was beheaded for refusing to write in vindication of his cruelty; answering the emperor's request, by observing, That it was much easier to commit a parricide, than to defend it. He commanded all governors to be slain that his brother had appointed; and destroyed not less than 2000 persons who had adhered to his party. Whole nights were spent in the execution of his bloody decrees; and the dead bodies of people of all ranks were carried out of the city in carts, where they were burnt in heaps, without any of the ceremonies of a funeral. Upon a certain occasion, he ordered his soldiers to

Rome. to set upon a crowded audience in the theatre, only for discountenancing a charioteer whom he happened to favour. Perceiving himself hated by the people, he publicly said, that he could insure his own safety, tho' not their love; so that he neither valued their reproaches, nor feared their hatred.

This safety which he so much built upon, was placed in the protection of his soldiers. He had exhausted the treasury, drained the provinces, and committed a thousand acts of rapacity, merely to keep them stedfast in his interests; and being disposed to trust himself with them particularly, he resolved to lead them upon a visit through all the provinces of the empire. He first went into Germany; where, to oblige the natives, he dressed himself in the habit of their country. From thence he travelled into Macedonia, where he pretended to be a great admirer of Alexander the Great; and among other extravagancies, caused a statue of that monarch to be made with two faces; one of which resembled Alexander, and the other himself. He was so corrupted by flattery, that he called himself *Alexander;* walked as he was told that monarch had walked; and, like him, bent his head to one shoulder. Shortly after, arriving at Lesser Asia and the ruins of Troy, as he was viewing the tomb of Achilles, he took it into his head to resemble that hero; and one of his freedmen happening to die at that time, he used the same ceremonies that were performed at the tomb of Patroclus. Passing thence into Egypt, he massacred in the most terrible manner the inhabitants of Alexandria, on account of the satires they composed on him, as is related under the article ALEXANDRIA.

381 His extravagant folly, cruelty, and treachery.

Going from thence into Syria, he invited Artabanus, king of Parthia, to a conference; desiring his daughter in marriage, and promising him the most honourable protection. In consequence of this, that king met him on a spacious plain, unarmed, and only attended with a vast concourse of his nobles. This was what Caracalla desired. Regardless of his promise, or the law of nations, he instantly surrounded him with armed troops, let in wild beasts among his attendants, and made a most terrible slaughter among them; Artabanus himself escaping with the utmost difficulty. For this vile treachery, he obtained from the senate the surname of *Parthicus*.

385 Marries his father's wife.

Upon his return towards Rome, it would seem as if his vices were inexhaustible; for having been guilty of parricide, he now resolved to marry the mother of Geta whom he had slain. It happened that one day seeing her drop her veil, which disclosed her naked bosom, which was extremely beautiful, he told her, that he would possess those charms he beheld, if it were lawful. To this unnatural request, she hesitated not to answer, that he might enjoy all things who possessed all. Whereupon, setting aside all duty and respect for his deceased father, he celebrated his nuptials with her in public, totally disregarding the censures and the sarcasms of mankind.

However, though he disregarded shame, he was not insensible to fear. He was ever uneasy, in the consciousness of being universally hated; and was continually consulting astrologers concerning what death he should die. Among others, he sent one of his confidants, named *Maternianus*, with orders to consult all the astrologers in the city concerning his end. Maternianus considered this as a proper time to get rid of Macrinus, the emperor's principal commander in Mesopotamia; a man who was daily supplanting him in his master's favour. He therefore informed him by letter, as if from the astrologers, that Macrinus had a design against his life; and they consequently advised him to put the conspirator to death. This letter was sent sealed, and made up, amongst many others, to be conveyed with the greater secrecy, and delivered to the emperor as he was preparing for a chariot-race. However, as it never was his custom to interrupt his pleasures for his business, he gave the packet to Macrinus to read over, and to inform him of the contents when more at leisure. In perusing these letters, when Macrinus came to that which regarded himself, he was unable to contain his surprise and terror. His first care was, to reserve the letter in question to himself, and to acquaint the emperor only with the substance of the rest. He then set about the most probable means of compassing his death, by which alone he could expect any safety. At length he determined to apply to one Martialis, a man of great strength, and a centurion of the guards, who hated the emperor from various motives; particularly for the death of a brother, whom Caracalla had ordered to be slain. Him therefore Macrinus exhorted to revenge his brother's death, by killing the tyrant, which he might easily effect, as being always so near his person. Martialis readily undertook the dangerous task; being willing to meet death himself, so he might obtain his desire of seeing the tyrant expire before him. Accordingly, as the emperor was riding out one day near a little city called *Carræ*, he happened to withdraw himself privately, upon a natural occasion, with only one page to hold his horse. This was the opportunity Martialis had so long and ardently desired; wherefore running to him as if he had been called, he stabbed the emperor in the back, so that he died immediately. Martialis unconcernedly returned to his troop; but retiring by insensible degrees, he endeavoured to secure himself by flight. But his companions soon missing him, and the page giving information of what had been done, he was pursued by the German horse and cut in pieces.

383 He is murdered.

During the reign of this execrable tyrant, which continued six years, the empire was every day declining; the soldiers were entirely masters of every election; and as there were various armies in different parts, so there were as many interests all opposite to each other. Caracalla, by satisfying their most unreasonable appetites, destroyed all discipline among them, and all subordination in the state.

383 Macrinus succeeds.

The soldiers, now without an emperor, after a suspense of two days, fixed upon Macrinus, who took all possible methods to conceal his being privy to Caracalla's murder. The senate confirmed their choice shortly after; and likewise that of his son Diadumenus, whom he took as a partner in the empire. Macrinus was 53 years old when he entered upon the government of the empire. He was of obscure parentage; some say, by birth a Moor, who by the mere rotation of office, being first made præfect of the prætorian bands, was now, by treason and accident, called to fill the throne. We are told but little of this emperor, except his engaging in a bloody, though undecided battle, with Artabanus king of Parthia, who came to take vengeance

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vengeance for the injury he had sustained in the late reign; however, this monarch finding his real enemy dead, was content to make peace, and returned into Parthia. Something is also said of the severity of this emperor's discipline; for to such a pitch of licentiousness was the Roman army now arrived, that the most severe punishments were unable to restrain the soldiers; and yet the most gentle inflictions were looked upon as severity. It was this rigorous discipline, together with the artifices of Mæsa, grandmother to Heliogabalus the natural son of Caracalla, that caused the emperor's ruin. Heliogabalus was priest of a temple dedicated to the Sun, in Emesa, a city of Phœnicia; and though but 14 years old, was greatly loved by the army for the beauty of his person, and the memory of his father, whom they still considered as their greatest benefactor. This was soon perceived by the grandmother; who being very rich in gold and jewels, gave liberal presents among them, while they frequently repaired to her temple, both from the garison in the city and the camp of Macrinus. This intercourse growing every day more frequent, the soldiers, being disgusted with the severities of their present emperor, began to think of placing Heliogabalus in his stead. Accordingly, sending for him to their camp, he was immediately proclaimed; and such were the hopes of his virtues, that all men began to affect his interests.

384 Heliogabalus revolts against him.

Macrinus, who at this time was pursuing his pleasures at Antioch, gave but little attention to the first report; only sending his lieutenant Julian, with some legions, to quell the insurrection. However, these, like the rest, soon declared for Heliogabalus, and slew their general. It was then that Macrinus found he had treated the rebellion too slightly; he therefore resolved with his son, to march directly against the seditious legions, and force them to their duty. Both parties met on the confines of Syria: the battle was for some time furious and obstinate; but at last Macrinus was overthrown, and obliged to seek safety by flight. His principal aim was to get to Rome, where he knew his presence was desired; wherefore he travelled through the provinces of Asia Minor with the utmost expedition and privacy, but unfortunately fell sick at the city of Chalcedon. There those who were sent in pursuit, overtook and put him to death, together with his son Diadumenus, after a short reign of one year and two months.

385 Macrinus defeated and put to death.

The senate and citizens of Rome being obliged to submit to the appointment of the army as usual, Heliogabalus ascended the throne at the age of 14. One at so early an age, invested with unlimited power, and surrounded with flatterers, could be expected to act only as they thought proper to direct. This young emperor was entirely led by them; and being sensible that it was in his power to indulge all his appetites, he studied only their gratification. As he is described by historians, he appears a monster of sensuality. His short life therefore is but a tissue of effeminacy, lust, and extravagance. He married, in the small space of four years, six wives, and divorced them all. He built a temple to the sun; and willing that his god should have a wife as well as himself, he married him to Pallas, and shortly after to the moon. His palace was a place of rendezvous for all the prostitutes of Rome, whom he frequently met naked, calling them *his fellow soldiers, and companions in the field.* He was so fond of the sex, that he carried his mother with him to the senate-house, and demanded that she should always be present when matters of importance were debated. He even went so far as to build a senate-house for women, with suitable orders, habits, and distinctions, of which his mother was made president. They met several times; all their debates turning upon the fashions of the day, and the different formalities to be used in giving and receiving visits. To these follies, he added great cruelty and boundless prodigality; so that he was heard to say, that such dishes as were cheaply obtained were scarce worth eating. His suppers therefore generally cost 6000 crowns, and often 60,000. He was always dressed in cloth of gold and purple, enriched with precious stones, and yet never wore the same habit twice. His palace, his chambers, and his beds, were all furnished of the richest stuffs, covered with gold and jewels. Whenever he took horse, all the way between his apartment and the place of mounting was covered with gold and silver dust strewn at his approach.

386 Heliogabalus worse than any of his predecessors.

These excesses were soon perceived by his grandmother Mæsa, whose intrigues had first raised him to the throne; so that she thought to lessen his power by dividing it. For this purpose, under a pretence of freeing him from the cares of public business, she persuaded him to adopt his cousin-german, Alexander, as his successor; and likewise to make him his partner in the consulship. Heliogabalus, having thus raised his cousin, had scarce given him his power, when he wished again to take it away; but the virtues of this young prince had so greatly endeared the people and the army to him, that the attempt had like to have been fatal to the tyrant himself. The prætorian soldiers mutinying, attempted to kill him as he was walking in his gardens; but he escaped, by hiding himself from their fury. However, upon returning to their camp, they continued the sedition; requiring that the emperor should remove such persons from about him as oppressed the subject, and contributed to contaminate him. They required also, the being permitted to guard the young prince themselves, and that none of the emperor's favourites or familiars should ever be permitted to converse with him. Heliogabalus was reluctantly obliged to comply; and conscious of the danger he was in, made preparations for death, when it should arrive, in a manner truly whimsical and peculiar. He built a lofty tower with steps of gold and pearl, from whence to throw himself headlong in case of necessity. He also prepared cords of purple silk and gold to strangle himself with; he provided golden swords and daggers to stab himself with; and poison to be kept in boxes of emerald, in order to obtain what death he chose best. Thus fearing all things, but particularly suspicious of the designs of the senate, he banished them all out of the city: he next attempted to poison Alexander, and spread a report of his death; but perceiving the soldiers begin to mutiny, he immediately took him in his chariot to the camp, where he experienced a fresh mortification, by finding all the acclamations of the army directed only to his successor. This not a little raised his indignation, and excited his desire of revenge. He returned towards the city, threatening the most severe punishments against those who had displeased him, and

387 Adopts Alexander, and takes him for his colleague.

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meditating fresh cruelties. However, the soldiers were unwilling to give him time to put his designs in execution: they followed him directly to his palace, pursued him from apartment to apartment, and at last found him concealed in a privy; a situation very different from that in which he expected to die. Having dragged him from thence through the streets, with the most bitter invectives, and having dispatched him, they attempted once more to squeeze his pampered body into a privy; but not easily effecting this, they threw it into the Tiber, with heavy weights, that none might afterwards find or give it burial. This was the miserable and ignominious death of Heliogabalus, in the 18th year of his age, after a detestable reign of four years. His mother also was slain at the same time by the soldiers; as were also many of the opprobious associates of his criminal pleasures.

388 Is murdered by the soldiers.

389 Virtues of Alexander.

Alexander being, without opposition, declared emperor, the senate, in their usual method of adulation, were for conferring new titles upon him; but he modestly declined them all, alleging, that titles were only honourable when given to virtue, not to station. This outside was an happy omen of his future virtues; and few princes in history have been more commended by his cotemporaries, or indeed more deserved commendation. To the most rigid justice he added the greatest humanity. He loved the good, and was a severe reprover of the lewd and infamous. His accomplishments were equal to his virtues. He was an excellent mathematician, geometrician, and musician; he was equally skilled in painting and sculpture; and in poetry, few of his time could equal him. In short, such were his talents, and such the solidity of his judgment, that tho' but 16 years of age, he was considered as a wise old man.

The first part of his reign was spent in a reformation of the abuses of his predecessor. He restored the senators to their rank; nothing being undertaken without the most sage advisers, and most mature deliberation. Among the number of his advisers, was his mother Mammæa; a woman eminent for her virtues and accomplishments, and who made use of her power as well to secure her son the affections of his subjects, as to procure them the most just administration. He was a rigid punisher of such magistrates as took bribes, saying, That it was not enough to deprive such of their places; for their trusts being great, their lives, in most cases, ought to pay for a breach of them. On the contrary, he thought he could never sufficiently reward such as had been remarkable for their justice and integrity, keeping a register of their names, and sometimes asking such of them as appeared modest and unwilling to approach him, why they were so backward in demanding their reward, and why they suffered him to be in their debt. His clemency extended even to the Christians, who had been punished in the former reigns with unrelenting barbarity. Upon a contest between them and a company of cooks and vintners, about a piece of public ground, which the one claimed as a place for public worship, and the other for exercising their respective trades, he decided the point by his rescript, in these words: "It is better that God be worshipped there in any manner, than that the place should be put to uses of drunkenness and debauchery."

His abilities in war were not inferior to his assiduity in peace. The empire, which from the remissness and debauchery of the preceding reigns now began to be attacked on every side, wanted a person of vigour and conduct to defend it. Alexander faced the enemy wherever the invasion was most formidable, and for a short time deferred its ruin. His first expedition, in the tenth year of his reign, was against the Parthians and Persians, whom he opposed with a powerful army. The Persians were routed in a decisive engagement with great slaughter; the cities of Ctesiphon and Babylon were once more taken, and the Roman empire was restored to its former limits. Upon his return to Antioch, his mother Mammæa sent for the famous Origen, to be instructed by him in the principles of Christianity; and after discourfing with him for some time upon the subject, dismissed him, with a proper safeguard, to his native city of Alexandria. About the same time that Alexander was victorious in the East, Furius Celsus, his general, obtained a signal victory over the Mauritanians in Africa, Varius Macrinus was successful in Germany, and Junius Palmatus returned with conquest from Armenia. However, the number of these victories only hastened the decline of the empire, which was wasted by the exertion of its own strength, and was now becoming little more than a splendid ruin.

390 Restores the affairs of the empire.

About the 13th year of his reign, the Upper Germans, and other northern nations, began to pour down immense swarms of people upon the more southern parts of the empire. They passed the Rhine and the Danube with such fury, that all Italy was thrown into the most extreme consternation. The emperor, ever ready to expose himself for the safety of his people, made what levies he could, and went in person to stem the torrent; which he speedily effected. It was in the course of his successes against the enemy, that he was cut off by a mutiny among his soldiers. The legions encamped about Moguntia, having been abominably corrupted during the reign of Heliogabalus, and trained up in all kinds of rapine and disobedience, required the most strict command. Alexander could neither endure their tumultuary obedience, nor they his regular discipline. His own faults, and those of his mother Mammæa, were objected against him. They openly exclaimed, That they were governed by an avaricious woman, and a mean-spirited boy; and resolved upon electing an emperor capable of ruling alone. In this general revolt, Maximinus, an old and experienced commander, held frequent conferences with the soldiers, and enflamed the sedition. At length, being determined to dispatch their present emperor, they sent an executioner into his tent; who immediately struck off his head; and, shortly after, that of his mother. He died in the 29th year of his age, after a prosperous reign of thirteen years and nine days.

391 Is murdered.

The tumults occasioned by the death of Alexander being appeased, Maximinus, who had been the chief promoter of the sedition, was chosen emperor. This extraordinary man, whose character deserves particular attention, was born of very obscure parentage, being the son of a poor herdsman of Thrace. In the beginning he followed his father's profession, and only exercised his personal courage against the robbers who in-

392 Succeeded by Maximinus, a man of gigantic stature and extraordinary strength.

Rome. infested the part of the country in which he lived. Soon after, his ambition encreasing, he left his poor employment, and enlisted in the Roman army; where he soon became remarkable for his great strength, discipline, and courage. This gigantic man was no less than eight feet and an half high; he had a body and strength corresponding to his size, being not less remarkable for the magnitude than the symmetry of his person. His wife's bracelet usually served him for a thumb ring; and his strength was so great, that he was able to draw a carriage which two oxen could not move. He could strike out an horse's teeth with a blow of his fist, and break its thigh with a kick. His diet was as extraordinary as the rest of his endowments: he generally eat 40 pounds weight of flesh every day, and drank six gallons of wine, without committing any debauch in either. With a frame so athletic, he was possessed of a mind undaunted in danger, and neither fearing nor regarding any man. The first time he was made known to the emperor Severus, was upon his celebrating games on the birth-day of his son Geta. Maximinus was then a rude countryman, and requested the emperor to be permitted to contend for the prizes which were distributed to the best runners, wrestlers, and boxers, of the army. Severus, unwilling to infringe the military discipline, would not permit him at first to combat, except with slaves, against whom his strength appeared astonishing. He overcame 16 in running, one after the other: he then kept up with the emperor on horseback; and having fatigued him in the course, he was opposed to seven of the most active soldiers, and overcame them with the greatest ease. From that time he was particularly noticed, and taken into the emperor's body-guards, in which his assiduity and prompt obedience were particularly remarkable. In the reign of Caracalla, he was made a centurion, and distinguished himself in this station by his strict attention to the morals and discipline of those he commanded. When made a tribune, he still retained the hard simplicity of his life; eat as the meanest centinel; spent whole days in exercising his troops; and would now and then himself wrestle with eight or ten of the strongest men in the army, whom he threw with scarce any effort. Being thus become one of the most remarkable men in the empire, both for courage, discipline, and personal activity, he gave, shortly after, a very high instance of his unshaken fidelity: for when Macrinus was made emperor, he refused to serve under a prince that had betrayed his sovereign; and retired to Thrace, his native country, where he followed commerce, and purchased some lands, content with privacy rather than a guilty dependence. Upon the accession of Heliogabalus to the throne, this bold veteran once more returned to the army; but was, in the very beginning, disgusted at the base effeminacy of the emperor; who, hearing amazing instances of his strength, asked him, if he were equally capable in combats of another nature? This lewd demand was so little suitable to the temper of Maximinus, that he instantly left the court. Upon the death of Heliogabalus, he again returned to Rome, and was received with great kindness by Alexander, who particularly recommended him to the senate, and made him commander of the fourth legion, which consisted of new-raised soldiers. Maximinus gladly accepted of this charge, and performed his duty with great exactness and success, setting an example of virtue and discipline to all the commanders of the army. Nor was his valour less apparent against the Germans, whither he was sent with his legion; so that he was unanimously considered as the boldest, bravest, most valiant and most virtuous soldier in the whole empire. He soon, however, forfeited all these justly merited titles when he was raised to the throne; and, from being the most loved commander in the army, he became the most cruel tyrant upon earth. Yet in fact, his former virtues were all of the severe and rigid kind, which, without any education, might very easily degenerate into tyranny; so that he might have mistaken his succeeding cruelty for discipline, and his severity for justice. However this be, Maximinus is considered as one of the greatest monsters of cruelty that ever disgraced power; and, fearful of nothing himself, he seemed to sport with the terrors of all mankind. 393 Becomes a cruel tyrant.

He began his reign by endeavouring to force obedience from every rank of people, and by vindicating his authority by violence. The senate and people of Rome were the first that incurred his resentment. They utterly refusing to confirm the election of the army, he was the first emperor who reigned without their concurrence or approbation. However, he seemed regardless of their opposition, proceeding to secure his election by putting all such to death as had been raised by his predecessor. The Christians also, having found favour in the former reign, felt the weight of his resentment; and were persecuted in several parts of the empire, particularly in those where he himself resided. His cruelty likewise extended to the rich, whose lives and estates became a frequent sacrifice to avarice and suspicion. But what appears still a more extraordinary instance of his cruelty, being ashamed of the meanness of his extraction, he commanded all such as were best acquainted with him and his parentage to be slain, altho' there were some among the number that had relieved him in his low condition.

However, his cruelties did not retard his military operations, which were carried on with a spirit becoming a better monarch. He overthrew the Germans in several battles, wasted all their country with fire and sword for 400 miles together, and set a resolution of subduing all the northern nations as far as the ocean. In these expeditions, in order to attach the soldiers more firmly to him, he increased their pay; and in every duty of the camp, he himself took as much pains as the meanest centinel in his army, showing incredible courage and assiduity. In every engagement, where the conflict was hottest, Maximinus was always seen fighting there in person, and destroying all before him: for, being bred a barbarian, he considered it as his duty to combat as a common soldier, while he commanded as a general. 394 His success in war.

In the mean time, his cruelties had so alienated the minds of his subjects, that several conspiracies were secretly aimed against him. Magnus, a consular person, and some others, had plotted to break down a wooden bridge, as soon as the emperor had passed it, and thus to abandon him to the enemy. But this being discovered, gave Maximinus an opportunity of indulging his natural severity, upon this pretext alone causing above 4000 to be slain. Shortly after, some of 395 Conspiracies formed against him.

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Alexander's old soldiers withdrawing themselves from the camp, proclaimed one Quarcianus as emperor, who had been lately disgusted at Maximinus for being dismissed from employment. The soldiers, in fact, constrained him to accept of the dangerous superiority to which he was exposed: and shortly after, in the spirit of the times, the person who had been the promoter of his advancement, murdered him in his bed, and carried his head to Maximinus; who received him kindly at first, but soon put him to a cruel death, for his complicated guilt of treason and treachery.

These partial insurrections were soon after followed by a spirit of general discontent throughout all the empire. The provinces of Africa were the first that showed their detestation of the tyrant, whose extortions and cruelties among them were become insupportable. They first slew his procurator; and afterwards considering how dangerous a crime they had committed, they resolved to throw off all expectations of pardon, and create a new emperor. Gordian was then proconsul of Africa, a person of great fame for his virtues, and highly reverenced for a blameless life of near eighty. Him, therefore, they determined to elect; and accordingly the soldiers and natives assembling together, tumultuously entered his house, resolved to put their design in execution. Gordian, who at first supposed they were come to kill him, being made sensible of their intentions, utterly refused their offer, alleging his extreme age, and Maximinus's power. But all his opposition was vain: they constrained him to accept of the proffered dignity; and he, with his son Gordian, who was 46 years of age, were declared emperors. Being thus raised contrary to his inclinations, the old man immediately wrote to the senate, declaring that he had unwillingly accepted of the empire, and would only keep his authority till he had freed it from the tyranny of its present oppressor. The senate very joyfully confirmed his election, adjudging Maximinus as an enemy and traitor to the state. The citizens also showed an equal zeal in the cause: they slew upon such as were the reputed friends of Maximinus, and tore them in pieces; even some who were innocent, falling a sacrifice to the multitude's blind rage. So great an alteration being made in the city against the interests of Maximinus, the senate were resolved to drive the opposition to the extreme; and accordingly made all necessary preparations for their security, ordering Maximinus's governors to be displaced, and commanding all the provinces to acknowledge Gordian for emperor. This order was differently received in different parts, as people were affected to one or the other party; in some provinces the governors were slain; in others, the messengers of the senate; so that all parts of the empire felt the consequences of the civil war.

396 Gordian proclaimed emperor.

397 Rage of Maximinus on hearing the news.

In the mean time, when Maximinus was informed of these charges against him, his rage appeared ungovernable. He roared like a savage beast, and violently struck his head against the wall, showing every instance of ungovernable distraction. At length his fury being somewhat subsided, he called his whole army together; and, in a set speech, exhorted them to revenge his cause, giving them the strongest assurances that they should possess the estates of all such as had offended, The soldiers unanimously promised to be faithful; they received his harangue with their usual acclamations; and, thus encouraged, he led them towards Rome, breathing nothing but slaughter and revenge. However, he found many obstacles to his impetuosity; and, though he desired nothing so much as dispatch, his marches were incommodious and slow. The tumultuous and disobedient armies of the empire, were at present very different from the legions that were led on by Sylla or Cæsar; they were loaded with baggage, and followed by slaves and women, rather resembling an eastern caravan, than a military battalion. To these inconveniencies also was added the hatred of the cities through which he passed, the inhabitants all abandoning their houses upon his approach, and securing their provisions in proper hiding-places. However, in this complication of inconveniences and misfortunes, his affairs began to wear a favourable appearance in Africa: for Capelianus, the governor of Numidia, raised a body of troops in his favour, and marched against Gordian, towards Carthage; where he fought the younger Gordian, slew him, and destroyed his army. The father hearing of the death of his son, together with the loss of the battle, strangled himself in his own girdle. Capelianus pursuing his victory, entered Carthage; where he gave a loose to pillage and slaughter, under a pretence of revenging the cause of Maximinus. The news of these successes was soon brought to the emperor, who now increased his diligence, and flattered himself with a speedy opportunity of revenge. He led on his large army by hasty journeys into Italy, threatening destruction to all his oppofers, and ardently wishing for fresh opportunities of slaughter.

398 Gordian defeated and killed.

Nothing could exceed the consternation of the senate upon the news of this defeat. They now saw themselves not only deprived of the assistance of Gordian and his son, on whom they greatly relied; but also opposed by two formidable tyrants, each commanding a victorious army, directly marching towards Rome, and meditating nothing but vengeance. In this afflicting exigence, they, with great solemnity, met at the temple of Jupiter, and after the most mature deliberations chose Pupienus and Balbinus emperors conjointly. These were men who had acquired the esteem of the public both in war and peace, having commanded armies and governed provinces with great reputation; and being now appointed to oppose Maximinus, they made what levies they could, both in Rome and the country. With these, Pupienus marched to stop the progress of the invaders, leaving the city to a fresh and unlooked for calamity. This was occasioned by two of Maximinus's soldiers, who, entering the senate-house, were slain by two senators. This quickly gave offence to the body of the prætorian soldiers, who instantly resolved to take revenge, but were opposed by the citizens; so that nothing was seen throughout Rome, but tumult, slaughter, and cruelty. In this universal confusion the calamity was increased, by the soldiers setting the city on fire, while the wretched inhabitants were combating each other in the midst of the flames.

399 Pupienus and Balbinus proclaimed emperors.

Nevertheless, Maximinus himself, in whose favour these seditions were promoted, did not seem to be more fortunate. Upon being informed of the new election of emperors, his fury was again renewed, and he

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he passed the Alps, expecting, upon entering Italy, to refresh his fatigued and famished army in that fertile part of the country. But in this he was entirely disappointed; the senate had taken such care to remove all kinds of sustenance to fortified places, that he still found himself reduced to his former necessities, while his army began to murmur for want. To this another disappointment was added shortly after: for approaching the city of Aquileia, which he expected to enter without any difficulty, he was astonished to find it prepared for the most obstinate resistance, and resolved to hold out a regular siege. This city was well fortified and populous, and the inhabitants greatly averse to Maximinus's government; but what added still more to its strength, it was commanded by two excellent generals, Crispinus and Menophilis, who had so well furnished it with men and ammunition, that Maximinus found no small resistance, even in investing the place. His first attempt was, to take the city by storm; but the besieged threw down such quantities of scalding pitch and sulphur upon his soldiers, that they were unable to continue the assault. He then determined upon a blockade; but the inhabitants were so resolute, that even the old men and children were seen combating upon the walls, while the women cut off their hair to furnish the soldiers with bow-strings. Maximinus's rage at this unexpected opposition, was now ungovernable: having no enemy to wreck his resentment upon, he turned it against his own commanders. He put many of his generals to death, as if the city had held out through their neglect or incapacity, while famine made great depredations upon the rest of his army. Nothing now appeared on either side to terminate the contest, except the total destruction of either. But a mutiny in Maximinus's own army, a while rescued the declining empire from destruction, and saved the lives of thousands. The soldiers being long harrassed by famine and fatigue, and hearing of revolts on every side, resolved to terminate their calamities by the tyrant's death. His great strength, and his being always armed, were, at first, the principal motives to deter any from assassinating him; but at length having made his guards accomplices in their design, they set upon him, while he slept at noon in his tent, and slew both him and his son, whom he had made his partner in the empire, without any opposition, after an usurpation of about three years, and in the 65th year of his age.

400 Aquileia besieged by Maximinus.

401 Assassinates.

The tyrant being dead, and his body thrown to the dogs and birds of prey, Pupienus and Balbinus continued for some time emperors without opposition. But the prætorian soldiers, who had long been notorious for mutiny and treason, soon resolved on further change. Nor did the dissensions between the new-made emperors themselves, a little contribute to their downfall; for though both were remarkable for wisdom and age, yet they could not restrain the mutual jealousy of each other's power. Pupienus claimed the superiority from his great experience; while Balbinus was equally aspiring upon account of his family and fortune.

In this ill-judged contest, the prætorian soldiers, who were enemies to both, set upon them in their palace, at a time their guards were amused with seeing the Capitoline games. Pupienus perceiving their tumultuous approach, sent, with the utmost speed, for assistance from his colleague; but he, out of a culpable suspicion that something was designed only against himself, refused to send such of the German guards as were next his person. Thus the seditious soldiers found an easy access to both the emperors apartments; and dragging them from the palace towards the camp, slew them both, leaving their dead bodies in the streets, as a dreadful instance of their sedition.

402 And likewise Pupienus and Balbinus.

In the midst of this sedition, as the mutineers were proceeding along, they by accident met Gordian, the grandson of him who was slain in Africa, and declared him emperor on the spot. The senate and people had been long reduced to the necessity of suffering their emperors to be nominated by the army; so that all they could do in the present instance was to confirm their choice. This prince was but 16 years old when he began his reign, but his virtues seemed to compensate for his want of experience. His principal aims were, to unite the opposing members of the government, and to reconcile the soldiers and citizens to each other. His learning is said to have been equal to his virtues; and we are assured that he had 62,000 books in his library. His respect for Misitheus, his governor and instructor, was such, that he married his daughter, and profited by his counsels in all the critical circumstances of his reign.

403 Young Gordian proclaimed emperor.

The first four years of this emperor's reign were attended with the utmost prosperity; but in the fifth, he was alarmed with accounts from the east, that Sapor, king of Persia, had furiously invaded the confines of the Roman empire, and having taken Antioch had pillaged Syria and all the adjacent provinces. Besides the Persians, the Goths also invaded the empire on their side, pouring down like an inundation from the north, and attempting to fix their residence in the kingdom of Thrace. To oppose both these invasions, Gordian prepared an army; and having gained some victories over the Goths, whom he obliged to retire, he turned his arms against the Persians, whom he defeated upon several occasions, and forced to return home with disgrace. In gaining these advantages, Misitheus, whom he had made prætorian præfect, had the principal share; but, he dying soon after, (as it is supposed being poisoned by Philip, an Arabian, who was appointed his successor), the fortunes of Gordian seemed to die with him. The army began to be no longer supplied with provisions as usual; murmurs were heard to prevail, and these were artfully fomented by Philip. Things thus proceeding from bad to worse, Philip was at first made equal to the command of the empire; shortly after, invested with the sole power; and, at length, finding himself capable of perpetrating his long meditated cruelty, Gordian was, by his order, slain, in the 22d year of his age, after a successful reign of near six years.

404 His success against the barbarians.

405 Is murdered by Philip, who succeeds.

Philip having thus murdered his benefactor, was so fortunate as to be immediately acknowledged emperor by the army. The senate also, though they seemed at first to oppose his power, confirmed his election, and gave him, as usual, the title of *Augustus*. Philip was about 40 years old when he came to the throne; being the son of an obscure Arabian, who had been captain of a band of robbers. Upon his exaltation, he associated

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ciated his ſon, a boy of ſix years of age, as his partner in the empire; and, in order to ſecure his power at home, made peace with the Perſians, and marched his army towards Rome. On his way, having conceived a deſire to viſit his native country of Arabia, he built there a city called *Philippopolis*; and from thence returning to Rome, he was received as emperor, and treated with all the marks of ſubmiſſion, though not of joy. To put the people in good humour, he cauſed the ſecular games to be celebrated, with a magnificence ſuperior to any of his predeceſſors, it being juſt 1000 years after the building of the city. Upon occaſion of theſe games, we are told, that both Philip and his ſon were converted to Chriſtianity. However this be, a murderer and an ungrateful uſurper, does no great honour to whatever opinion he may happen to embrace. We have little account of the latter part of his reign in the wretched and mutilated hiſtories of the times; we only learn that the Goths having invaded the empire, Marinus, Philip's lieutenant, who was ſent againſt them, revolted, and cauſed himſelf to be declared emperor. This revolt, however, was but of ſhort duration; for the army which had raiſed him, repented of their raſhneſs, depoſed him with equal levity, and put him to death. Decius was the perſon whom Philip appointed to command in the room of the revolting general. The chief merit of Decius with the emperor was, that when Marinus had rebelled, he averred in the ſenate, That the traitor's preſumption would be very ſhortly his ruin; which, when it happened accordingly, Philip appointed him to ſucceed in the command of the rebellious army. Decius, who was a man of great ſubtlety, being thus entruſted with ſo much power, upon arriving at the army, found that the ſoldiers were reſolved on inveſting him with the ſupreme authority. He, therefore, ſeemed to ſuffer their importunities, as if through conſtraint; and, in the mean time, ſent Philip word, that he had unwillingly aſſumed the title of emperor, the better to ſecure it for the rightful poſſeſſor; adding, that he only looked for a convenient opportunity of giving up his pretenſions and title together. Philip knew mankind too well, to rely upon ſuch profeſſions: he therefore got together what forces he could from the ſeveral provinces, and led them forward towards the confines of Italy. However, the army was ſcarce arrived at Verona, when it revolted in favour of Decius, and ſetting violently upon Philip, a centinel, with one blow, cut off his head, or rather cleaved it aſunder, ſeparating the under jaw from the upper. Such was the deſerved death of Philip, in the 45th year of his age, after a reign of about five years; Decius being univerſally acknowledged as his ſucceſſor, A. D. 248.

406 The thouſandth year of Rome.

407 Philip murdered, and is ſucceeded by Decius.

The activity and wiſdom of Decius in ſome meaſure ſtopped the haſtening decline of the Roman empire. The ſenate ſeemed to think ſo highly of his merits, that they voted him not inferior to Trajan; and indeed he ſeemed in every inſtance to conſult their dignity in particular, and the welfare of all inferior ranks of people. He permitted them to chooſe a cenſor, as was the cuſtom in the flouriſhing times of Rome; and Valerian, his general, a man of ſuch ſtrict morals, that his life was ſaid to be a continual cenſorſhip, was choſen to that dignity.—But no virtues could now prevent the approaching downfall of the ſtate: the obſtinate diſputes between the Pagans and the Chriſtians within the empire, and the unceaſing irruptions of barbarous nations from without, enfeebled it beyond the power of a remedy. To ſtop theſe, a perſecution of the Chriſtians, who were now grown the moſt numerous body of the people, was impolitically, not to ſay unjuſtly, begun; in which thouſands were put to death, and all the arts of cruelty tried in vain to leſſen their growing number. This perſecution was ſucceeded by dreadful devaſtations from the Goths, particularly in Thrace and Meſia, where they had been moſt ſucceſsful. Theſe irruptions Decius went to oppoſe in perſon; and coming to an engagement with them, ſlew 30,000 of the barbarians in one battle. However, being reſolved to purſue his victory, he was by the treachery of Gallus his own general, led into a deſile, where the king of the Goths had ſecret information to attack him. In this diſadvantageous ſituation, Decius firſt ſaw his ſon killed with an arrow, and ſoon after his whole army put to the rout. Wherefore, reſolving not to ſurvive his loſs, he put ſpurs to his horſe, and inſtantly plunging into a quagmire, was ſwallowed up, and his body could never be found after. He died in the 50th year of his age, after a ſhort reign of two years and ſix months; leaving the character of an excellent prince, and one capable of averting the deſtruction of the empire, if human means could have effected it.

408 Is overcome, and killed by the Goths.

Gallus, who had thus betrayed the Roman army, had addreſs enough to get himſelf declared emperor by that part of it which ſurvived the defeat; he was 45 old when he began to reign, and was deſcended from an honourable family in Rome. He bought a diſhonourable peace from the enemies of the ſtate, agreeing to pay a conſiderable annual tribute to the Goths, whom it was his duty to repreſs. Having thus purchaſed a ſhort remiſſion from war, by the diſgrace of his country, he returned to Rome, to give a looſe to his pleaſures, regardleſs of the wretched ſituation of the empire.

309 Succeeded by Gallus.

Nothing can be more deplorable than the ſtate of the Roman provinces at this time. The Goths and other barbarous nations, not ſatisfied with their late bribes to continue in peace, broke in upon the eaſtern parts of Europe. On the other ſide, the Perſians and Scythians committed unheard of ravages in Meſopotamia and Syria. The emperor, regardleſs of every national calamity, was loſt in debauch and ſenſuality at home; and the Pagans were allowed a power of perſecuting the Chriſtians through all parts of the ſtate; theſe calamities were ſucceeded by a peſtilence, that ſeemed to have in general ſpread over every part of the earth, and which continued raging for ſeveral years, in an unheard of manner; and all theſe by a civil war, which followed ſhortly after, between Gallus and his general Æmilianus, who having gained a victory over the Goths, was proclaimed emperor by his conquering army. Gallus hearing this, was ſoon roufed from the intoxications of pleaſure, and prepared to oppoſe his dangerous rival. Both armies met in Meſia, and a battle enſued, in which Æmilianus was victorious, and Gallus, with his ſon, were ſlain. His death was merited, and his vices were ſuch as to deſerve the deteſtation of poſterity. He died in the 47th year of his age, after an unhappy reign of two years and

310 Miſerable ſtate of empire.

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and four months, in which the empire suffered inexpressible calamities. Æmilianus, after his victory over Gallus, expected to be acknowledged emperor; but he soon found himself miserably disappointed. The senate refused to acknowledge his claims; and an army that was stationed near the Alps, chose Valerian, their own commander, to succeed to the throne. In consequence of this, Æmilianus's soldiers began to consider their general as an obstacle to the universal tranquillity, and slew him in order to avoid the mischiefs of a civil war.

Valerian being thus universally acknowledged as emperor, although arrived at the age of 70, set about reforming the state with a spirit that seemed to mark a good mind and unabated vigour. But reformation was then grown almost impracticable. The disputes between the Pagans and Christians divided the empire, as before; and a dreadful persecution of the latter ensued. The Northern nations over-ran the Roman dominions in a more formidable manner than ever; and the empire began to be usurped by a multitude of petty leaders, each of whom, neglecting the general state, set up for himself. To add to these calamities, the Persians, under their king Sapor, invaded Syria; and coming into Mesopotamia, took the unfortunate Valerian prisoner, as he was making preparations to oppose them. Nothing can exceed the indignities, as well as the cruelties, which were practised upon this unhappy monarch, thus fallen into the hands of his enemies. Sapor, we are told, always used him as a footstool for mounting his horse; he added the bitterness of ridicule to his insults, and usually observed, That an attitude like that to which Valerian was reduced, was the best statue that could be erected in honour of his victory. This horrid life of insult and sufferance continued for seven years, and was, at length, terminated by the cruel Persian's commanding his prisoner's eyes to be plucked out, and afterwards causing him to be flead alive.

491 Valerian taken prisoner and cruelly insulted by the Persians.

492 The empire invaded on all sides by the barbarians.

The news of the defeat of the Roman army by the Persians, and the captivity of Valerian, no sooner reached the barbarous nations at war with Rome, than they poured on all sides into the Roman territories in incredible multitudes, threatening the empire, and Rome itself, with utter destruction. The Goths and Scythians ravaged Pontus and Asia, committing every where dreadful devastations; the Alemanni and Franks having over-run Rhætia, advanced as far as Ravenna; putting all to fire and sword; the Quadi and Sarmatians seized on great part of Dacia and Pannonia; while other barbarous nations, invading Spain, made themselves masters of Tarraco and other important places in that province. In the mean time Gallienus, the son of Valerian, having promised to revenge his father's captivity, and repress the barbarians, was chosen emperor without any opposition. He was at that time in Gaul; but hastened into Italy, from whence he drove out the barbarians, either by the terror of his approach, or by overcoming them in battle. In Dacia and Pannonia, also, the barbarians were driven back by Regillianus, who commanded there, and who is said to have gained several victories in one day.

But in the mean time, one Ingenuus, a man of great reputation in war, and universally beloved both by the people and soldiery, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor in Pannonia, where he was generally acknowledged, as well as in Mœsia. Gallienus no sooner heard of his revolt, than he marched from the neighbourhood of Ravenna where he then was, into Illyricum, engaged Ingenuus, and put him to flight. Some authors tell us, that Ingenuus was killed after the battle by his own soldiers; while others affirm, that he put an end to his own life to avoid falling into the hands of Gallienus, who used his victory with a cruelty hardly to be parallelled. The following letter to Verianus Celer, one of his officers, will show the disposition of this emperor: "I shall not be satisfied, (says he) with your putting to death only such as have borne arms against me, and might have fallen in the field: you must in every city destroy all the males, old and young; spare none who have wished ill to me, none who have spoken ill of me the son of Valerian, the father and brother of princes. Ingenuus emperor! Tear, kill, cut in pieces without mercy: you understand me; do then as you know I would do, who have written to you with my own hand." In consequence of these cruel orders, a most dreadful havock was made among that unhappy people; and, in several cities, not one male child was left alive. The troops who had formerly served under Ingenuus, and the inhabitants of Mœsia who had escaped the general slaughter, provoked by these cruelties, proclaimed Regillianus emperor. He was a Dacian by birth, descended, as was said, from the celebrated king Decebalus whom Trajan had conquered; and had, by several gallant actions, gained reputation in the Roman armies. After he was proclaimed emperor, he gained great advantages over the Sarmatians; but was soon after murdered by his own soldiers. These revolts were quickly followed by many others. Indeed it is not surprising, at a time when the reins of government were held with so loose an hand, that a crowd of usurpers should start up in every province of the empire. The great number of usurpers who pretended to the empire about this time, have been distinguished by the name of the *thirty tyrants*. However, there were only 19; viz. Cyriades, Macrianus, Balista, Udenatus, and Zenobia in the east: in Gaul, and the western provinces, Posthumus, Lollianus, Victorinus and his mother Victoria, Marius, and Tetricus; in Illyricum, and on the confines of the Danube, Ingenuus, Regillianus, and Aureolus; in Pontus, Saturninus; in Illyria, Trebellianus; in Thessaly, Piso; in Achaia, Valens; in Egypt, Æmilianus; and in Africa, Celsus. Several of these pretenders to the empire, however, though branded with the opprobious appellation of tyrants, were eminent examples of virtue, and almost all of them were possessed of a considerable share of vigour and ability. The principal reason assigned for their revolt was, the infamous character of Gallienus, whom neither officers nor soldiers could bear to serve. Many of them, however, were forced by the soldiers to assume the imperial dignity much against their will. "You have lost," said Saturninus, to his soldiers when they invested him with the purple, "a very useful commander, and have made a very wretched emperor." The apprehensions of Saturninus were justified by the event. Of the 19 usurpers already mentioned, not one died a natural death; and in Italy and Rome

493 Monstrous cruelty of the new emperor Gallienus.

494 The thirty tyrants.

Rome.

Gallienus alone continued to be acknowledged emperor. That prince indeed honoured Odenatus prince of Palmyra with the title of *Augustus*, who continued to possess an independent sovereignty in the east all his lifetime, and on his death transmitted it to his wife Zenobia. See PALMYRA.

495 Fatal consequences of these usurpations.

The consequences of these numerous usurpations were the most fatal that can be conceived. The elections of these precarious emperors, their life and death, were equally destructive to their subjects and adherents. The price of their elevation was instantly paid to the troops by an immense donative drawn from the exhausted people. However virtuous their character, and however pure their intentions might be, they found themselves reduced to the necessity of supporting their usurpation by frequent acts of rapine and cruelty. When they fell, they involved armies and provinces in their fall, as appears from the letter of Gallienus already quoted. Whilst the forces of the state were dispersed in private quarrels, the defenceless provinces lay exposed to every invader. The bravest usurpers were compelled, by the perplexity of their situation, to conclude dishonourable treaties with the barbarians, and even to submit to shameful tributes, and introduce such numbers of barbarians into the Roman service as seemed sufficient at once to overthrow the empire.

496 Gallienus murdered, and is succeeded by Claudius.

But when the empire seemed thus ready to sink at once, it suddenly revived on the death of Gallienus, who was murdered by Martian, one of his own generals, while he besieged Aureolus, one of the tyrants in Milan. His death gave general satisfaction to all, except his soldiers, who hoped to reap the reward of their treachery by the plunder of Milan. But being frustrated in these expectations, and in some measure kept within bounds by the largesses of Martian, Flavius Claudius was nominated to succeed, and joyfully accepted by all orders of the state, and his title confirmed by the senate and the people.

We are not sufficiently assured of this emperor's lineage and country. Some affirm that he was born in Dalmatia, and descended from an ancient family there; others assert that he was a Trojan; and others, that he was son to the emperor Gordian. But, whatever might have been his descent, his merits were by no means doubtful. He was a man of great valour and conduct, having performed the most eminent services against the Goths, who had long continued to make irruptions into the empire. He was now about 55 years old, equally remarkable for the strength of his body and the vigour of his mind; he was chaste and temperate, a rewarder of the good, and a severe punisher of such as transgressed the laws. Thus endowed therefore, he, in some measure, put a stop to the precipitate decline of the empire, and once more seemed to restore the glory of Rome.

497 He defeats the Goths, and retrieves the the affairs of the empire.

His first success, upon being made emperor, was against Aureolus, whom he defeated near Milan. His next expedition was to oppose the Goths, against whom he led a very numerous army. These barbarians had made their principal and most successful irruptions into Thrace and Macedonia, swarmed over all Greece, and had pillaged the famous city of Athens, which had long been the school of all the polite arts to the Romans. The Goths, however, had no veneration for those embellishments that tend to soften and humanize the mind, but destroyed all monuments of taste and learning with the most savage alacrity. It was upon one of these occasions, that, having heaped together a large pile of books in order to burn them, one of the commanders dissuaded them from the design, alleging, that the time which the Grecians should waste on books would only render them more unqualified for war. But the empire seemed to tremble, not only on that side, but almost on every quarter. At the same time, above 300,000 of these barbarians (the Heruli, the Trutangi, the Virturgi, and many nameless and uncivilized nations) came down the river Danube, with 2000 ships, fraught with men and ammunition, spreading terror and devastation on every side.

In this state of universal dismay, Claudius, alone, seemed to continue unshaken. He marched his disproportioned army against the savage invaders; and though but ill prepared for such an engagement, as the forces of the empire were then employed in different parts of the world, he came off victorious, and made an incredible slaughter of the enemy. The whole of their great army was either cut to pieces or taken prisoners: houses were filled with their arms; and scarce a province of the empire, that was not furnished with slaves, from those that survived the defeat. These successes were followed by many others in different parts of the empire; so that the Goths, for a considerable time after, made but a feeble opposition. He some time after marched against the revolted Germans, and overthrew them with considerable slaughter. His last expedition was to oppose Tetricus and Zenobia, his two puissant rivals in the empire. But on his march, as he approached near Sirmium, in Pannonia, he was seized with a pestilential fever; of which he died in a few days, to the great regret of his subjects, and the irreparable loss of the Roman empire. His reign, which was not quite two years continuance, was active and successful; and such is the character given of him by historians, that he is said to have united in himself, the moderation of Augustus, the valour of Trajan, and the piety of Antoninus.

498 Claudius dies, and is succeeded by Aurelian.

Immediately after the death of Claudius, the army made unanimous choice of Aurelian, who was at that time master of the horse, and esteemed the most valiant commander of his time. However, his promotion was not without opposition on the part of the senate, as Quintillus, the brother of the deceased emperor, put in his claim, and was for a while acknowledged at Rome. But his authority was of very short duration; for finding himself abandoned by those who at first instigated him to declare for the throne, he chose to prevent the severity of his rival, by a voluntary death; and causing his veins to be opened, expired, after having reigned but 17 days.

Aurelian being thus universally acknowledged by all the states of the empire, assumed the command, with a greater shower of power than his predecessors had enjoyed for some time before. This active monarch was born of mean and obscure parentage in Dacia, and was about 55 years old at the time of his coming to the throne. He had spent the early part of his life in the army, and had risen through all the gradations of military duty. He was of unshaken courage and amazing strength; he, in one engagement, killed 40 of the enemy with his own hand, and above

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above 900 at ſeveral different times. In ſhort, his valour and expedition were ſuch, that he was compared to Julius Cæſar; and, in fact, only wanted mildneſs and clemency to be every way his equal.

499 His great ſucceſs againſt the barbarians.

The whole of this monarch's reign was ſpent in repreſſing the irruptions of the northern nations, in humbling every other pretender to the empire, and puniſhing the monſtrous irregularities of his own ſubjects. He defeated the Marcomanni, that had invaded Italy, in three ſeveral engagements, and at length totally deſtroyed their army. He was not leſs ſucceſsful againſt Zenobia, the queen of the Eaſt, a woman of the moſt heroic qualifications, who had long diſclaimed the Roman power, and eſtabliſhed an empire of her own, as is related under the article PALMYRA.

Aurelian having thus brought back peace to the empire, endeavoured, by the rigours of juſtice, to bring back virtue alſo. He was very ſtrict in puniſhing the crimes of the ſoldiery: in his orders to his lieutenants, he inſiſted that the peaſants ſhould not be plundered upon any pretences; that not even a grape, a grain of ſalt, or a drop of oil, ſhould be exacted unjuſtly. He cauſed a ſoldier, who had committed adultery with his hoſteſs, to have his feet tied to the tops of two trees, forcibly bent at top to meet each other; which being let looſe, and ſuddenly recoiling, tore the criminal in two. This was a ſeverity that might take the name of cruelty; but the vices of the time, in ſome meaſure, required it. In theſe puniſhments inflicted on the guilty, the Chriſtians, who had all along been growing more numerous, were ſharers. Againſt theſe he drew up ſeveral letters and edicts, which ſhowed that he intended a very ſevere perſecution; but if we may believe the credulous hiſtorians of the times, he was diverted juſt as he was going to ſign them, by a thunderbolt, which fell ſo near his perſon, that all the people judged him to be deſtroyed.

But, however Heaven might have interpoſed on this occaſion, it is certain that his ſeverities at laſt were the cauſe of his deſtruction. Meneſthus, his principal ſecretary, having been threatened by him for ſome fault which he had committed, began to conſider how he might prevent the meditated blow. For this purpoſe, he forged a roll of the names of ſeveral perſons, whom he pretended the emperor had marked out for death, adding his own to ſtrengthen him in the confidence of the party. The ſcroll thus contrived, was ſhown with an air of the utmoſt ſecrecy to ſome of the perſons concerned; and they, to procure their ſafety, immediately agreed with him to deſtroy the emperor. This reſolution was ſoon put in execution; for, as the emperor paſſed, with a ſmall guard, from Uraclea, in Thrace, towards Byzantium, the conſpirators ſet upon him at once, and ſlew him with very ſmall reſiſtance. He was ſlain in the 60th, or, as ſome ſay, in the 63d year of his age, after a very active reign of almoſt five years.

500 He is murdered.

The number of pretenders to the throne, which had formerly infeſted the empire, were, by the laſt monarch's activity, ſo entirely removed, that there now ſeemed to be none that would venture to declare himſelf a candidate. The army referred the choice to the ſenate; and, on the other ſide, the ſenate declined it; ſo that a ſpace of near eight months elapſed in theſe negociations. At length, however, the ſenate made choice of Tacitus, a man of great merit, and noway ambitious of the honours that were offered him. Upon being ſolicited to accept the empire, he at firſt refuſed, and retired to his country-houſe in Campania to avoid their importunities; but being at length prevailed upon, he accepted the reins of government, being at that time 75 years old.

501 Tacitus choſen emperor.

One of the firſt acts of his government was the puniſhment of thoſe who had conſpired againſt the late emperor. Meneſthus was impaled alive, his body being thrown to be devoured by wild beaſts; his eſtate alſo was confiſcated to the exchequer; and his ready money, which was very conſiderable, applied towards paying the army. During this ſhort reign, the ſenate ſeemed to have a large ſhare of authority, and the hiſtorians of the times are liberal of their praiſes to ſuch emperors as were thus willing to divide their power. Upon endeavouring to obtain the conſulſhip for his brother Probus, he was refuſed it by the ſenate; at which he ſeemed no way moved, but calmly remarked that the ſenate beſt knew whom to chooſe. This moderation prevailed in all the reſt of his conduct: he was extremely temperate; his table was plain, and furniſhed with nothing expenſive; he even prohibited his empreſs from wearing jewels, and forbad the uſe of gold and embroidery. He was fond of learning, and the memory of ſuch men as had deſerved well of their country. He particularly eſteemed the works of his nameſake Tacitus the hiſtorian; commanding that they ſhould be placed in every public library throughout the empire, and that many copies of them ſhould be tranſcribed at the public charge. A reign begun with ſuch moderation and juſtice, only wanted continuance to have made the empire happy; but after enjoying the empire about ſix months, he died of a fever in his march to oppoſe the Perſians and Scythians, who had invaded the eaſtern parts of the empire.

502 His death.

Upon the death of Tacitus, the army ſeemed divided in the choice of an emperor: one part of it choſe Florianus, brother to the deceaſed; but the majority were for ſome time undetermined. They alleged amongſt each other, the neceſſity of chooſing one eminent for valour, honour, piety, clemency, and probity; but the laſt virtue being that chiefly inſiſted upon, the whole army, as if by common conſent, cried out that Probus ſhould be emperor. He was accordingly confirmed in this dignity, with the uſual ſolemnities: and Florianus finding himſelf deſerted, even by thoſe legions who had promiſed to ſtand up in his ſupport, opened his arteries and bled himſelf to death.

503 Probus raiſed to the empire.

Probus was 44 years old when he aſcended the throne, being born of noble parentage at Sirmium in Pannonia, and bred up a ſoldier from his youth. He began early to diſtinguiſh himſelf for his diſcipline and valour; being frequently the firſt man who, in beſieging towns, ſcaled the walls, or that burſt into the enemy's camp. Nor was he leſs remarkable for ſingle combats, and ſaving the lives of many eminent citizens. Nor was his activity and courage, when elected to the empire, leſs apparent, than in his private ſtation. He firſt repreſſed the Germans in Gaul, of whom he ſlew 400,000. He then marched into Dalmatia, to oppoſe and ſubdue the Sarmatians. From thence he led his

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his forces into Thrace, and forced the Goths to sue for peace. He, after that, turned his arms towards Asia; subdued the province of Isauria; and marching onward, conquered a people called the *Blemyes*; who, leaving their native forests of Ethiopia, had possessed themselves of Arabia and Judea, and had continued in a state of rebellion since the reign of Gallienus. Narsis also, the king of Persia, submitted at his approach: and upon his return into Europe, he divided the depopulated parts of Thrace among its barbarous invaders: a circumstance that afterwards produced great calamities to the empire.

504 His conquests.

His diligence was not less conspicuous in suppressing intestine commotions. Saturninus, being compelled by the Egyptians to declare himself emperor, was defeated and slain. Proculus also (a person remarkable only for his great attachment to women, and who boasted in a letter, that, having taken 100 Sarmatian virgins prisoners, he deprived ten of that name in one night, and all the rest within a fortnight) set up against the emperor; but was compelled to fly, and at length delivered up by the Germans. At the same time Conosus (who was a remarkable votary to Bacchus, being able to drink as much wine as ten could do, without being disordered) rebelled, and being overcome hanged himself in despair. Probus, when he saw him immediately after his death, could not avoid pointing to him, and saying, "There hangs not a man, but a caske." Still, however, notwithstanding every effort to give quiet to the empire, the barbarians who surrounded it, kept it in continual alarms. They were frequently repulsed into their native wilds, but they as certainly returned with fresh rage and increased ferocity. The Goths and Vandals finding the emperor engaged in quelling domestic disputes, renewed their accustomed inroads, and once more felt the punishment of their presumptions. They were conquered in several engagements; and Probus returned in triumph to Rome. His active temper, however, would not suffer him to continue at rest while any of the enemy were left to conquer. In his last expedition, he led his soldiers against the Persians; and going through Sirmium, the place of his nativity, he there employed several thousands of his soldiers in draining a fen that was incommodious to the inhabitants. The fatigues of this undertaking, and the great restraint that was laid upon the soldiers licentious manners, produced a conspiracy, which ended in his ruin: for taking the opportunity as he was marching into Greece, they set upon, and slew him, after he had reigned six years and four months with general approbation.

505 Is murdered.

507 Reigns of Carus, Carinus, and Numerianus.

Carus, who was prætorian prefect to the deceased emperor, was chosen by the army to succeed him; and he, to strengthen his authority, named his two sons Carinus and Numerianus with him in command; the former of whom was as much sullied by his vices, as the youngest was virtuous, modest, and courageous. The new emperor had scarce time to punish the murderers of the late monarch, when he was alarmed by a fresh irruption of the Sarmatians; over whom he gained a signal victory. The Persian monarch also made some attempts upon the empire; but Carus assured his ambassadors, that if their master persisted in his obstinacy, all his fields should shortly be as bare as his own bald head, which he showed them. In consequence of this threat, he marched to the very walls of Ctesiphon, and a dreadful battle ensuing, he once more gained a complete victory. What the result of this success might have been, is not known; for he was shortly after struck dead by lightning, in his tent, with many others that were round him. Numerianus, the youngest son, who accompanied his father in this expedition, was inconsolable for his death; and brought such a disorder upon his eyes with weeping, that he was obliged to be carried along with the army, shut up in a close litter. The peculiarity of his situation, after some time, excited the ambition of Aper, his father-in law, who supposed that he could now, without any great danger, aim at the empire himself. He therefore hired a mercenary villain to murder the emperor in his litter; and the better to conceal the fact, gave out that he was still alive, but unable to endure the light. In this manner was the dead body carried about for some days, Aper continuing to attend it with the utmost appearance of respect, and to take orders as usual. The offensiveness, however, of its smell at length discovered the treachery, and excited an universal uproar throughout the army. In the midst of this tumult, Diocletian, one of the most noted commanders of his time, was chosen emperor, and with his own hand slew Aper; having thus, as it is said, fulfilled a prophecy, which had said, that Diocletian should be emperor after he had slain a boar; alluding to the name of his rival, which signifies a boar. Carinus, the remaining son, did not long survive his father and brother; for giving himself up to his vices, and yet at the same time opposing the new-made emperor, the competitors led their forces into Mæsia; where Diocletian being victorious, Carinus was slain by a tribune of his own army, whose wife he had formerly abused.

508 Diocletian raised to the empire.

Diocletian was a person of mean birth; being accounted, according to some, the son of a scrivener; and of a slave, according to others. He received his name from Dioclea, the town in which he was born; and was about 40 years old when he was elected to the empire. He pardoned all who had joined Carinus, without injuring either their fortunes or honours. Conscious also that the weight of empire was too heavy for one alone to sustain, he took in Maximian, his general, as a partner in the fatigues of duty, making him his equal and companion on the throne. Thus mutually assisting each other, those two continued to live in strict friendship; and though somewhat differing in temper (as Maximian was rather a man of vicious inclinations), yet they concurred in promoting the general good, and humbling their enemies. And it must be observed, that there never was a period, in which there were more numerous or formidable enemies to oppose.

509 Takes Maximian for his partner.

510 Insurrections, and other calamities.

The peasants and labourers in Gaul made a dangerous insurrection, under the conduct of Amandus and Helianus, that were subdued by Maximian. Achilleus, who commanded in Egypt, proclaimed himself emperor; and it was not without many bloody engagements, that he was overcome, and condemned by Diocletian to be devoured by lions. In Africa, the Roman legions, in like manner, joined with many of the natives, seized upon the public revenues, and plundered

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dered those who continued in their duty. These were also subdued by Maximian; and, after a long dubious war, constrained to sue for peace. About the same time, a principal commander in Britain, named *Carausius*, proclaimed himself emperor, and possessed himself of the island. To oppose this general's claims, Maximian made choice of Constantius Chlorus, whom he created Cæsar, and married to Theodora his daughter-in-law. He, upon his arrival in Britain, finding Carausius very strong, and continually reinforced from Germany, thought proper to come to an accommodation; so that this usurper continued for seven years in quiet possession of the whole island, till he was slain by Alectus, his friend and intimate. About this time also, Narses, king of Persia, began a dangerous war upon the empire, and invaded Mesopotamia. To stop the progress the enemy upon this quarter, Diocletian made choice of Galerius, (surnamed *Armentarius*, from the report of his being born of a cow-herd, in Dacia;) and he likewise was created Cæsar. His success also, though very doubtful in the beginning, was in the end terminated according to his wishes. The Persians were overcome in a decisive engagement, their camp plundered and taken, and their king's wives and children made prisoners of war. There only remained, of all the enemies of the Roman empire, those who lay to the northward unsubdued. These were utterly unconquerable, as well upon account of their savage fierceness, as the inhospitable severity of the climate and soil from whence they issued. Ever at war with the Romans, they issued forth, when the armies that were to repress their invasions were called away; and upon their return, they as suddenly withdrew into cold, barren, and inaccessible places, which only themselves could endure. In this manner the Goths, Sarmatians, Alani, Quadi, &c. poured down in incredible numbers; while every defeat seemed but to increase their strength and perseverance. Of these, multitudes were taken prisoners, and sent to people the more southern parts of the empire; still greater numbers were destroyed; and though the rest were driven back to their native forests, yet they continued ever mindful of their inveterate enmity, and, like a savage beast, only continued inactive, till they had licked their wounds for a new encounter.

511 The Christians cruelly persecuted.

During this interval, as if the external miseries of the empire were not sufficient, the tenth and last great persecution was renewed against the Christians. This is said to have exceeded all the former in severity: and such was the zeal with which it was pursued, that, in an ancient inscription, we are informed that they had effaced the name and superstition of the Christians, and had restored and propagated the worship of the gods. Their attempts, however, were but the malicious efforts of an expiring party; for Christianity shortly after was established by law, and triumphed over the malice of all its enemies. In the midst of the troubles raised by this persecution, and of the contests that struck at the internal parts of the state, Diocletian and Maximian surprised the world by resigning their dignities on the same day, and both retiring into private stations. Historians are much divided concerning the motives that thus induced them to give up those honours which they had purchased with so much danger. Some ascribe it to the philosophical turn of

512 Diocletian and Maximian resign.

Diocletian; and others, to his being disgusted with the obstinacy of his Christian subjects: but Lactantius asserts, that he was compelled to it, together with his partner, by Galerius, who coming to Nicomedia, upon the emperor's recovery from a great sickness, threatened him with a civil war in case he refused to resign. However, of this we are well assured, that he still preserved a dignity of sentiment in his retirement, that might induce us to believe he had no other motive for resignation. Having retired to his birth-place, he spent his time in cultivating his garden, assuring his visitors that then only he began to enjoy the world, when he was thought by the rest of mankind to forsake it. When also some attempted to persuade him to resume the empire, he replied, That if they knew his present happiness, they would rather endeavour to imitate than disturb it. In this contented manner he lived some time, and at last died either by poison or madness, it is uncertain which. His reign, which continued 20 years, was active and useful; and his authority, tinctured with severity, was well adapted to the depraved state of morals at that time.

Maximian, his partner in the empire and in resignation, was by no means so contented with his situation. He longed once more for power, and disturbed the two succeeding reigns with various efforts to resume it; attempting to engage Diocletian in the same design. Being obliged to leave Rome, where he had bred great confusion, he went over into Gaul, where he was kindly received by Constantine, the then acknowledged emperor of the west. But here also continuing his intrigues, and endeavouring to force his own daughter and destroy her husband, he was detected, and condemned to die by whatever death he should think proper; and Lactantius tells us that he chose hanging.

512 Constantius, Chlorus, and Galerius, emperors.

Upon the resignation of the two emperors, the two Cæsars whom they had formerly chosen were universally acknowledged as their successors. Constantius Chlorus, who was so called from the plainness of his complexion, was virtuous, valiant, and merciful. Galerius, on the other hand, was brave, but brutal, incontinent, and cruel. As there was such a disparity in their tempers, they readily agreed, upon coming into full power, to divide the empire; Constantius being appointed to govern the western parts; namely, Italy, Sicily, the greatest part of Africa, together with Spain, Gaul, Britain, and Germany: Galerius had the eastern parts allotted to his share; to wit, Illyricum, Pannonia, Thrace, Macedonia, all the provinces of Greece, and the lesser Asia, together with Egypt, Syria, Judea, and all the countries eastward. The greatness of the division, however, soon induced the emperor to take in two partners more, Severus and Maximin, who were made Cæsars, and assisted in the conducting of affairs; so that the empire now was under the guidance of four persons, all invested with supreme authority.

We are informed but of few particulars of the reign of Constantius, except a detail of his character, which appears in every light most amiable. He was frugal, chaste, and temperate. His mercy and justice were equally conspicuous in his treatment of the Christians, whom he would not suffer to be injured; and when at length persuaded to displace all the Christian

Rome. ſtian officers of his houſehold that would not change their religion, when ſome of them complied he ſent them away in diſgrace; alleging, that thoſe who were not true to their God, would never be faithful to their prince.

In the ſecond year of his reign, he went over into Britain; and leaving his ſon Conſtantine as a kind of hoſtage in the court of his partner in the empire, took up his reſidence at York. He there continued in the practice of his uſual virtues; till falling ſick, he began to think of appointing his ſon for his ſucceſſor. He accordingly ſent for him with all ſpeed; but he was paſt recovery before his arrival: notwithſtanding, he received him with marks of the utmoſt affection, and raiſing himſelf in his bed, gave him ſeveral uſeful inſtructions, particularly recommending the Chriſtians to his protection. He then bequeathed the empire to his care; and crying out, that none but the pious Conſtantine ſhould ſucceed him, he expired in his arms.

In the mean time, Galerius, his partner in the empire, being informed of Conſtantine's advancement, teſtified the moſt ungovernable rage, and was even going to condemn the meſſenger who brought him the account: but being diſſuaded, he ſeemed to acquieſce in what he could not prevent, and ſent him the marks of royalty; but at the ſame time declared Severus emperor, in oppoſition to his intereſts. Juſt about this time alſo, another pretender to the empire ſtarted up. This was Maxentius, a perſon of mean extraction; but very much favoured by the ſoldiers, whom he permitted to pillage at diſcretion. In order to oppoſe Maxentius, Severus led a numerous army towards the gates of Rome; but his ſoldiers conſidering againſt whom they were to fight, immediately abandoned him; and ſhortly after, he put an end to his own life, by opening his veins. To revenge his death, Galerius marched into Italy, reſolving to ruin the inhabitants, and to deſtroy the whole ſenate. His ſoldiers, however, upon approaching the capital began to waver in their reſolutions: wherefore he was obliged to have recourſe to intreaties, imploring them not to abandon him; and, retiring by the ſame route by which he had advanced, made Licinius, who was originally the ſon of a poor labourer in Dacia, Cæſar, in the room of Severus who was ſlain. This ſeemed to be the laſt act of his power; for ſhortly after, he was ſeized with a very extraordinary diſorder in his privities, which baffled all the ſkill of his phyſicians, and carried him off, after he had languiſhed in torments for near the ſpace of a year. His cruelty to the Chriſtians was one of the many crimes alleged againſt him; and their hiſtorians have not failed to aggravate the circumſtances of his death as a judgment from Heaven for his former impiety. However this be, he abated much of his ſeverities againſt them on his deathbed; and revoked thoſe edicts which he had formerly publiſhed, tending to their perſecution, a little before his death.

514 Maxentius uſurps the throne.

515 Dreadful death of Galerius.

Conſtantine being thus delivered from his greateſt opponent, might now be conſidered as poſſeſſing more power than any of his rivals who were yet remaining. The empire was at that time divided between him and three others: Maxentius, who governed in Rome, a perſon of a cruel diſpoſition, and a ſtedfaſt ſupporter of paganiſm; Licinius, who was adopted by Galerius, and commanded in the eaſt; and likewiſe Maximin, who had formerly been declared Cæſar with Severus, and who alſo governed ſome of the eaſtern provinces. Rome.

For ſome time all things ſeemed to wear a peaceful appearance; till at length, either ambition, or the tyrannical conduct of Maxentius, induced Conſtantine to engage in an expedition to expel that commander from Rome, and to make the proper preparations for marching into Italy. It was upon this occaſion that he formed a reſolution which produced a mighty change in the politics as well as the morals of mankind; and gave a new turn to the councils of the wiſe, and the purſuits of ambition. One evening, as we are told by Euſebius, the army being upon its march towards Rome, Conſtantine was taken up with various conſiderations upon the fate of ſublunary things, and the dangers of his approaching expedition: ſenſible of his own incapacity to ſucceed without divine aſſiſtance, he employed his meditations upon the opinions that then were chiefly agitated among mankind, and ſent up his ejaculations to Heaven to inſpire him with wiſdom to chooſe the path he ought to purſue. It was then, as the ſun was declining, that there ſuddenly appeared a pillar of light in the heavens, in the faſhion of a croſs, with this inſcription, ΤΟΥΤΩ ΝΙΚΗ, "In this overcome." So extraordinary an appearance did not fail to create aſtoniſhment both in the emperor and his whole army, who conſidered it as their diſpoſitions led them to believe. Thoſe who were attached to paganiſm, prompted by their auſpices, pronounced it a moſt inauſpicious omen, portending the moſt unfortunate events. But it made a different impreſſion on the emperor's mind: who, as the account goes, was further encouraged by viſions the ſame night. He therefore, the day following, cauſed a royal ſtandard to be made, like that which he had ſeen in the heavens; and commanded it to be carried before him in his wars, as an enſign of victory and celeſtial protection. After this, he conſulted with ſeveral of the principal teachers of Chriſtianity, and made a public avowal of that ſacred perſuaſion. 516 Conſtantine's viſion and converſion to Chriſtianity.

Conſtantine having thus attached his ſoldiers to his intereſt, who were moſtly of the Chriſtian perſuaſion, loſt no time in entering Italy with 90,000 foot and 8000 horſe; and ſoon advanced to the very gates of Rome. The unfortunate Maxentius, who had long given himſelf up to eaſe and debauchery, now began to make preparations when it was too late. He firſt put in practice all the ſuperſtitious rites which paganiſm taught to be neceſſary; and then conſulted the Sibylline books, from whence he was informed, that on that great day the enemy of Rome ſhould periſh. This prediction, which was equivocal, he applied to Conſtantine; wherefore, leaving all things in the beſt poſture, he advanced from the city with an army of 100,000 foot and 18,000 horſe. The engagement was for ſome time fierce and bloody, till his cavalry being routed, victory declared upon the ſide of his opponent, and he himſelf was drowned in his flight, by the breaking down of a bridge as he attempted to croſs the river Tiber. 516 Maxentius defeated and killed.

Conſtantine, in conſequence of this victory, entering the city, diſclaimed all praiſes which the ſenate and people were ready to offer; aſcribing his ſucceſs to a ſuperior Power. He even cauſed the croſs, which he was ſaid to have ſeen in the heavens, to be placed at the

Rome.

the right of all his ſtatues, with this inſcription: "That under the influence of that victorious croſs, Conſtantine had delivered the city from the yoke of tyrannical power, and had reſtored the ſenate and people of Rome to their ancient authority." He afterwards ordained, that no criminal ſhould for the future ſuffer death by the croſs; which had formerly been the moſt uſual way of puniſhing ſlaves convicted of capital offences. Edicts were ſoon after iſſued, declaring that the Chriſtians ſhould be eaſed from all their grievances, and received into places of truſt and authority. Thus the new religion was ſeen at once to prevail over the whole Roman empire; and as that enormous fabric had been built and guided upon pagan principles, it loſt a great deal of its ſtrength and coherence when thoſe principles were thus at once ſubverted.

Things continued in this ſtate for ſome time, Conſtantine all the while contributing what was in his power to the intereſt of religion, and the revival of learning, which had long been upon the decline, and was almoſt wholly extinct in the empire. But in the midſt of theſe aſſiduities, the peace of the empire was again diſturbed by the preparations of Maximin, who governed in the eaſt, and who, deſirous of a full participation of power, marched againſt Licinius with a very numerous army. In conſequence of this ſtep, after many conflicts, a general engagement enſued, in which Maximin ſuffered a total defeat; many of his troops were cut to pieces, and thoſe that ſurvived ſubmitted to the conqueror. Maximin, however, having eſcaped the general carnage, once more put himſelf at the head of another army, reſolving to try the fortune of the field; but death prevented his deſign. As he died by a very extraordinary kind of madneſs, the Chriſtians, of whom he was the declared enemy, did not fail to aſcribe his end to a judgment from heaven; but this was the age in which falſe judgments and falſe miracles made up the bulk of their uninſtructive hiſtory.

517 Maximin's defeat and death.

518 War between Conſtantine and Licinius.

Conſtantine and Licinius thus remaining undiſputed poſſeſſors and partners in the empire, all things promiſed a peaceable continuance of friendſhip and power. However, it was ſoon found, that the ſame ambition that aimed after a part, would be content with nothing leſs than the whole. Pagan writers aſcribe the rupture between theſe two potentates to Conſtantine; while the Chriſtians, on the other hand, impute it wholly to Licinius. Both, perhaps, might have concurred: for Licinius is convicted of having perſecuted Chriſtianity, which was ſo highly favoured by his rival; and Conſtantine is known to have been the firſt to begin the preparations for an open rupture. Both ſides exerted all their power to make oppoſition; and at the head of very formidable armies, came to an engagement near Cybalis, in Pannonia. Conſtantine, previous to the battle, in the midſt of his Chriſtian biſhops, begged the aſſiſtance of Heaven; while Licinius, with equal zeal, called upon the pagan prieſts, to intercede with the gods in his favour. Conſtantine, after an obſtinate reſiſtance from the enemy, became victorious; took their camp; and, after ſome time, compelled Licinius to ſue for a truce, which was agreed upon. But this was of no long continuance; for ſoon after, the war breaking out afreſh, and the rivals coming once more to a general engagement, it proved deciſive. Licinius was entirely defeated, and purſued by Conſtantine into Nicomedia, where he ſurrendered himſelf up to the victor; having firſt obtained an oath that his life ſhould be ſpared, and that he ſhould be permitted to paſs the remainder of his days in retirement. This, however, Conſtantine ſhortly after broke; for either fearing his deſigns, or finding him actually engaged in freſh conſpiracies, he commanded him to be put to death, together with Martian his general, who ſome time before had been created Cæſar.

519 Licinius overcome and put to death.

Conſtantine being now ſole monarch of the empire, without a rival to divide his power, or any perſon from whoſe claims he could have the leaſt apprehenſions, reſolved to eſtabliſh Chriſtianity on ſo ſure a baſis, that no new regulations ſhould ſhake it. He commanded that in all the provinces of the empire the orders of the biſhops ſhould be exactly obeyed; a privilege of which, in ſucceeding times, theſe fathers made but a very indifferent uſe. He called alſo a general council of theſe, in order to repreſs the hereſies that had already crept into the church, particularly that of Arius. To this place repaired about 318 biſhops, beſides a multitude of preſbyters and deacons, together with the emperor himſelf; who all, to about 17, concurred in condemning the tenets of Arius; who, with his aſſociates, was baniſhed into a remote part of the empire.

Having thus reſtored univerſal tranquillity to the empire, he was not able to ward off the calamities of a more domeſtic nature. As the hiſtories of that period are entirely at variance with each other, it is not eaſy to tell the motives which induced him to put his wife Fauſta and his ſon Criſpus to death. The moſt plauſible account is this: Fauſta the empreſs, who was a woman of great beauty, but of extravagant deſires, had long, though ſecretly, loved Criſpus, Conſtantine's ſon by a former wife. She had tried every art to inſpire this youth with a mutual paſſion; but, finding her more diſtant efforts ineffectual, had even the confidence to make him an open confeſſion of her deſires. This produced an explanatoin, which was fatal to both. Criſpus received her addreſſes with deteſtation; and ſhe, to be revenged, accuſed him to the emperor. Conſtantine, fired at once with jealouſy and rage, ordered him to die without a hearing; nor did his innocence appear till it was too late for redreſs. The only reparation therefore that remained, was the putting Fauſta, the wicked inſtrument of his former cruelty, to death; which was accordingly executed upon her, together with ſome others who had been accomplices in her falſehood and treachery.

520 Conſtantine puts his wife and ſon to death.

But the private miſfortunes of a few were not to be weighed againſt evils of a more general nature, which the Roman empire ſhortly after experienced. Theſe aroſe from a meaſure which this emperor conceived and executed, of transferring the ſeat of the empire from Rome to Byzantium, or *Conſtantinople*, as it was afterwards called. Whatever might have been the reaſons which induced him to this undertaking; whether it was becauſe he was offended at ſome affronts he received at Rome, or that he ſuppoſed Conſtantinople more in the centre of the empire, or that he thought the eaſtern parts more required his preſence, experience has ſhown that they were weak and groundleſs. The empire had long before been in the moſt declining ſtate; but this in a great meaſure gave precipitation to its

521 Transfers the ſeat of empire to Conſtantinople.

Rome. its downfall. After this it never resumed its former splendor, but languished.

His first design was to build a city which he might make the capital of the world: and for this purpose, he made choice of a situation at Chalcedon in Asia Minor; but we are told, that in laying out the ground-plan, an eagle caught up the line and flew with it over to Byzantium, a city which lay upon the opposite side of the Bosphorus. Here, therefore, it was thought expedient to fix the seat of the empire; and indeed nature seems to have formed it with all the conveniencies and all the beauties which might induce power to make it the seat of residence. It was situated on a plain that rose gently from the water; it commanded that strait which unites the Mediterranean with the Euxine sea, and was furnished with all the advantages which the most indulgent climate could bestow. This city, therefore, he beautified with the most magnificent edifices; he divided it into 14 regions; built a capitol, an amphitheatre, many churches, and other public works; and having thus rendered it equal to the magnificence of his idea, he dedicated it in a very solemn manner to the God of martyrs; in about two years after, repairing thither with his whole court.

This removal produced no immediate alteration in the government of the empire; the inhabitants of Rome, tho' with reluctance, submitted to the change; nor was there for two or three years any disturbance in the state, until at length the Goths, finding that the Romans had withdrawn all their garisons along the Danube, renewed their inroads, and ravaged the country with unheard-of cruelty. Constantine, however, soon repressed their incursions; and so straitened them, that near 100,000 of their number perished by cold and hunger. These and some other insurrections being happily suppressed, the government of the empire was divided as follows. Constantine, the emperor's eldest son, commanded in Gaul and the western provinces; Constantius governed Africa and Illyricum; and Constans ruled in Italy. Dalmatius, the emperor's brother, was sent to defend those parts that bordered upon the Goths; and Annibalianus, his nephew, had the charge of Cappadocia and Armenia Minor. This division of the empire still farther contributed to its downfall: for the united strength of the state being no longer brought to repress invasions, the barbarians fought with superior numbers; and conquered at last, though often defeated. Constantine, however, did not live to feel these calamities. The latter part of his reign was peaceful and splendid; ambassadors from the remotest Indies came to acknowledge his authority; the Persians, who were ready for fresh inroads, upon finding him prepared to oppose, sent humbly to desire his friendship and forgiveness. He was above 60 years old, and had reigned above 30 years, when he found his health began to decline. To obviate the effects of his disorder, which was an intermitting fever, he made use of the warm baths of the city; but receiving no benefit from thence, he removed for change of air to Helenopolis, a city which he had built to the memory of his mother. His disorder increasing, he changed again to Nicomedia; where finding himself without hopes of recovery, he caused himself to be baptized; and having soon after received the sacrament, he expired, after a memorable and active reign of 32 years. This monarch's character is represented to us in very different lights: the Christian writers of that time adorning it with every strain of panegyric; the heathens, on the contrary, loading it with all the virulence of invective. He established a religion that continues the blessing of mankind; but pursued a scheme of politics that destroyed the empire.

522 Death of Constantine.

From the time of Constantine to the division of the empire between Valentinian and his brother Valens, the history of Rome is related under the article CONSTANTINOPLE, where also that of the eastern part is carried down to the final destruction of that city by the Turks. In the beginning of the reign of Valentinian, the province of Libya Tripolitana was grievously oppressed by the Asturians, and almost equally so by Romanus their governor. His conduct was so exceedingly oppressive, that the inhabitants sent a deputation to Valentinian, complaining of their unhappy situation, and desiring redress. Palladius was accordingly sent to inquire into the state of the province; but being gained over by Romanus, he made a false report to the emperor; and thus the unhappy province was left a prey to the merciless invaders and rapacious governor. During the rest of this reign the barbarians continued their inroads into the empire; and among others, we find the Saxons now putting in for a share of the spoils of the ruined empire: however, their army was at this time entirely cut off. At last Valentinian himself took the field against these northern barbarians; and entering the country of the Quadi, destroyed all with fire and sword. The barbarians on this were fain to sue for peace in a very humble manner; but Valentinian, falling into a great passion while speaking to them, threatened to extirpate the whole nation at once. His fury on this occasion produced an apoplexy, or some other mortal disorder; for he suddenly fell down, and being conveyed by his attendants into his chamber, he was seized with violent convulsive fits and contortions of all his limbs, in the agonies of which he expired, in the year 375, the 55th of his age, and 12th of his reign.

523 Reign of Valentinian.

After the death of Valentinian, his son Gratian took upon him the imperial dignity; soon after becoming master of the whole empire, by the death of Valens. The transactions of his reign, and those of his partner Theodosius, are related under the article CONSTANTINOPLE, n° 81—92. The death of Theodosius gave the finishing stroke to the Roman affairs; his son Honorius, to whom he left the western empire, being possessed of no abilities whatever; and indeed seeming to have been but very little removed from an idiot. The barbarians appear to have been abundantly sensible of the advantages offered them by the death of Theodosius. He expired in the month of January; and before the accession of spring, the Goths were in arms. The barbarian auxiliaries also now declared their independency; and along with their countrymen, furiously assailed the declining empire. The Goths were now headed by an experienced commander, their celebrated king Alaric; who would have proved formidable even in better times of the empire. He first over-ran Greece, which he accomplished without opposition, through the treachery of the governor, who commanded the troops that defended the pass at Thermopylæ to retire at the approach of the enemy. Athens, Corinth, Argos, Sparta,

524 Invasion of the Goths under Alaric.

Rome. Sparta, yielded without resistance; and the whole country was ravaged and destroyed by the blood-thirsty barbarians. At last, in the year 397, he was opposed by Stilicho, the general of Honorius, a man of great valour and experience in war. The Goths were defeated with great loss, and afterwards besieged in their camp; but through mistake or negligence in the Roman commander, they were suffered to escape, and make themselves masters of the province of Epirus. Alaric then, having found means to conclude a treaty with the ministers of Constantinople, Stilicho was obliged to retire.

Not long after this, Alaric invaded Italy itself. The emperor, struck with terror, would have abandoned the country and fled into Gaul: but this disgraceful and pernicious measure was opposed by Stilicho; who proposed to the court of Honorius, at that time at Milan, that if they would maintain their ground during his absence, he would soon return with an army capable of opposing the barbarians. This being agreed to, Stilicho immediately set out for Rhætia, where the most considerable body of the Roman forces at that time was, and collected his troops with the utmost diligence. But in the mean time Honorius was in the greatest danger; having been obliged to take refuge in the town of Asta in Piedmont. To this place the Goths instantly laid siege, and a capitulation had been proposed, when the drooping spirits of Honorius were at once revived by the arrival of Stilicho, whom he had so long expected. The Goths were now besieged in their turn, and obliged to come to a decisive battle at Pollentia. The engagement lasted the whole day; but at last the Goths were compelled to retreat. Their camp was instantly invested; their entrenchments forced with great slaughter; the wife of Alaric was taken, with all the wealth which had been amassed in plundering Greece; while many thousands of Roman prisoners were released from the most deplorable slavery. The victory, however, was not so decisive but that Alaric continued still extremely formidable; and Stilicho chose rather to conclude a treaty with him, and allow him an annual pension, than to continue the war with vigour. Alaric, who was not very scrupulous in his observance of this treaty, in his retreat attempted to make himself master of the city of Verona: but Stilicho coming up with him near that place, gave him a terrible defeat, in which the loss was little less than it had been at Pollentia; after which he effected a retreat out of Italy, but not without the greatest difficulty and danger.

525 Goths defeated at Pollentia.

Italy being thus happily delivered, Honorius entered Rome in triumph, having Stilicho along with him in the triumphal chariot. On his entry into the city, he abolished the shews of gladiators; which, though forbidden by Constantine, had been tolerated by his successors, and even by Theodosius himself, out of complaisance to the people, who were beyond measure fond of that inhuman diversion. However, soon after, the emperor was obliged to leave the metropolis and retire to Ravenna, in order to secure himself from the barbarians, who now broke in upon the empire on all sides. Such multitudes now made their appearance, that it is not a little difficult to account for their sudden emigration. Mr Gibbon accounts for it from a supposed revolution in the north-eastern parts of China. "The Chinese annals (says he), as they have been interpreted by the learned industry of the present age, may be usefully applied to reveal the secret and remote causes of the fall of the Roman empire. The extensive territory to the north of the great wall, was possessed, after the flight of the Huns, by the victorious Sienpi; who were sometimes broken into independent tribes, and sometimes re-united under a supreme chief; till at length styling themselves *Topa*, or "masters of the earth," they acquired a more solid consistence, and a more formidable power. The Topa soon compelled the pastoral nations of the eastern desart to acknowledge the superiority of their arms; they invaded China in a period of weakness and intestine discord; and these fortunate Tartars, adopting the laws and manners of the vanquished people, founded an imperial dynasty, which reigned near 160 years over the northern provinces of the monarchy. Some generations before they ascended the throne of China, one of the Topa princes had enlisted in his cavalry a slave of the name of *Moko*, renowned for his valour; but who was tempted, by the fear of punishment, to desert his standard, and to range the desart at the head of 100 followers. This gang of robbers and outlaws swelled into a camp, a tribe, a numerous people, distinguished by the appellation of *Geougen*; and their hereditary chieftains, the posterity of Moko the slave, assumed their rank among the Scythian monarchs. The youth of Toulun, the greatest of his descendants, was exercised by those misfortunes which are the school of heroes. He bravely struggled with adversity, broke the imperious yoke of the Topa, and became the legislator of his nation, and the conqueror of Tartary. His troops were distributed into regular bands of 100 and of 1000 men; cowards were stoned to death; the most splendid honours were proposed as the reward of valour; and Toulun, who had knowledge enough to despise the learning of China, adopted only such arts and institutions as were favourable to the military spirit of his government. His tents, which he removed in the winter season to a more southern latitude, were pitched during the summer on the fruitful banks of the Selinga. His conquests stretched from the Corea far beyond the river Irtish. He vanquished, in the country to the north of the Caspian sea, the nation of the Huns; and the new title of *Khan*, or *Cagan*, expressed the fame and power which he derived from this memorable victory.

527 Mr Gibbon's account of the revolutions in China.

The chain of events is interrupted, or rather is concealed, as it passes from the Volga to the Vistula, through the dark interval which separates the extreme limits of the Chinese and of the Roman geography. Yet the temper of the barbarians, and the experience of successive emigrations, sufficiently declare, that the Huns, who were oppressed by the arms of the Geougen, soon withdrew from the presence of an insulting victor. The countries towards the Euxine were already occupied by their kindred tribes; and their hasty flight, which they soon converted into a bold attack, would more naturally be directed towards the rich and level plains through which the Vistula gently flows into the Baltic sea. The north must again have been alarmed and agitated by the invasion of the Huns; and the nations who retreated before them, must have pressed with incumbent weight on the confines of Germany. The inhabitants of those regions which the ancients

526 Honorius retires to Ravenna.

Rome.

have assigned to the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Burgundians, might embrace the resolution of abandoning to the fugitives of Sarmatia their woods and morasses; or at least of discharging their superfluous numbers on the provinces of the Roman empire. About four years after the victorious Toulun had assumed the title of *khan of the Geougen*, another barbarian, the haughty Rhodogast, or Radagaisus, marched from the northern extremities of Germany almost to the gates of Rome, and left the remains of his army to atchieve the destruction of the west. The Vandals, the Suevi, and the Burgundians, formed the strength of this mighty host: but the Alani, who had found an hospitable reception in their new seats, added their active cavalry to the heavy infantry of the Germans; and the Gothic adventurers crowded so eagerly to the standard of Radagaisus, that by some historians he has been styled the *king of the Goths*. Twelve thousand warriors, distinguished above the vulgar by their noble birth or their valiant deeds, glittered in the van; and the whole multitude, which was not less than 200,000 fighting men, might be increased by the accession of women, of children, and of slaves, to the amount of 400,000 persons. This formidable emigration issued from the same coast of the Baltic, which had poured forth the myriads of the Cimbri and Teutones to assault Rome and Italy in the vigour the republic. After the departure of those barbarians, their native country, which was marked by the vestiges of their greatness, long ramparts, and gigantic moles, remained during some ages a vast and dreary solitude; till the human species was renewed by the powers of generation, and the vacancy was filled up by the influx of new inhabitants. The nations who now usurp an extent of land which they are unable to cultivate, would soon be assisted by the industrious poverty of their neighbours, if the government of Europe did not protect the claims of dominion and property.

528 Radagaisus invades Italy with a prodigious army.

"The correspondence of nations was in that age so imperfect and precarious, that the revolutions of the north might escape the knowledge of the court of Ravenna; till the dark cloud which was collected along the coast of the Baltic, burst in thunder upon the banks of the Upper Danube. The emperor of the west, if his ministers disturbed his amusements by the news of the impending danger, was satisfied with being the occasion and the spectator of the war. The safety of Rome was intrusted to the counsels and the sword of Stilicho; but such was the feeble and exhausted state of the empire, that it was impossible to restore the fortifications of the Danube, or to prevent, by a vigorous effort, the invasion of the Germans. The hopes of the vigilant minister of Honorius were confined to the defence of Italy. He once more abandoned the provinces; recalled the troops; pressed the new levies, which were rigorously exacted, and pusillanimously eluded; employed the most efficacious means to arrest, or allure, the deserters; and offered the gift of freedom, and of two pieces of gold, to all the slaves who would enlist. By these efforts he painfully collected from the subjects of a great empire, an army of 30,000 or 40,000 men; which, in the days of Scipio or Camillus, would have been instantly furnished by the free citizens of the territory of Rome. The 30 legions of Stilicho were reinforced by a large body of barbarian auxiliaries; the faithful Alani were personally attached to his service; and the troops of Huns and of Goths, who marched under the banners of their native princes Hulden and Sarus, were animated by interest and resentment to oppose the ambition of Radagaisus. The king of the confederate Germans passed, without resistance, the Alps, the Po, and the Appenine: leaving on one hand the inaccessible palace of Honorius, securely buried among the marshes of Ravenna; and on the other, the camp of Stilicho, who had fixed his head-quarters at Ticinum, or Pavia, but who seems to have avoided a decisive battle till he had assembled his distant forces. Many cities of Italy were pillaged, or destroyed; and the siege of Florence by Radagaisus, is one of the earliest events in the history of that celebrated republic, whose firmness checked and delayed the unskilful fury of the barbarians. The senate and people trembled at their approach within 180 miles of Rome; and anxiously compared the danger which they had escaped, with the new perils to which they were exposed. Alaric was a Christian and a soldier, the leader of a disciplined army; who understood the laws of war, who respected the sanctity of treaties, and who had familiarly conversed with the subjects of the empire in the same camps and the same churches. The savage Radagaisus was a stranger to the manners, the religion, and even the language, of the civilized nations of the south. The fierceness of his temper was exasperated by cruel superstition; and it was universally believed, that he had bound himself by a solemn vow, to reduce the city into a heap of stones and ashes, and to sacrifice the most illustrious of the Roman senators on the altars of those gods who were appeased by human blood. The public danger, which should have reconciled all domestic animosities, displayed the incurable madness of religious faction. The oppressed votaries of Jupiter and Mercury respected, in the implacable enemy of Rome, the character of a devout pagan; loudly declared, that they were more apprehensive of the sacrifices than of the arms of Radagaisus; and secretly rejoiced in the calamities of their country, which condemned the faith of their Christian adversaries,

"Florence was reduced to the last extremity; and the fainting courage of the citizens was supported only by the authority of St Ambrose, who had communicated in a dream the promise of a speedy deliverance. On a sudden they beheld from their walls the banners of Stilicho, who advanced with his united force to the relief of the faithful city; and who soon marked that fatal spot for the grave of the barbarian host. The apparent contradictions of those writers who variously relate the defeat of Radagaisus, may be reconciled without offering much violence to their respective testimonies. Orosius and Augustin, who were intimately connected by friendship and religion, ascribe this miraculous victory to the providence of God rather than to the valour of man. They strictly exclude every idea of chance, or even of bloodshed; and positively affirm, that the Romans, whose camp was the scene of plenty and idleness, enjoyed the distress of the barbarians, slowly expiring on the sharp and barren ridge of the hills of Fæsulæ, which rise above the city of Florence. Their extravagant assertion, that not a single soldier of the Christian army was killed, or even wounded, may be dismissed with

529 Defeated and destroyed by Stilicho.

Rome.

with ſilent contempt; but the reſt of the narrative of Auguſtin and Oroſius is conſiſtent with the ſtate of the war, and the character of Stilicho. Conſcious that he commanded the laſt army of the republic, his prudence would not expoſe it in the open field to the headſtrong fury of the Germans. The method of ſurrounding the enemy with ſtrong lines of circumvallation, which he had twice employed againſt the Gothic king, was repeated on a larger ſcale, and with more conſiderable effect. The examples of Cæſar muſt have been familiar to the moſt illiterate of the Roman warriors; and the fortifications of Dyrrhachium, which connected 24 caſtles by a perpetual ditch and rampart of 15 miles, afforded the model of an intrenchment which might confine and ſtarve the moſt numerous hoſt of barbarians. The Roman troops had leſs degenerated from the induſtry than from the valour of their anceſtors; and if the ſervile and laborious work offended the pride of the ſoldiers, Tuſcany could ſupply many thouſand peaſants, who would labour, though perhaps they would not fight, for the ſalvation of their native country. The impriſoned multitude of horſes and men was gradually deſtroyed by famine, rather than by the ſword; but the Romans were expoſed, during the progreſs of ſuch an extenſive work, to the frequent attacks of an impatient enemy. The deſpair of the hungry barbarians would precipitate them againſt the fortifications of Stilicho; the general might ſometimes indulge the ardour of his brave auxiliaries, who eagerly preſſed to aſſault the camp of the Germans; and theſe various incidents might produce the ſharp and bloody conflicts which dignify the narrative of Zoſimus, and the Chronicles of Proſper and Marcellinus. A ſeaſonable ſupply of men and proviſions had been introduced into the walls of Florence; and the famiſhed hoſt of Radagaiſus was in its turn beſieged. The proud monarch of ſo many warlike nations, after the loſs of his braveſt warriors, was reduced to confide either in the faith of a capitulation, or in the clemency of Stilicho. But the death of the royal captive, who was ignominiouſly beheaded, diſgraced the triumph of Rome and of Chriſtianity; and the ſhort delay of his execution was ſufficient to brand the conqueror with the guilt of cool and deliberate cruelty. The famiſhed Germans who eſcaped the fury of the auxiliaries, were ſold as ſlaves, at the contemptible price of as many ſingle pieces of gold: but the difference of food and climate ſwept away great numbers of thoſe unhappy ſtrangers; and it was obſerved, that the inhuman purchaſers, inſtead of reaping the fruit of their labour, were ſoon obliged to provide the expence of their interment. Stilicho informed the emperor and the ſenate of his ſucceſs; and deſerved a ſecond time the glorious title of *Deliverer of Italy*.

"The fame of the victory, and more eſpecially of the miracle, has encouraged a vain perſuaſion, that the whole army, or rather nation, of Germans, who migrated from the ſhores of the Baltic, miſerably periſhed under the walls of Florence. Such indeed was the fate of Radagaiſus himſelf, of his brave and faithful companions, and of more than one-third of the various multitude of Sueves and Vandals, of Alani and Burgundians, who adhered to the ſtandard of their general. The union of ſuch an army might excite our ſurpriſe, but the cauſes of ſeparation are obvious and forcible; the pride of birth, the inſolence of valour, the jealouſy of command, the impatience of ſubordination, and the obſtinate conflict of opinions, of intereſts, and of paſſions, among ſo many kings and warriors, who were untaught to yield or to obey. After the defeat of Radagaiſus, two parts of the German hoſt, which muſt have exceeded the number of 100,000 men, ſtill remained in arms between the Apennine and the Alps, or between the Alps and the Danube. It is uncertain whether they attempted to revenge the death of their general: but their irregular fury was ſoon diverted by the prudence and firmneſs of Stilicho, who oppoſed their march, and facilitated their retreat; who conſidered the ſafety of Rome and Italy as the great object of his care, and who ſacrificed with too much indifference, the wealth and tranquillity of the diſtant provinces. The barbarians acquired, from the junction of ſome Pannonian deſerters, the knowledge of the country and of the roads; and the invaſion of Gaul which Alaric had deſigned, was executed by the remains of the great army of Radagaiſus.

530 Account of the remainder of the army of Radagaiſus.

"Yet if they expected to derive any aſſiſtance from the tribes of Germany who inhabited the banks of the Rhine, their hopes were diſappointed. The Alemanni preſerved a ſtate of inactive neutrality; and the Franks diſtinguiſhed their zeal and courage in the defence of the empire. In the rapid progreſs down the Rhine, which was the firſt act of the adminiſtration of Stilicho, he had applied himſelf with peculiar attention to ſecure the alliance of the warlike Franks, and to remove the irreconcileable enemies of peace and of the republic. Marcomir, one of their kings, was publicly convicted before the tribunal of the Roman magiſtrate, of violating the faith of treaties. He was ſentenced to a mild, but diſtant exile, in the province of Tuſcany; and this degradation of the regal dignity was ſo far from exciting the reſentment of his ſubjects, that they puniſhed with death the turbulent Sunno, who attempted to revenge his brother; and maintained a dutiful allegiance to the princes who were eſtabliſhed on the throne by the choice of Stilicho. When the limits of Gaul and Germany were ſhaken by the northern emigration, the Franks bravely encountered the ſingle force of the Vandals; who, regardleſs of the leſſons of adverſity, had again ſeparated their troops from the ſtandard of their barbarian allies. They paid the penalty of their raſhneſs; and 20,000 Vandals, with their king Godigiſclus, were ſlain in the field of battle. The whole people muſt have been extirpated, if the ſquadrons of the Alani, advancing to their relief, had not trampled down the infantry of the Franks; who, after an honourable reſiſtance, were compelled to relinquiſh the unequal conteſt. The victorious confederates purſued their march; and on the laſt day of the year, in a ſeaſon when the waters of the Rhine were moſt probably frozen, they entered without oppoſition the defenceleſs provinces of Gaul. This memorable paſſage of the Suevi, the Vandals, the Alani, and the Burgundians, who never afterwards retreated, may be conſidered as the fall of the Roman empire in the countries beyond the Alps; and the barriers, which had ſo long ſeparated the ſavage and the civilized nations of the earth, were from that fatal moment levelled with the ground.

531 The Vandals defeated by the Franks.

"While the peace of Germany was ſecured by the attachment of the Franks, and the neutrality of the Alemanni,

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manni, the subjects of Rome, unconscious of their approaching calamities, enjoyed a state of quiet and prosperity, which had seldom blessed the frontiers of Gaul. Their flocks and herds were permitted to graze in the pastures of the barbarians; their huntsmen penetrated, without fear or danger, into the darkest recesses of the Hercynian wood. The banks of the Rhine were crowned, like those of the Tiber, with elegant houses and well cultivated farms; and if a poet descended the river, he might express his doubt on which side was situated the territory of the Romans. This scene of peace and plenty was suddenly changed into a desert; and the prospect of the smoking ruins could alone distinguish the solitude of nature from the desolation of man. The flourishing city of Mentz was surprised and destroyed; and many thousand Christians were inhumanly massacred in the church. Worms perished after a long and obstinate siege; Strasburg, Spires, Rheims, Tournay, Aras, Amiens, experienced the cruel oppression of the German yoke; and the consuming flames of war spread from the banks of the Rhine over the greatest part of the 17 provinces of Gaul. That rich and extensive country, as far as the ocean, the Alps, and the Pyrenees, was delivered to the barbarians, who drove before them in a promiscuous crowd, the bishop, the senator, and the virgin, laden with the spoils of their houses and altars."

532 Gaul ravaged by the barbarians.

533 Revolt of Constantine, whom Honorius acknowledges as his partner in the empire.

In the midst of these calamities a revolt happened in Britain, where one Constantine, a common soldier, was raised to the imperial throne, merely for the sake of his name. However, he seems to have been a man of considerable abilities, and by no means unfit for the high dignity to which he was raised. He governed Britain with great prosperity; passed over into Gaul and Spain, the inhabitants of which submitted without opposition, being glad of any protector whatever from the barbarians. Honorius, incapable of defending the empire, or repressing the revolt, was obliged to acknowledge him for his partner in the empire. In the mean time Alaric, with his Goths, threatenened a new invasion unless he was paid a certain sum of money. Stilicho is said to have occasioned this demand, and to have insisted upon sending him the money he demanded; and this was the cause of his disgrace and death, which happened soon after, with the extirpation of his family and friends. Nay, such was the general hatred of this unfortunate minister, that the soldiers quartered in the cities of Italy no sooner heard of his death, than they murdered the wives and children of the barbarians whom Stilicho had taken into the service of Honorius. The enraged husbands went over to Alaric, who made a new demand of money; which not being readily sent, he laid siege to Rome, and would have taken it, had not the emperor complied with his demand. The ransom of the city was 5000 pounds of gold, 30,000 of silver, 4000 silk garments, 3000 skins dyed purple, and 3000 pounds of pepper. On this occasion the heathen temples were stripped of their remaining ornaments, and among others of the statue of Valour; which the pagans did not fail to interpret as a presage of the speedy ruin of the state.

535 Stilicho disgraced and put to death.

Alaric having received this treasure, departed for a short time: but soon after, he again blocked up the city with a numerous army; and again an accommodation with Honorius was set on foot. However, for some reasons which do not clearly appear, the treaty was broken off, Rome was a third time besieged, and at last taken and plundered. Alaric, when upon the point of breaking into the city, addressing his soldiers, told them, that all the wealth in it was theirs, and therefore he gave them full liberty to seize it: but at the same time, he strictly enjoined them to shed the blood of none but such as they should find in arms; and above all, to spare those who should take sanctuary in the holy places, especially in the churches of the apostles St Peter and St Paul; which he named, because they were most spacious, and consequently capable of affording an asylum to great numbers of people. Having given these orders, he abandoned the city to his Goths, who treated it no better, according to St Jerom, than the Greeks are said to have treated ancient Troy: for after having plundered it for the space of three, or, as others will have it, of six days, they set fire to it in several places; so that the stately palace of Sallust, and many other magnificent buildings, were reduced to ashes: nay, Procopius writes, that there was not in the whole city one house left entire; and both St Jerom and Philostorgius assert, that the great metropolis of the empire was reduced to an heap of ashes and ruins. Though many of the Goths, pursuant to the orders of their general, refrained from shedding the blood of such as made no resistance; yet others, more cruel and blood-thirsty, massacred all they met; so that the streets in some quarters of the city were seen covered with dead bodies, and swimming in blood. However, not the least injury was offered to those who fled to the churches; nay, the Goths themselves conveyed thither, as to places of safety, such as they were desirous should be spared. Many of the statues of the gods that had been left entire by the emperors, as excellent pieces of art, were on this occasion destroyed, either by the Goths, who, though mostly Arians, were zealous Christians, or by a dreadful storm of thunder and lightning which fell at the same time upon the city, as if it had been sent on purpose to complete with them the destruction of idolatry, and abolish the small remainss of pagan superstition. However, notwithstanding these accounts, some affirm that the city suffered very little at this time, not so much as when it was taken by Charles V.

535 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric.

536 Death of that conqueror.

Alaric did not long survive the taking of Rome, being cut off by a violent fit of sickness in the neighbourhood of Rhegium. After his death the affairs of Honorius seemed a little to revive by the defeat and death of Constantine and some other usurpers: but the provinces of Gaul, Britain, and Spain, were now almost entirely occupied by barbarians; in which state they continued till the death of Honorius, which happened in the year 423, after an unfortunate reign of 28 years.

After some usurpations which took place on the death of Honorius, his nephew Valentinian III. was declared emperor of the west, and his mother Placidia regent during his minority. He was scarce seated on the throne, when the empire was attacked by the Huns under the celebrated Attila. The Romans, however, wretched and degenerate as they were, had they been unanimous, would even yet have been superior to their enemies. The empress then had two celebrated generals, Bonifacius and Actius; who by their union might have saved the empire: but unhappily, through the treachery of Actius, Bonifacius was obliged to revolt; and

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and a civil war enſued, in which he loſt his life. Aetius, however, notwithſtanding his treachery, was pardoned, and put at the head of the forces of the empire. He defended it againſt Attila with great ſpirit and ſucceſs, notwithſtanding the deplorable ſituation of affairs, till he was murdered by Valentinian with his own hand, on a ſuſpicion that he aſpired to the empire. But in the mean time the provinces, except Italy itſelf, were totally over-run by the barbarians. Genſeric king of the Vandals ravaged Africa and Sicily; the Goths, Suevians, Burgundians, &c. had taken poſſeſſion of Gaul and Spain; and the Britons were oppreſſed by the Scots and Picts, ſo that they were obliged to call in the Saxons to their aſſiſtance, as is related under the article ENGLAND. In the year 455, Valentinian was murdered by one Maximus, whoſe wife he had raviſhed. Maximus immediately aſſumed the empire; but felt ſuch violent anxieties, that he deſigned to reſign it and fly out of Italy, in order to enjoy the quiet of a private life. However, being diſſuaded from this by his friends, and his own wife dying ſoon after, he forced the empreſs Eudoxia to marry him. Eudoxia, who had tenderly loved Valentinian, provoked beyond meaſure at being married to his murderer, invited Genſeric king of the Vandals into Italy. This proved a moſt fatal ſcheme: for Genſeric immediately appeared before Rome; a violent tumult enſued, in which Maximus loſt his life; and the city was taken and plundered by Genſeric, who carried off what had been left by the Goths. A veſſel was loaded with coſtly ſtatues; half the covering of the capital, which was of braſs plated over with gold; ſacred veſſels enriched with precious ſtones; and thoſe which had been taken by Titus out of the temple of Jeruſalem: all of which were loſt with the veſſel in its paſſage to Africa.

537 Rome taken and plundered by Genſeric.

Nothing could now be more deplorable than the ſtate of the Roman affairs: nevertheleſs the empire continued to exiſt for ſome years longer; and even ſeemed to revive for a little under Marjorianus, who was declared emperor in 458. He was a man of great courage, and poſſeſſed of many other excellent qualities. He defeated the Vandals, and drove them out of Italy. With great labour he fitted out a fleet of which the Romans had been long deſtitute. With this he deſigned to paſs over into Africa; but, it being ſurpriſed and burnt by the enemy, he himſelf was ſoon after murdered by one Ricimer a Goth, who had long governed every thing with an abſolute ſway. After the death of Marjorianus, one Anthemius was raiſed to the empire: but beginning to counteract Ricimer, the latter openly revolted, beſieged and took Rome; where he committed innumerable cruelties, among the reſt putting to death the unhappy emperor Anthemius, and raiſing one Olybius to the empire. The tranſactions of his reign were very few, as he died ſoon after his acceſſion. On his death, one Glycerius uſurped the empire. He was depoſed in 474, and one Julius Nepos had the name of *emperor*. He was driven out the next year by his general Oreſtes, who cauſed his ſon Auguſtus or Auguſtulus to be proclaimed emperor. But the following year, 476, the barbarians who ſerved in the Roman armies, and were diſtinguiſhed with the title of allies, demanded, as a reward for their ſervices, the third part of the lands in Italy; pretending, that the whole country, which they had ſo often defended, belonged of right to them. As Oreſtes refuſed to comply with this inſolent demand, they reſolved to do themſelves juſtice, as they called it; and, openly revolting, chooſe one Odoacer for their leader. Odoacer was, according to Ennodius, meanly born, and only a private man in the guards of the emperor Auguſtulus, when the barbarians revolting, choſe him for their leader. However, he is ſaid to have been a man of uncommon parts, equally capable of commanding an army and governing a ſtate, Having left his own country, when he was yet very young, to ſerve in Italy, as he was of a ſtature remarkably tall, he was admitted among the emperor's guards, and continued in that ſtation till the preſent year; when, putting himſelf at the head of the barbarians in the Roman pay, who, though of different nations, had, with one conſent, choſen him for their leader, he marched againſt Oreſtes, and his ſon Auguſtulus, who ſtill refuſed to give them any ſhare of the lands in Italy.

538 And by Ricimer.

539 Total failure of the empire.

As the Roman troops were inferior, both in number and valour, to the barbarians, Oreſtes took refuge in Pavia, at that time one of the beſt fortified cities in Italy: but Odoacer, inveſting the place without loſs of time, took it ſoon after by aſſault, gave it up to be plundered by the ſoldiers, and then ſet fire to it; which reduced moſt of the houſes, and two churches, to aſhes. Oreſtes was taken priſoner, and brought to Odoacer, who carried him to Placentia, and there cauſed him to be put to death on the 28th of Auguſt, the day on which he had driven Nepos out of Ravenna, and obliged him to abandon the empire. From Placentia, Odoacer marched ſtraight to Ravenna, where he found Paul, the brother of Oreſtes, and the young emperor Auguſtulus. The former he immediately put to death; but ſparing Auguſtulus, in conſideration of his youth, he ſtripped him of the enſigns of the imperial dignity, and confined him to Lucullanum, a caſtle in Campania; where he was, by Odoacer's orders, treated with great humanity, and allowed an handſome maintenance to ſupport himſelf and his relations. Rome readily ſubmitted to the conqueror, who immediately cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed king of Italy, but would not aſſume the purple, or any other mark of the imperial dignity. Thus failed the very name of an empire in the Weſt. Britain had been long ſince abandoned by the Romans; Spain was held by the Goths and Suevans; Africa, by the Vandals; the Burgundians, Goths, Franks, and Alans, had erected ſeveral tetrarchies in Gaul; at length Italy itſelf, with its proud metropolis, which for ſo many ages had given law to the reſt of the world, was enſlaved by a contemptible barbarian, whoſe family, country, and nation, are not well known to this day.

From this time, Rome has ceaſed to be the capital of an empire; the territories of the pope, to whom the city is now ſubject, being inconſiderable. The origin of the pope's temporal power, and the revolutions of Italy, are related under the article ITALY; and a ſketch of the ſpiritual uſurpations of the popes may be ſeen under the articles HISTORY, ſect. ii. and REFORMATION; and likewiſe under the various hiſtorical articles as they occur in the courſe of this work.

It is thought that the walls of modern Rome very

Rome.

540 Description of modern Rome.

take in nearly the same extent of ground as the ancient; but the difference between the number of buildings on this spot is very great, one half of modern Rome lying waste, or occupied with gardens, fields, meadows, and vineyards. One may walk quite round the city in three or four hours at most, the circumference being reckoned about 13 Italian miles. With regard to the number of the inhabitants, modern Rome is also greatly inferior to the ancient: for, in 1709, the whole of these amounted only to 138,568; among which were 40 bishops, 2686 priests, 3559 monks, 1814 nuns, 393 courtesans, about 8000 or 9000 Jews, and 14 Moors. In 1714 the number was increased to 143,000. In external splendor, and the beauty of its temples and palaces, modern Rome is thought by the most judicious travellers to excel the ancient. There was nothing in ancient Rome to be compared with St Peter's church in the modern. That Rome was able to recover itself after so many calamities and devastations, will not be matter of surprise, if we consider the prodigious sums that it has so long annually drawn from all countries to the Popish persuasion. These sums, though still considerable, have been continually decreasing since the Reformation. The surface of the ground on which Rome was originally founded, is surprisingly altered. At present it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills on which it was first built, the low grounds being almost filled up with the ruins of the ancient streets and houses, and the great quantities of earth washed down from the hills by the violence of the rains. Anciently the suburbs extended a vast way on all sides, and made the city appear almost boundless; but it is quite otherwise now, the country about Rome being almost a desert. To this and other causes it is owing, that the air is none of the most wholesome, especially during the summer heats, when few go abroad in the day-time. No city at present in the world, surpasses, or indeed equals Rome, for the multiplicity of fine fountains, noble edifices, antiquities, curiosities, paintings, statues, and sculptures. The city stands on the Tiber, 10 miles from the Tuscan Sea, 380 from Vienna, 560 from Paris, 740 from Amsterdam, 810 from London, and 900 from Madrid. The Tiber is subject to frequent inundations, by which it often does great damage. A small part of the city is separated from the other by the river, and is therefore called *Transtiere*, or beyond the Tiber. Beyond the Tiber, there are several bridges over the river, a great number of towers on the walls, and 20 gates. The remains of Rome's ancient grandeur consist of statues, colossuses, temples, palaces, theatres, naumachias, triumphal arches, circuses, columns, obelisks, fountains, aqueducts, mausoleums, thermæ or hot-baths, and other structures. Of modern buildings, the splendid churches and palaces are the most remarkable. Mr Addison says, it is almost impossible for a man to form in his imagination such beautiful and glorious scenes as are to be met with in several of the Roman churches and chapels. This gentleman tells us also, that no part of the antiquities of Rome pleased him so much as the ancient statues, of which there is still an incredible variety. Next to the statues, he says, there is nothing more surprising than the amazing variety of ancient pillars of so many kinds of marble. Rome is said to be well paved; but not well lighted, nor kept very clean. Two thirds of the houses are the property of the churches, convents, and alms houses. Protestants are not obliged to kneel at the elevation of the host, or at meeting the eucharist in the streets; and they may have flesh-meat always at the inns, even during Lent. Here are many academies for promoting arts and sciences, besides the university. The carnival here is only during the eight days before Lent, and there are no such scenes of riot as at Venice: prostitutes, however, are publicly tolerated. To maintain good order, there is a body of 300 Sbirri, or Halberdeers, under their barigella, or colonel. There is little or no trade carried on in Rome, but a vast deal of money is spent by travellers and other strangers. The principal modern structures are the church of St Peter, and the other churches; the aqueducts and fountains; the Vatican, and the other palaces; the Campidolio, where the Roman senate resides, &c. The principal remains of antiquity are the pila miliaria, of fine marble; the equestrian brass statue of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus; the marble monument of the emperor Alexander Severus; marble busts of the emperors and their consorts; three brick arches of the temple of Peace, built by the emperor Vespasian; the triumphal arch of Septimus Severus and of Galienus; the circus of Antoninus Caracalla; some parts of the cloaca-maxima; the columna Antonina, representing the principal actions of Marcus Aurelius; the columna Trajani, or Trajan's pillar; some fragments of the curia or palace of Antoninus Pius, and of Nerva's forum; the mausoleum of Augustus, in the Strada Pontifici; the remains of the emperor Severus's tomb without St John's gate; the pyramid of Caius Cestus near St Paul's gate; the porphyry coffin of St Helen, and the original statue of Constantine the Great, in the church of St John of Lateran; a font of oriental granite, in the chapel of St Giovanni in fonte, said to have been erected by Constantine the Great; an Egyptian obelisk near the church of St Maria Maggiore; the stately remains of Diocleslian's baths; the celebrated Pantheon; the obelisks of Sesostris and Augustus by the Clementine college; the church of St Paul fuori della Mura, said to have been built by Constantine the Great; the Farnese Hercules, in white marble, of a Colossian size and exquisite workmanship, in a court of the Farnese palace, and an admirable group cut out of one block of marble, in another court of the same palace. Besides these there are a great many more, which our bounds will not allow us to take any further notice of. Here is a great number of rich and well-regulated hospitals. Near the church of St Sebastiano alle Catacombe, are the most spacious of the catacombs, where the Christians, who never burned their dead, and such of the Pagan Romans as could not afford the expence of burning, were buried. Along the Via Appia, without St Sebastian's gate, were the tombs of the principal families of Rome, which at present are used for cellers and store-houses by the gardeners and vine-dressers.

Rome, Romney.

ROMNEY, a town of Kent in England. It is one of the cinque-port towns, and is seated on a marsh of the same name, famous for feeding cattle; but the air is very unhealthy. It was once a large and populous place, but the retiring of the sea has reduced it very

Rompee || Rook.

very much; however, it ſends two members to parliament.

ROMPEE, or ROMPU, in heraldry, is applied to ordinaries that are repreſented as broken; and to chevrons, bends, or the like, whoſe upper points are cut off.

ROMULUS, the founder and firſt king of Rome. See ROME.

ROOD, a quantity of land equal to 40 ſquare perches, or the fourth part of an acre.

ROOF, in architecture, the uppermoſt part of a building. See ARCHITECTURE.

ROOFING, the materials of which the roof of a houſe is compoſed. In the northern parts of Europe, and in this iſland itſelf, theſe materials were uſually long reeds, or ſkins. The uſe of ſtraw was introduced by the Romans; though probably the moſt reſpectable houſes were covered with ſhingles, or boards, which are common in many parts of America. In former ages, the ſhingles were equally common in this iſland. The uſe of them continued in Edinburgh beyond the beginning, and in Cheſhire below the middle, of the laſt century; and they were generally uſed at Rome for near five ages. Soon after, or perhaps at the ſame time, ſome of the houſes were covered with tegulæ, the Saxon *tagles*, and the Armorican *teolen*, or tiles, which were firſt invented at Cyprus, and introduced into Britain by the Romans. Some of the Roman buildings in Britain appear alſo to have been covered with ſlates, which were faſtened to the roofs with long hooked nails of iron.

Whitaker's Manchester.

ROOK, in ornithology. See CORVUS.

Rooks are very deſtructive of corn, eſpecially of wheat. They ſearch out the lands where it is ſown, and watching them more carefully than the owners, they perceive when the ſeed firſt begins to ſhoot up its blade; this is the time of their feeding on it. They will not be at the pains of ſearching for it at random in the ſown land, for that is more trouble than ſo ſmall a grain will requite them for: but as ſoon as theſe blades appear, they are by them directed, without loſs of time or pains, to the places where the grains lie; and in three or four days time they will root up ſuch vaſt quantities, that a good crop is often thus deſtroyed in embryo. After a few days the wheat continuing to grow, its blades appear green above ground; and then the time of danger from theſe birds is over, for then the ſeeds are ſo far robbed of their mealy matter, that they are of no value to that bird, and it will no longer give itſelf the trouble to deſtroy them.

Wheat that is ſown ſo early as to ſhoot up its green blades before the harveſt is all carried in, is in no danger from theſe birds; becauſe while it is in a ſtate worth their ſearching for, the ſcattered corn in the harveſt fields is eaſier come at, and they ſeed wholly on this, neglecting the ſown grain. But as this cannot always be done, the farmers, to drive away theſe ravenous and miſchievous birds, dig holes in the ground and ſtick up the feathers of rooks in them, and hang up dead rooks on ſticks in ſeveral parts of the fields: but all this is of very little uſe; for the living rooks will tear up the ground about the feathers, and under the dead ones, to ſteal the ſeeds. A much better way than either is to tear ſeveral rooks to pieces, and to ſcatter the pieces over the fields; but this laſts but a little while, for the kites and other birds of prey ſoon carry off the pieces and feed upon them. A gun is a good remedy while the perſon who has it is preſent; but as ſoon as it is gone, they will return with redoubled vigour to the field and tear up every thing before them.

The beſt remedy the farmer has is to watch well the time of the corn's being in the condition in which they feed upon it; and as this laſts only a few days, he ſhould keep a boy in conſtant pay to watch the field from day-break till the duſk of the evening. Every time they ſettle upon the ground to fly over it, the boy is to holloa, and throw up a dead rook into the air: this will always make them riſe; and by degrees they will be ſo tired of this conſtant diſturbance, that they will ſeek out other places of preying, and will leave the ground even before the time of the corn's being unfit for them. The reaſon of their riſing at the toſſing up of their dead fellow-creature is, that they are a bird extremely apprehenſive of danger, and they are always alarmed when one of their comrades riſes. They take this for the riſing of an out-bird, and all fly off at the ſignal.

ROOKE, (Sir George), a gallant naval commander, born of an ancient and honourable family in Kent, in 1650. His merit raiſed him by regular ſteps to be vice-admiral of the blue: in which ſtation he ſerved in the battle of La Hogue, on the 22d of May 1692; when it was owing to his vigorous behaviour, that the laſt ſtroke was given on that important day, which threw the French entirely into confuſion. But the next day he obtained ſtill more glory; for he had orders to go into La Hogue, and burn the enemy's ſhips as they lay. There were 13 large men of war, which had crowded as far up as poſſible; and the tranſports, tenders, and ammunition ſhips, were diſpoſed in ſuch a manner that it was thought impoſſible to burn them. Beſides, the French camp was in ſight, with all the French and Iriſh troops that were to have been employed in the invaſion of England; and ſeveral batteries were raiſed on the coaſt, well provided with heavy artillery. The vice-admiral made the neceſſary preparations for obeying his orders, but found it impoſſible to carry in the ſhips of his ſquadron: he therefore ordered his light frigates to ply in cloſe to the ſhore; and having manned out all his boats, went himſelf to give directions for the attack, burnt that very night ſix three-deck ſhips, and the next day ſix more, from 76 to 60 guns, together with moſt of the tranſports and ammunition veſſels; and this under the fire of all the batteries juſt mentioned, and in ſight of all the French and Iriſh troops: yet this bold action coſt the lives of no more than ten men. The vice-admiral's behaviour on this occaſion appeared ſo great to king William, that having no opportunity at that time of promoting him, he ſettled a penſion of 1000 l. per annum on him for life; and afterwards going to Portſmouth to view the fleet, went on board Mr Rooke's ſhip, dined with him, and then conferred on him the honour of knighthood, he having a little before made him vice-admiral of the red.

Rooke.

In conſequence of other ſervices, he was in 1694 raiſed to the rank of admiral of the blue: towards the cloſe of the next year, he was admiral of the white; and

Rooke || Rope.

and was also appointed admiral and commander in chief in the Mediterranean.

During king William's reign, Sir George was twice elected member for Portsmouth; and upon the accession of queen Anne in 1702, he was constituted vice-admiral and lieutenant of the admiralty of England, as also lieutenant of the fleets and seas of this kingdom. Upon the declaration of war against France, he was ordered to command a fleet sent against Cadiz, the duke of Ormond having the command of the land forces. On his passage home, receiving an account that the galleons, under the escort of a strong French squadron, were got into the harbour of Vigo, he resolved to attack them; and on the 11th of October came before the harbour of Rondondello, where the French commander had neglected nothing necessary for putting the place into the best posture of defence. But notwithstanding this, a detachment of 15 English and 10 Dutch men of war of the line of battle, with all the fire-ships, were ordered in; the frigates and bomb-vessels followed; the great ships moved after them, and the army landed near Rondonello. The whole service was performed under Sir George's directions, with admirable conduct and bravery: for, in short, all the ships were destroyed or taken, prodigious damage done to the enemy, and vast wealth acquired by the allies. For this action Sir George received the thanks of the House of Commons, a day of thanksgiving was appointed both by the queen and the states-general, and Sir George was given a seat in the privy-council; yet, notwithstanding this, the House of Lords resolved to inquire into his conduct at Cadiz. But he so fully justified himself, that a vote was passed, approving his behaviour.

In the spring of the year 1704, Sir George commanded the ships of war which convoyed king Char. III. of Spain to Lisbon. In July, he attacked Gibraltar; when by the bravery of the English seamen, the place was taken on the 24th, though the town was extremely strong, well furnished with ammunition, and had 100 guns mounted, all facing the sea and the narrow passes to the land: An action which was conceived and executed in less than a week; though it has since endured sieges of many months continuance, and more than once baffled the united forces of France and Spain. This brave officer being at last obliged, by the prevalence of party-spirit, to quit the service of his country, retired to his seat in Kent; where he spent the remainder of his days as a private gentleman, and died in 1709.

ROOM, a chamber, parlour, or other apartment in a house. See ARCHITECTURE.

ROOT, among botanists, denotes that part of a plant which imbibes the nutritious juices of the earth, and transmits them to the other parts. See PLANT.

Colours extracted from ROOTS. See COLOUR-*Making*, nº 39.

ROOT, in algebra and arithmetick, denotes any number, which multiplied by itself once or oftener, produces any other number; and is called the *square, cube, biquadrate*, &c. *root*, according to number of multiplications. Thus, 2 is the square-root of 4; the cube-root of 8; the biquadrate-root of 16, &c.

ROPE, hemp, hair, &c. spun out into a thick yarn, and then several strings of this yarn twisted together by means of a wheel. When made very small, it is called a *cord*; when very thick, a *cable*.

Rope, Rosa.

ROPE-*Dancer*. See *Rope*-DANCER.

ROPE-*Yarn*, among sailors, is the yarn of any rope untwisted, but commonly made up of junk; its use is to make sinnet, matts, &c.

ROSA, the ROSE; a genus of the polygamia order, belonging to the icosandria class of plants.

The sorts of roses are very numerous; and the botanists find it very difficult to determine with accuracy, which are species and which are varieties, as well as which are varieties of the respective species: on this account Linnæus, and some other eminent authors, are inclined to think that there is only one real species of rose, which is the *rosa canina*, or "dog-rose of the hedges," &c. and that all the other sorts are accidental varieties of it. However, according to the present Linnæan arrangement, they stand divided into 14 supposed species, each comprehending some varieties, which in some sorts are but few, others numerous.

The supposed species and their varieties, according to the arrangement of modern botanists, are as follow.

1. The canina, canine rose, wild dog-rose of the hedges, or hep-tree, grows five or six feet high, having prickly-stalks and branches, pinnated, five or seven-lobed leaves, with aculeated foot-stalks, smooth pedunculi, oval smooth germina, and small single flowers. There are two varieties, red-flowered and white-flowered. They grow wild in hedges abundantly all over the kingdom; and are sometimes admitted into gardens, a few to increase the variety of the shrubbery collection.

2. The alba, or common white-rose, grows five or six feet high, having a green stem and branches, armed with prickles, hispid pedunculi, oval smooth germina, and large white flowers. The varieties are,—large double white rose—dwarf single white rose—maidens-blush white rose, being large, produced in clusters, and of a white and blush-red colour.

3. The Gallica, or Gallican rose, &c. grows from about three or four to eight or ten feet high, in different varieties; with pinnated, three, five, or seven-lobed leaves, and large red and other coloured flowers in different sorts. This species is very extensive in supposed varieties, bearing the above specific distinction, several of which have been formerly considered as distinct species, but now ranged among the varieties of the Gallican rose, consisting of the following noted varieties.

Common red officinal rose, grows erect, about three or four feet high, having small branches, with but few prickles, and large spreading half-double deep-red flowers.—Rosa mundi (rose of the world) or striped red rose, is a variety of the common red rose, growing but three or four feet high, having large spreading semi-double red flowers, beautifully striped with white —and deep-red.—York and Lancaster variegated rose, grows five, six, or eight feet high, or more; bearing variegated red flowers, consisting of a mixture of red and white; also frequently disposed in elegant stripes, sometimes in half of the flower, and sometimes in some of the petals.—Monthly rose, grows about four or five feet high, with green very prickly shoots; producing middle-sized, moderately-double, delicate flowers, of different colours in the varieties. The varies are, common red-flowered monthly rose—blush-flowered—white-

Rosa. white-flowered—ſtriped-flowered. All of which blow both early and late, and often produce flowers ſeveral months in the year, as May, June, and July; and frequently again in Auguſt or September, and ſometimes, in fine mild ſeaſons, continues till November or December: hence the name *monthly roſe*.—Double virgin-roſe, grows five or ſix feet high, having greeniſh branches with ſcarce any ſpines; and with large double pale-red and very fragrant flowers.—Red damaſk roſe, grows eight or ten feet high, having greeniſh branches, armed with ſhort aculea; and moderately-double, fine ſoft-red, very fragrant flowers.—White damaſk roſe, grows eight or ten feet high, with greeniſh very prickly branches, and whitiſh-red flowers, becoming gradually of a whiter colour.—Bluſh Belgic roſe, grows three or four feet high, or more; having greeniſh prickly branches, five or ſeven lobed leaves, and numerous, very double, bluſh-red flowers, with ſhort petals, evenly arranged.—Red Belgic roſe, having greeniſh and red ſhoots and leaves, and fine double deep-red flowers.—Velvet roſe, grows three or four feet high, armed with but few prickles; producing large velvet-red flowers, comprising ſemi-double, and double varieties, all very beautiful roſes.—Marbled roſe, grows four or five feet high, having browniſh branches, with but few prickles; and large, double, finely-marbled, red flowers.—Red-and-yellow Auſtrian roſe, grows five or ſix feet high, having ſlender reddiſh-branches, armed with ſhort browniſh aculea; and with flowers of a reddiſh copper colour on one ſide, the other ſide yellow. This is a curious variety, and the flowers aſſume a ſingularly agreeable appearance.—Yellow Auſtrian roſe, grows five or ſix feet high, having reddiſh very prickly ſhoots; and numerous bright-yellow flowers.—Double yellow roſe, grows ſix or ſeven feet high; with browniſh branches, armed with numerous large and ſmall yellowiſh prickles; and large very double yellow flowers.—Frankfort roſe, grows eight or ten feet high, is a vigorous ſhooter, with browniſh branches, thinly armed with ſtrong prickles; and produces largiſh double purpliſh-red flowers, that blow irregularly, and have but little fragrance.

4. The centifolia, or hundred-leaved red roſe, &c. grows from about three or four to ſix or eight feet high, in different ſorts, all of them hiſpid and prickly; pinnated three and five lobed leaves; and large very double red flowers, having very numerous petals, and of different ſhades in the varieties. The varieties are,—common Dutch hundred-leaved roſe, grows three or four feet high, with erect greeniſh branches, but moderately armed with prickles; and large remarkably double red-flowers, with ſhort regularly arranged petals.—Bluſh hundred-leaved roſe, grows like the other, with large very double pale-red flowers.—Provence roſe, grows five or ſix feet, with greeniſh-brown prickly branches, and very large double globular red flowers, with large petals folding over one another, more or leſs in the varieties.—The varieties are, common red Provence roſe, and pale Provence roſe; both of which having larger and ſomewhat looſer petals than the following ſort.—Cabbage Provence roſe; having the petals cloſely folded over one another like cabbages—Dutch cabbage roſe, very large, and cabbages tolerably—Childing Provence roſe—Great royal roſe, grows ſix or eight feet high, producing remarkably large, ſomewhat looſe, but very elegant flowers.—All theſe are large double red flowers, ſomewhat globular at firſt blowing, becoming gradually a little ſpreading at top, and are all very ornamental fragrant roſes.—Moſs Provence roſe, ſuppoſed a variety of the common roſe; grows erectly four or five feet high, having browniſh ſtalks and branches, very cloſely armed with ſhort prickles, and double crimſon-red flowers; having the calix and upper part of the peduncle ſurrounded with a rough moſſy-like ſubſtance, effecting a curious ſingularity. This is a fine delicate roſe, of a high fragrance, which, together with its moſſy calix, renders it of great eſtimation as a curioſity.

5. The cinnamomea, or cinnamon roſe, grows five or ſix feet high, or more, with purpliſh branches thinly aculeated; pinnated five or ſeven lobed leaves, having almoſt inermous petioles, ſmooth pedunculi, and ſmooth globular germina; with ſmall purpliſh-red cinnamon-ſcented flowers early in May. There are varieties with double flowers.

6. The Alpina, or Alpine inermous roſe, grows five or ſix feet high, having ſmooth or unarmed reddiſh branches, pinnated ſeven-lobed ſmooth leaves, ſomewhat hiſpid pedunculi, oval germina, and deep-red ſingle flowers; appearing in May. This ſpecies, as being free from all kind of armature common to the other ſorts of roſes, is eſteemed as a ſingularity; and from this property, is often called the *virgin roſe*.

7. The Carolina, or Carolina and Virginia roſe, &c. grows ſix or eight feet high, or more, having ſmooth reddiſh branches, very thinly aculeated; pinnated ſeven-lobed ſmooth leaves, with prickly ſhoot-ſtalks; ſomewhat hiſpid pedunculi, globoſe hiſpid germen, and ſingle red flowers in cluſters, appearing moſtly in Auguſt and September. The varieties are, dwarf Penſylvanian roſe, with ſingle and double red flowers—American pale-red roſe. This ſpecies and varieties grow naturally in different parts of North America; they effect a fine variety in our gardens, and are in eſtimation for their late-flowering property, as they often continue in blow from Auguſt until October; and the flowers are ſucceeded by numerous red berry-like heps in autumn, cauſing a variety all winter.

8. The villoſa, or villoſe apple-bearing roſe, grows ſix or eight feet high, having ſtrong erect browniſh ſmooth branches; aculeated ſparſedly pinnated ſeven-lobed villoſe or hairy leaves, downy underneath, with prickly foot-ſtalks, hiſpid peduncles, a globular prickly germen; and large ſingle red flowers, ſucceeded by large round prickly heps, as big as little apples. This ſpecies merits admittance into every collection as a curioſity for the ſingularity of its fruit, both for variety and uſe; for it having a thick pulp of an agreeable acid reliſh, is often made into a tolerable good ſweetmeat.

9. The pimpinellifolia, or burnet-leaved roſe, grows about a yard high, aculeated ſparſedly; ſmall neatly pinnated ſeven-lobed leaves, having obtuſe ſolioles and rough petioles, ſmooth peduncules, a globular ſmooth germen, and ſmall ſingle flowers. There are varieties with red flowers—and with white flowers. They grow wild in England, &c. and are cultivated in ſhrubberies for variety.

10. The ſpinoſiſſima, or moſt ſpinous, dwarf burnet-leaved roſe, commonly called *Scotch roſe*, grows but two

two or three feet high, very closely armed with spines; small neatly pinnated seven-lobed leaves, with prickly foot-stalks, prickly pedunculi, oval smooth germen, and numerous small single flowers, succeeded by round dark purple heps. The varieties are, common white-flowered—red flowered—striped-flowered—marbled-flowered. They grow naturally in England, Scotland, &c. the first variety rises near a yard high, the others but one or two feet, all of which are single-flowered; but the flowers being numerous all over the branches, make a pretty appearance in the collection.

11. The eglanteria, eglantine rose, or sweet briar, grows five or six feet high, having green branches, armed with strong spines sparsedly; pinnated seven-lobed odoriferous leaves, with acute folioles and rough foot-stalks, smooth pedunculi, globular smooth germina, and small pale-red flowers. The varieties are, common single-flowered—semi-double flowered—double-flowered—blush double-flowered—yellow-flowered. This species grows naturally in some parts of England, and in Switzerland. It claims culture in every garden for the odoriferous property of its leaves; and should be planted in the borders, and other compartments contiguous to walks, or near the habitation, where the plants will impart their refreshing fragrance very profusely all around; and the young branches are excellent for improving the odour of nose-gays and bow-pots.

12. The moschata, or musk-rose, supposed to be a variety only of the ever-green musk-rose, hath weak smooth green stalks and branches, rising by support from six to eight or ten feet high or more, thinly armed with strong spines; pinnated seven-lobed smooth leaves, with prickly foot-stalks; hispid peduncles; oval hispid germen; and all the branches terminated by large umbellate clusters of pure-white musk-scented flowers in August, &c.

13. The sempervirens, sempervirent, or ever-green musk rose, hath a somewhat trailing stalk and branches, rising by support five or six feet high or more, having a smooth bark armed with prickles; pinnated five-lobed smooth shining evergreen leaves, with prickly petioles, hispid pedunculi, oval hispid germen; and all the branches terminated by clusters of pure-white flowers of a musky fragrance; appearing the end of July, and in August. The sempervirent property of this elegant species, renders it a curiosity among the rosy tribe; it also makes a fine appearance as a flowering shrub. There is one variety, the deciduous musk-rose abovementioned. This species and variety flower in August; remarkable for producing them numerously in clusters, continuing in succession till October or November.

All the above 13 species of rosa, and their respective varieties, are of the shrub kind; all deciduous, except the last sort, and of hardy growth, succeeding in any common soil and situation, and flowering annually in great abundance from May till October, in different sorts; though the general flowering season for the principal part of them is June and July: but in a full collection of the different species, the blow is continued in constant succession several months, even sometimes from May till near Christmas; producing their flowers universally on the same year's shoots, rising from those the year before, generally on long pedunculi, each terminated by one or more roses, which in their characteristic state consist each of five large petals and many stamina; but in the doubles, the petals are very numerous; and in some sorts, the flowers are succeeded by fruit ripening to a red colour in autumn and winter, from the seed of which the plants may be raised: but the most certain and eligible mode of propagating most of the sorts is by suckers and layers; and by which methods they may be increased very expeditiously in great abundance.

The red and white roses are used in medicine. The former distilled with water yields a small portion of a butyraceous oil, whose flavour exactly resembles that of the roses themselves. This oil and the distilled water are very useful and agreeable cordials. These roses also, besides the cordial and aromatic virtues which reside in their volatile parts, have a mild purgative one, which remains entire in the decoction left after distillation. The red rose, on the contrary, has an astringent and gratefully corroborating virtue.

ROSA (Salvator), an admirable painter, born at Naples in 1614. He was first instructed by Francesco Francazano, a kinsman: but the death of his father reduced him to sell drawings sketched upon paper for any thing he could get; one of which happening to fall into the hands of Lanfranc, he took him under his protection, and enabled him to enter the school of Spagnoletto, and to be taught moreover by Daniel Falcone, a distinguished painter of battles at Naples. Salvator had a fertile imagination. He studied nature with attention and judgment; and always represented her to the greatest advantage: for every tree, rock, cloud, or situation, that enters into his composition, shows an elevation of thought that extorts admiration. He was equally eminent for painting battles, animals, sea or land storms; and he executed these different subjects in such taste, as renders his works readily distinguishable from all others. His pieces are exceedingly scarce and valuable; one of the most capital is that representing Saul and the witch of Endor, which is at Versailles. He died in 1673; and as his paintings are in few hands, he is more generally known by his prints; of which he etched a great number. He painted landscapes more than history; but his prints are chiefly historical. The capital landscape of this master at Chiswick is a noble picture. However, he is said to have been ignorant of the management of light, and to have sometimes shaded faces in a disagreeable manner. He was a man of genius; of which he has given frequent specimens in his works. A roving disposition, to which he is said to have given full scope, seems to have added a wildness to all his thoughts. We are told that he spent the early part of his life in a troop of banditti; and that the rocky desolate scenes in which he was accustomed to take refuge, furnished him with those romantic ideas in landskip, of which he is so exceedingly fond; and in the description of which he so greatly excells. His *robbers*, as his detached figures are commonly called, are supposed also to have been taken from the life.

ROSACEA. See GUTTA *Rosacea*.

ROSACEOUS, among botanists, an appellation given to such flowers as are composed of several petals or leaves disposed in a sort of circular form, like those of a rose.

ROSARY, among the Roman catholics. See CHAPLET.

ROSBACH, a town of Germany, in Saxony, famous for a victory obtained here by the king of Prussia over the French on November 5, 1757, in which 10,000 of the French were killed or taken prisoners, with the loss of no more than 500 Prussians. See (*History of*) PRUSSIA.

ROSCHILD, a town of Denmark, in the isle of Zealand, with a bishop's see, and a small university. It is famous for a treaty concluded here in 1658; and in the great church there are several tombs of the kings of Denmark. It is seated at the bottom of a small bay, in E. Long. 12. 20. N. Lat. 55. 40.

ROSCOMMON, a county of Ireland, in the province of Connaught, bounded on the west by the river Suc, on the east by the Shannon, on the north by the Curlew mountains, on the south and south-east by the King's-county and part of Galloway. Its length is 35 miles, its breadth 28. The air of the county, both on the plains and mountains, is healthy; the soil yields plenty of grass with some corn, and feeds numerous herds of cattle. The Curlew mountains on the north are very high and steep; and, till a road with great labour and difficulty was cut thro' them, was impassable.

ROSCOMMON, which gives the title of earl to the family of Dillon, and name to the county, tho' not large, is both a parliamentary borough and the county town.

ROSCOMMON (Wentworth Dillon, earl of), a celebrated poet of the 17th century, was the son of James Dillon, earl of Roscommon; and was born in Ireland, under the administration of the first earl of Strafford, from whom he received the name of *Wentworth* at his baptism. He passed his infancy in Ireland; after which the earl of Strafford sent for him into England, and placed him at his own seat in Yorkshire, under the tuition of Dr Hall, afterwards bishop of Norwich, who instructed him in Latin, without teaching him the common rules of grammar, which he could never retain in his memory, and yet he learnt to write in that language with classical elegance and propriety. On the earl of Strafford's being impeached, he went to complete his education at Caen, in Normandy; and after some years travelled to Rome, where he became acquainted with the most valuable remains of antiquity, and in particular was well skilled in medals, and learned to speak Italian with such grace and fluency, that he was frequently mistaken for a native. He returned to England soon after the restoration, and was made captain of the band of pensioners; but a dispute with the lord privy-seal, about a part of his estate, obliged him to resign his post and revisit his native country, where the duke of Ormond appointed him captain of the guards. He was unhappily very fond of gaming; and as he was returning to his lodgings from a gaming-table in Dublin, was attacked in the dark by three ruffians, who were employed to assassinate him. The earl defended himself with such resolution, that he had dispatched one of the aggressors, when a gentleman passing that way took his part, and disarmed another, on which the third fought his safety in flight. This generous assistant was a disbanded officer of good family and fair reputation, but reduced to poverty; and his lordship rewarded his bravery by resigning to him his post of captain of the guards. He at length returned to London; when he was made master of the horse to the duchess of York, and married the lady Frances, eldest daughter of Richard earl of Burlington, who had been the wife of colonel Courtney. He here distinguished himself by his writings; and in imitation of those learned and polite assemblies with which he had been acquainted abroad, began to form a society for refining and fixing the standard of the English language, in which his great friend Mr Dryden was a principal assistant. This scheme was entirely defeated by the religious commotions which ensued on king James's accession to the throne. In 1683 he was seized with the gout; and being too impatient of pain, he permitted a bold French pretender to physic to apply a repelling medicine, in order to give him present relief; which drove the distemper into his bowels, and in a short time put a period to his life in 1684. He was a man of an amiable disposition, as well as a good poet: his poems, which are not numerous, are printed in the first volume of the works of the minor poets.

ROSE, in botany. See ROSA.

Essence of ROSES, is the essential oil of the white rose drawn off in an Alembic in the usual way, but is afforded in very small quantity, and is therefore exceedingly scarce and dear.

ROSE-NOBLE, an ancient English gold-coin, first struck in the reign of Edward III. It was formerly current at 6s. 8d. and so called because stamped with a rose.

ROSLIN, or ROSKELYN, a place in the county of Mid Lothian in Scotland, remarkable for an ancient chapel and castle. The chapel was founded in 1446, by St Clare, prince of Orkney, for a provost, six prebendaries, and two singing-boys. The outside is ornamented with a multitude of pinnacles, and variety of ludicrous sculpture. The inside is 69 feet long, the breadth 34, supported by two rows of clustered pillars, between seven and eight feet high, with an isle on each side. The arches are obtusely Gothic. These arches are continued across the side-isles, but the centre of the church is one continued arch, elegantly divided into compartments, and finely sculptured. The capitals of the pillars are enriched with foliage, and a variety of figures; and amidst a heavenly concert, appears a cherubim blowing the ancient Highland bagpipes. The castle is seated on a peninsulated rock, in a deep glen far beneath, and accessible by a bridge of great height. This had been the seat of the great name of *Sinclair*. Of this house was Oliver, favourite of James V. and the innocent cause of the loss of the battle of Solway Moss, by reason of the envy of the nobility on account of his being preferred to the command.

Near this place, the English received three defeats in one day under John de Segrave the English regent of Scotland in 1302. The Scots, under their generals Cummin and Fraser, had resolved to surprise Segrave; with which view they began their march on the night or Saturday preceding the first Sunday of Lent, and reached the English army by break of day. Segrave, however, had time to have fallen back upon the other division which lay behind him: but, either despising his enemies too much, or thinking that he would be dishonoured by a retreat, he encountered the

Rosfin, Rosmarinus

the Scots; the consequence of which was, that he himself was made prisoner, and all his men either killed or taken, except such as fled to the other division. As in this routed division there had been no fewer than 300 knights, each of whom brought at least five horsemen into the field, great part of the Scots infantry quickly furnished themselves with their horses: but, as they were dividing the spoils, another division of the English appeared, and the Scots were obliged to fight them also. The English, after a bloody engagement, were defeated a second time; which was no sooner done, than the third and most powerful division made its appearance. The Scots were now quite exhausted; and, pleading the excessive labours they had already undergone, earnestly requested their generals to allow them to retreat while it was yet in their power. Their two generals, who perhaps knew that to be impracticable, reminded them of the cause for which they were fighting, the tyranny of the English, &c. and by these arguments prevailed upon them to fight a third time; though, previous to the engagement, they were reduced to the cruel necessity of putting all the common soldiers whom they had made prisoners to the sword. The victory of the Scots at this time was less complete than the other two had been; since they could not prevent the retreat of the English to Edinburgh, nor Segrave from being rescued from his captivity.

ROSMARINUS, ROSEMARY; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the diandria class of plants. There are two species, the angustifolia and latifolia, or narrow and broad leaved rosemary; of which the second has larger flowers and a stronger scent than the other. There are two varieties; one of the first sort with striped leaves, called the *silver rosemary;* and the other with yellow, whence it is called the *gold-striped rosemary*. These plants grow naturally in the southern parts of France, Spain, and Italy; where, upon dry rocky soils near the sea, they thrive prodigiously, and perfume the air in such a manner as to be smelt at a great distance from the land. However, they are hardy enough to bear the cold of our ordinary winters, provided they be planted upon a poor, dry, gravelly soil, on which they will endure the cold much better than in a richer ground, where, growing more vigorously in summer, they are more apt to be injured by frost in winter; nor will they have such a strong aromatic scent as those on a dry and barren soil. They are to be propagated either by slips or cuttings.

Rosemary has a fragrant smell, and a warm pungent bitterish taste, approaching to those of lavender: the leaves and tender tops are strongest; next to those, the cup of the flower; the flowers themselves are considerably the weakest, but most pleasant. Aqueous liquors extract great share of the virtues of rosemary leaves by infusion, and elevate them in distillation; along with the water arises a considerable quantity of essential oil, of an agreeable strong penetrating smell. Pure spirit extracts in great perfection the whole aromatic flavour of the rosemary, and elevates very little of it in distillation; hence the resinous mass, left upon extracting the spirit, proves an elegant aromatic, very rich in the peculiar qualities of the plant. The flowers of rosemary give over great part of their flavour in distillation with pure spirit: by watery liquors, their fragrance is much injured; by beating, destroyed.

Rosetto || Ross.

ROSETTO, a town of Africa, in Egypt, seated on the western branch of the river Nile; the Egyptians call it *Raschid*, and account it one of the pleasantest places in Egypt. It is near two miles in length, and has not above two or three streets. Any one that sees the hills about Rosetto, would judge that they were the ancient barriers of the sea, and conclude that the sea has not lost more ground than the space between the hills and the water. They have a great manufactory of striped and other coarse linens: but the chief business of the place is the carriage of goods from hence to Cairo; for all European merchandizes are brought hither from Alexandria by sea, and thence carried by boats to Cairo. The Europeans have their vice-consuls and factors here, who transact business. The country to the north has delightful gardens, full of orange, lemon, and citron trees, and almost all sorts of fruits, with a variety of groves of palm-trees; and when the fields are green with rice, it adds greatly to the beauty of the country. E. Long. 41. 35. N. Lat. 31. 10.

ROSIERS-AUX-SALINES, a town of France, in Lorrain, and in the bailiwick of Nancy, famous for its salt-works. The works that king Stanislaus made here are much admired. It is seated on the river Muert, in E. Long. 6. 27. N. Lat. 48. 32.

ROSLEY-HILL, a village in Cumberland, with a fair on Whit-Monday, and every fortnight after till September 29, for horses, horned cattle, and linen cloth.

ROSS, a town of Herefordshire: it is commodiously seated on the river Wye; is a handsome place, containing about 300 houses; and has a good market for corn and cattle. W. Long. 2. 35. N. Lat. 51. 55.

ROSS, a county of Scotland, including Tayne and Cromarty, stretching 80 miles in length, and 78 in breadth, is bounded on the west by the western sea, and part of the isle of Skie; by Inverness, on the south; Strathnavern and Sutherland, on the north and north-east; and by Cromartie and Murray-Frith on the east. Tayne includes the greater part of Ross, with the isles of Skie, Lewis, and Harries. Cromartie lies on the other side of Murray-Frith, to the northward of Inverness, extending but 12 miles in length, bounded on the south and east by part of Ross and the Frith of Murray, and by the Frith of Cromartie on the north. The shire of Ross takes up the whole breadth of the island; and being much indented with bays and inlets from both seas, appears of a very irregular form. These bays afford safe harbour for shipping, especially that of Cromartie, which is capacious enough to contain all the fleets of Europe, being land-locked on every side, and in all respects one of the best harbours in the known world. The Frith of Tayne, on the east side of the shire, runs up 25 miles from the sea, as far as the Cape Tarbat, dividing Ross from Sutherland, it is about seven miles broad at the mouth; but, on account of quick-sands, unsafe for navigation. The country of Ross is encumbered with huge mountains, on which the snow lies for the greatest part of the year; these, however, yield good pasture: but on the eastern side, next the German ocean, the country admits of agriculture, and produces good crops of corn. The

valleys

valleys are fertilized by several rivers, among which we reckon the Okel, the Charron, and the Braan; besides a number of fresh-water lakes, which indeed are found in every part of this country. The valleys, or straths, are generally covered with wood; and near Alfrag, there are forests of fir 15 or 20 miles in length, well stocked with deer and game of all sorts. Great numbers of black cattle, horses, sheep, and goats, are fed upon the mountains; and the sea, rivers, and lakes, teem with fish and fowl. The lochs on the western coast abound with herrings in the season, particularly Loch Eu, about nine miles long, and three in breadth: one part of this is formed by a bay, or inlet of the sea; and the other is a lake of fresh water. The sides of it are covered with wood, where formerly abundance of iron was smelted. Though the middle part of Ross, called *Ardross*, is mountainous and scarce inhabited, the north-east parts on the rivers Okel, Charron, and Frith of Tayne, are fruitful, and abound with villages. Coygach and Assgut, two northerly districts, are bare and hilly; yet they abound with deer and black cattle; and we see several good houses towards the coast, where there are also promontories, and huge rocks of marble. Ardmeanach, part of the peninsula betwixt the bays of Cromartie and Murray, is a barony, which of old bestowed a title on the king of Scotland's second son. The district of Glen-elchig, on the south-west, was the paternal estate of the earl of Seaforth, chief of the clan Mackenzie: but the last earl of that name, having risen in rebellion, was in the year 1719 defeated at Glenshiel, in this very quarter, together with a small body of Spaniards by whom he had been joined. His auxiliaries were taken, and though he himself, with some of his friends, escaped to the continent, his estate and honours were forfeited. At the same time, the king's troops, who obtained this victory, dismantled the castle of Yion-donnen, situated on an island in a bay that fronts the isle of Skie: it belonged to the crown; but the office of hereditary governor was vested in the earl of Seaforth, and here he had erected his magazine. Ross is chiefly peopled by the Mackenzies and Frasers, two warlike clans, who speak Erse, and live in the Highland fashion. There are fisheries carried on along the coast; but their chief traffick is with sheep and black cattle. The chief towns of Ross, are Channerie, Dingwell, Tayne, and Fortrose.

ROSSANO, a strong town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and in the Hither Calabria, with an archbishop's see, and the title of a principality. It is pretty large, well peopled, and seated on an eminence surrounded with rocks. E. Long. 16. 52. N. Lat. 39. 45.

ROS-SOLIS, *Sun-dew*, an agreeable spirituous liquor, composed of burnt brandy, sugar, cinnamon, and milk-water; and sometimes perfumed with a little musk. It has its name from being at first prepared wholly of the juice of the plant ros-solis, or drosera. See DROSERA.

ROSTOCK, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and duchy of Mecklenburg, with an university and a very good harbour. It is the best town in this country; and has good fortifications, with an arsenal. The duke has a strong castle, which may be looked upon as a citadel. It is divided into three parts, the Old, the New, and the Middle towns. It was formerly one of the Hanseatic towns, and is still Imperial, under the protection of the duke of Mecklenburg. It is seated on a lake where the river Varne falls into it, and carries large boats. E. Long. 12. 55. N. Lat. 54. 8.

ROSTOFF, or ROSTOW, a large town of the Russian empire, and capital of a territory of the same name, with an archbishop's see, seated on the lake Coteri, in E. Long. 40. 25. N. Lat. 57. 5. The duchy of Rostoff is bounded on the north by Jaroslow, on the east by Sutdal, on the south by the duchy of Moscow, and on the west by that of Tuere.

ROSTRA, in antiquity, a part of the Roman forum, wherein orations, pleadings, funeral harangues, &c. were delivered.

ROSTRUM, literally denotes the beak or bill of a bird; and hence it has been figuratively applied to the beak or head of a ship.

ROSYCRUCIANS, ROSICRUCIANS, or *Brothers of the Rosy Cross*, a name assumed by a sect or cabal of hermetical philosophers, who appeared, or at least were first taken notice of, in Germany, in the beginning of the 16th century. They pretended to be masters of all sciences; and to have many important secrets, particularly that of the philosopher's stone.—Their society is frequently denoted by the abbreviatures F. R. C.

ROT, a very fatal disease incident to sheep, arising from wet seasons, and too moist pasture. It is very difficult of cure, and is attended with the singular circumstance of a kind of animals being found in the blood-vessels. See SHEEP.

ROTA, the name of an ecclesiastical court of Rome, composed of 12 prelates, of whom one must be a German, another a Frenchman, and two Spaniards; the other eight are Italians, three of whom must be Romans, and the other five a Bolognese, a Ferraran, a Milanese, a Venetian, and a Tuscan.—This is one of the most august tribunals in Rome, which takes cognizance of all suits in the territory of the church, by appeal; as also of all matters beneficiary and patrimonial.

ROTACEÆ, (from *rota*, "a wheel"), the name of the 20th order in Linnæus's Fragments of a Natural Method; consisting of plants with one flat, wheel-shaped petal, without a tube. See BOTANY, p. 1308.

ROTATION, in geometry, a term chiefly applied to the circumvolution of any surface round a fixed and immoveable line, which is called the *axis of its rotation:* and by such rotations it is that solids are conceived to be generated.

ROTHERAM, a town in the West Riding of Yorkshire, seated on the river Don, near which there is a handsome stone bridge. It is a well-built place, and the market is large for provisions. W. Long. 1. 10. N. Lat. 53. 25.

ROTHSAY, a town in the isle of Bute, of which it is the capital. It is a well-built town of small houses, and about 200 families; and is within these few years much improved. It has a good pier, and is seated at the bottom of a fine bay, whose mouth lies exactly opposite to Loch Steven in Cowal. Here is a fine depth of water, a secure retreat, and a ready navigation down the Frith for an export trade. Maga-

zines of goods for foreign parts might be moſt advantageouſly erected here. The women of this town ſpin yarn, the men ſupport themſelves by fiſhing. W. Long. 5. 0. N. Lat. 55. 50.

ROTONDO, or Rotundo, in architecture, an appellation given to any building that is round both within and without; whether it be a church, a ſaloon, or the like. The moſt celebrated rotundo of the ancients is the pantheon at Rome. See Pantheon.

ROTTENNESS. See Putrefaction.

ROTTERDAM, a city of the province of Holland, ſtanding at the conflux of the Maes, or Merwe, and the Rotter; from the latter of which, and Dam, its name is formed. It is 13 miles from the Hague, 28 from Amſterdam, and 15 from Leyden; and, next to the two laſt, it is ſaid to be now the greateſt city in Holland. Its ſtreets are ſpacious, adorned with loſty trees and noble canals; by the laſt of which ſhips of the greateſt burden run into the heart of the city, and lade and unlade at the merchants doors. The trade here is very great. Over the Maes, which is here very broad, is a bridge, on which is placed a braſs ſtatue of Eraſmus. The Haaring-Vliet, and the Boom-quay, are very fine ſtreets. The latter lies along the Maes; and on one ſide has a magnificent row of trees and houſes, or rather palaces, extending above half a mile; and on the other the river, where ſhips are continually ſailing up and down, or at anchor. This key, being very broad and clean, ſerves inſtead of a mall. The principal buildings in the town are the exchange, the Eaſt and Weſt-India houſes, the bank, the arſenal, and the great church or that of St Laurence, near which is the little obſcure houſe in which Eraſmus is born, with his picture, and this diſtich over the door:

Ædibus his ortus, mundum decoravit Eraſmus,
Artibus ingenuis, religione, fide.

i. e.

"Eraſmus, who adorned the world with arts and ſciences, religion, and virtue, was born in this houſe."

There are three high tribunals in this city: that of the admiralty of the Maes; of the high-bailiff, or dyke-graaf of Schieland; and that of the judges of Schieland. On the eaſt and weſt ſides of the city are docks, where they are continually building, repairing, or launching veſſels; but the largeſt ſhips belonging to the admiralty of Rotterdam lie at Helvoetſluys; and, as there is not a ſufficient depth of water at the mouth of the Maes for ſhips that draw above 15 feet, they are obliged to come hither by the way of Helvoetſluys, and the Haaring Vliet. The glaſs-houſe here makes abundance of glaſs-toys, and enamelled bowls, which are ſent to India, and exchanged for China ware and other oriental commodities.

ROTULA, in anatomy, the ſmall bone of the knee called alſo *patella*.

ROTUNDUS, in anatomy, a name given to ſeveral muſcles otherwiſe called *teres*.

ROUANE, or Roane, an ancient and conſiderable town of France, in Lower Forez, with the title of a duchy; ſeated on the river Loire, at the place where it begins to be navigable for boats. E. Long. 4. 9. N. Lat. 46. 2

ROUCOU, in dyeing, the ſame with Arnotto and Bixa.

ROUEN, a city of France, and capital of Normandy, with an archbiſhop's ſee, a parliament, a mint, a handſome college, an academy, two abbeys, and an old caſtle. It is ſeven miles in circumference, and ſurrounded with ſix ſuburbs; and contains 35 pariſhes, and 24 convents for men and women. The metropolitan church has a very handſome front, on which are two loſty ſteeples, whence there is a fine view of the town and country. The great bell is 13 feet high, and 11 in diameter. The church of the Benedictine abbey is much admired by travellers. The parliament-houſe is adorned with beautiful tapeſtry and fine pictures. There are a great number of fountains, though the houſes are ordinary; but the walk upon the quay is very pleaſant, and there are 13 gates from thence into the city. The number of the inhabitants are about 60,000, and they have ſeveral woollen manufactures. It is ſeated on the river Seine; and the tide riſes ſo high, that veſſels of 200 tons may come up to the quay: but one of the greateſt curioſities is the bridge of 270 paces in length, ſupported by boats, and conſequently is higher or lower according to the tide. It is paved, and there are ways for foot-paſſengers on each ſide, with benches to ſit upon; and coaches may paſs over it at any hour of the day or night. It is often called *Roan* by Engliſh hiſtorians; and is 50 miles ſouth-weſt of Amiens, and 70 north-weſt of Paris. E. Long. 1. 10. N. Lat. 49. 26.

ROVERE, or Roveredo, a ſtrong town of the Tyrol, on the confines of the republic of Venice; ſeated on the river Adige, at the foot of a mountain, and on the ſide of a ſtream, over which there is a brige, defended by two large towers and a ſtrong caſtle, 10 miles ſouth of Trent. E. Long. 11. 1. N. Lat. 46. 12.

ROUERGUE, a province of France, in the government of Guienne; bounded on the eaſt by the Cevennes and Gevaudan, on the weſt by Querci, on the north by the ſame and Auvergne, and on the ſouth by Languedoc. It is 75 miles in length, and 50 in breadth; not very fertile, but feeds a number of cattle, and has mines of copper, iron, alum, vitriol, and ſulphur. It is divided into a county, and the upper and lower marche. Rhodez is the capital town.

ROVIGNO, a populous town of Italy, in Iſtria, with two good harbours, and quarries of fine ſtone. It is ſeated in a territory which produces excellent wine, in a peninſula on the weſtern coaſt. E. Long. 13. 53. N. Lat. 45. 14.

ROUND-houſe, a kind of priſon for the nightly watch in London to ſecure diſorderly perſons till they can be carried before a magiſtrate.

Round-*houſe*, in a ſhip, the uppermoſt room, or cabin on the ſtern of a ſhip where the maſter lies.

ROUNDS, in military matters, a detachment from the main-guard, of an officer or a non-commiſſioned officer and ſix men, who go round the rampart of a garriſon, to liſten if any thing be ſtirring without the place, and to ſee that the centinels be diligent upon their duty, and all in order. In ſtrict garriſons the rounds go every half-hour. The centinels are to challenge at a diſtance, and to reſt their arms as the round paſſes. All guards turn out, challenge, exchange the parole, and reſt their arms, &c.

Rounds,

Rounds || Rousseau.

ROUNDS are ordinary and extraordinary. The ordinary rounds are three; the town-major's round, the grand-round, and the visiting round.

Manner of going the ROUNDS. When the town-major goes his round, he comes to the main-guard, and demands a serjeant and four or six men to escort him to the next guard; and when it is dark, one of the men is to carry a light.

As soon as the sentry at the guard perceives the round coming, he shall give notice to the guard, that they may be ready to turn out when ordered; and when the round is advanced within about 20 or 30 paces of the guard, he is to challenge briskly; and when he is answered by the serjeant who attends the round, *Town-major's round*, he is to say, *Stand round!* and rest his arms: after which he is to call out immediately, *Serjeant, turn out the guard, town-major's round.* Upon the sentry calling, the serjeant is to turn out the guard immediately, drawing up the men in good order with shouldered arms, the officer placing himself at the head of it, with his arms in his hand. He then orders the serjeant and four or six men to advance toward the round, and challenge: the serjeant of the round is to answer, *Town-major's round;* upon which the serjeant of the guard replies, *Advance, serjeant, with the parole!* at the same time ordering his men to rest their arms. The serjeant of the round advances alone, and gives the serjeant of the guard the parole in his ear, that none else may hear it; during which period, the serjeant of the guard holds the spear of his halbert at the other's breast. The serjeant of the round then returns to his post, whilst the serjeant of the guard leaving his men to keep the round from advancing, gives the parole to his officer. This being found right, the officer orders his serjeant to return to his men; says, *Advance, town-major's round!* and orders the guard to rest their arms; upon which the serjeant of the guard orders his men to wheel back from the centre, and form a lane, through which the town-major is to pass (the escort remaining where they were), and go up to the officer and give him the parole, laying his mouth to his ear. The officer holds the spear of his esponton at the town-major's breast while he gives him the parole.

The design of rounds is not only to visit the guards, and keep the centinels alert; but likewise to discover what passes in the outworks, and beyond them.

ROUNDELAY, a kind of ancient poem, thus termed, according to Menage, from its form; because it turns back again to the first verse, and thus goes round †. This poem is little known among us; but is very common among the French, who call it *rondeau.* It consists commonly of 13 verses, eight whereof are in one rhyme, and five in another. It is divided into couplets; at the end of the second and third whereof, the beginning of the roundelay is repeated, and that, if possible, in an equivocal or pausing sense.

† See *Virgil.*

ROUSSILLON, a province of France, in the Pyrenees, bounded on the east by the Mediterranean Sea, on the west by Cerdagne, on the north by Lower Languedoc, and on the south by Catalonia, from which it is separated by the Pyrennees. It is a fertile country, about 50 miles in length and 25 in breadth, and remarkable for its great number of olive-trees. Perpignan is the capital town.

ROSSEAU (James), an eminent painter, was born at Paris, and studied first under Swanevelt, who had married one of his relations; after which he improved himself by travelling into Italy, practising solely in perspective, architecture, and landscape. On his return home, he was employed at Marly; but, being a Protestant, quitted his work on the persecution of his brethren, and retired to Switzerland. Louvois invited him back; he refused, but sent his designs, and recommended a proper person to execute them. After a short stay in Switzerland, he went to Holland; whence he was invited over to England by Ralph duke of Montague, to adorn his new house in Bloomsbury, where he painted much. Some of his pictures, both in landscape and architecture, are over doors at Hampton-Court; and he etched some of his own designs. He died in Soho-square, about the year 1694, aged 68.

Rousseau. ROUSSEAU (John Baptist); a celebrated French poet, was born at Paris in 1669. His father, who was a shoemaker in good circumstances, made him study in the best colleges of Paris, where he distinguished himself by his abilities. He at length applied himself entirely to poetry, and soon made himself known by several short pieces, that were filled with lively and agreeable images, which made him sought for by persons of the first rank, and men of the brightest genius. He was admitted in quality of *eléve*, or pupil, into the academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres, in 1701, and almost all the rest of his life attached himself to some of the great lords. He attended marshal Tallard into England, in quality of secretary, and here contracted a friendship with St Evremond. At his return to Paris, he was admitted into the politest company, lived among the courtiers, and seemed perfectly satisfied with his situation; when, in 1708, he was prosecuted for being the author of some couplets, in which the characters of several persons of wit and merit were blackened by the most atrocious calumnies. This prosecution made much noise; and Rousseau was banished in 1712 out of the kingdom, to which he was never more to return, by a decree of the parliament of Paris. However, he always steadily denied, and even on his death-bed, his being the author of these couplets. From the date of this sentence he lived in foreign countries, where he found illustrious protectors. The count du Luc, ambassador of France, in Switzerland, took him into his family, and studied to render his life agreeable. He took him with him to the treaty of Baden in 1714, where he was one of the plenipotentiaries; and presented him to prince Eugene, who entertaining a particular esteem for him, took him to Vienna, and introduced him to the emperor's court. Rousseau lived about three years with prince Eugene; and then retired to Brussels, where he afterwards usually resided. The duke d'Aremberg gave him an apartment; and, in 1733, settled upon upon him an annual pension of 1500 livres. Rousseau also found generous protectors in the count de Lannoy governor of Brussels, and in the prince de la Tour Tassis. He died in Brussels in 1741. He wrote several odes, some of which are on religious subjects; Cantatas, Epistles in verse, Allegories, Epigrams, Miscellaneous Poems, and four Comedies in verse, and two in prose, &c. The best edition of his works is that of Paris, in 1743, in 3 vols 4to, and in 4 vols 12mo, by M. Seguy. Rousseau is justly allowed to have been one of the best French lyric poets; and

to

Rout, Rowe. to have also excelled in cantatas, of which he was in a manner the inventor.

ROUTE, a public road, high-way, or course, especially that which military forces take. This word is also used for the defeat and flight of an army.

Rout, in law, is applied to an assembly of persons going forcibly to commit some unlawful act, whether they execute it or not. See Riot.

ROWE (Nicholas), descended of an ancient family in Devonshire, was born in 1673. He acquired a complete taste of the classic authors under the famous Dr Busby in Westminster school; but poetry was his early and darling study. His father, who was a lawyer, and designed him for his own profession, entered him a student in the Middle Temple. He made remarkable advances in the study of the law; but the love of the belles lettres, and of poetry in particular, stopt him in his career. His first tragedy, The Ambitious Stepmother, meeting with universal applause, he laid aside all thoughts of rising by the law. He afterward composed several tragedies; but that which he valued himself most upon, was his Tamerlane. He wrote but one comedy, intitled *The Biter*, which had no success; his genius not lying toward comedy. Being a great admirer of Shakespear, he obliged the public with a new edition of his works. Mr Rowe's last, and perhaps his best poem, was his translation of Lucan. The love of learning and poetry did not incapacitate him from business, and nobody applied closer to it when it required his attendance. The late duke of Queensberry, when secretary of state, made him secretary for public affairs; but after the duke's death, and during the rest of queen Anne's reign, he passed his time with the muses. King George I. upon his accession to the throne of Britain, made him poet laureat, and one of the land surveyors of the customs in the port of London; and the lord chancellor Parker made him his secretary for the presentations. He died in 1718.

Rowe (Elisabeth), an English lady, eminent for her excellent writings both in prose and verse, born at Ilchester in Somersetshire in 1647, was the daughter of worthy parents, Mr Walter Singer and Mrs Elisabeth Portnel. She received the first serious impressions of religion as soon as she was capable of it. There being a great affinity between painting and poetry, this lady, who had a vein for the one, naturally had a taste for the other. She was also very fond of music; chiefly of the grave and solemn kind, as best suited to the grandeur of her sentiments, and the sublimity of her devotion. But poetry was her favourite employment, her distinguishing excellence. So prevalent was her genius this way, that her prose is all poetical. In 1696, a collection of her poems was published at the desire of two friends. Her paraphrase on the xxxviiith chapter of Job, was written at the request of bishop Ken. She had no other tutor for the French and Italian languages, than the honourable Mr Thynne, who willingly took the task upon himself. Her shining merit, with the charms of person and conversation, had procured her a great many admirers. Among others, it is said, the famous Mr Prior made his addresses to her. But Mr Thomas Rowe was to be the happy man. This gentleman was honourably descended; and his superior genius, and insatiable thirst after knowledge, were conspicuous in his earliest years. He had formed a design to compile the lives of all the illustrious persons in antiquity omitted by Plutarch; which indeed he partly executed. Eight lives were published since his decease. They were translated into French by the abbe Bellenger in 1734. He spoke with ease and fluency; had a frank and benevolent temper, an inexhaustible fund of wit, and a communicative disposition. Such was the man, who, charmed with the person, character, and writings, of our authoress, married her in 1710; and made it his study to repay the felicity with which she crowned his life. Too intense an application to study, beyond what the delicacy of his frame would bear, broke his health, and threw him into a consumption; which put a period to his valuable life in 1715, when he was but just past the 28th year of his age. Mrs Rowe wrote a beautiful elegy on his death; and continued to the last moments of her life to express the highest veneration and affection for his memory. As soon after his decease as her affairs would permit, she indulged her inclination to solitude, by retiring to Frome in Somersetshire, in the neighbourhood of which place the greatest part of her estate lay. In this recess it was that she composed the most celebrated of her works, Friendship in Death, and the Letters Moral and Entertaining. She had been favoured with an uncommon strength of constitution; owing much, no doubt, to her exact temperance and calmness of mind, till about half a year before her decease, when she was attacked by a dangerous distemper. Yet she got the better of it, and recovered her usual health for some months; till one day she was seized with an apoplexy, and expired in 1737.

Rowe || Roxburgh.

ROWEL, among farriers, a kind of issue answering to what in surgery is called a *seton*. See Farriery, § xxii.

ROWLEY (William), who stands in the third class of dramatic writers, lived in the reign of king Char. I. and received his education at the university of Cambridge: but whether he took any degree there, is not evident; there being but few particulars preserved in regard to him, more than his close intimacy and connection with all the principal wits and poetical geniuses of that age, by whom he was well beloved, and with some of whom he joined in their writings.—Wood styles him, "the ornament, for wit and ingenuity, of Pembroke-hall in Cambridge."—In a word, he was a very great benefactor to the English stage, having, exclusive of his aid lent to Middleton, Day, Heywood, Webster, &c. left us five plays of his own composing, and one in which even the immortal Shakespeare afforded him some assistance.

ROXBURGH-shire, or Teviotdale, a county of Scotland, deriving its name from the town of Roxburgh, which is now destroyed, and the river Teviot, that runs through the shire into the Tweed, is divided into the three districts of *Teviotdale*, *Liddisdale*, and *Eskdale* or *Eusdale*, so called from their respective rivers, Teviot, Liddal, and Esk. It is bounded on the east and south-east by Northumberland and Cumberland, on the south and south-west by Annandale, on the west by Tweedale; on the north by the Merse and Lauderdale; extending about 30 miles from east to west, and about 15 in breadth from the border of England to the blue Cairn in Lauder-moor. The shire exhibits a rough irregular appearance of hills, mosses, and

and mountains, interspersed however with narrow valleys, and watered with delightful streams. Though the face of the country is bare of woods, the valleys yield plenty of corn, and the hills abound with pasture for sheep and black cattle. The principal mountains of this country are known by the name of *Cockraw;* from whence a range of very high hills runs westward, dividing Scotland from England. On the confines of this shire are the debateable lands; the property of which was formerly disputed by the Scots and English borderers, but adjudged to the Scots at the union of the crowns. Roxburghshire yields plenty of lime and freestone, which in former times was freely used by the inhabitants in building castles to defend them from the invasions of their English neighbours. The most distinguished families in this county are the Scots and Kers, who raised themselves to wealth and honours by their bravery and success in a fort of predatory war with their enemies of South Britain. The shire is very populous; and the people are stout and valiant. They were formerly inured to military discipline and all the dangers of war, by living on dry marches contiguous to those of England; being so numerous and alert, that this, and the neighbouring shire of Berwick, could in 24 hours produce 10,000 men on horseback, well armed and accoutred. In the shire of Roxburgh, we still meet with a great number of old castles and seats belonging to private gentlemen, whose ancestors signalized themselves in this manner; and we find the remains of old encampments, and a Roman military way, vulgarly called the *causeway*, running from Haunum to the Tweed. The principal town called *Roxburgh*, giving the title of *duke* to the chief of the Kers, was anciently a royal borough, containing divers parishes, large and flourishing, defended by a strong citadel, which was often alternately reduced by the English and Scots adventurers. It was in besieging this castle that James II. of Scotland lost his life by the bursting of a cannon. In consequence of the almost continual wars between the two nations, this fortress was razed, the town ruined, and its royalty translated to Jedburgh, which is now a royal borough, situated between the Tefy and Jed.

ROXENT-CAPE, or ROCK *of Lisbon*, a mountain and remarkable promontory in Portugal, situated in the Atlantic ocean, at the north entrance of the Tagus, 22 miles north of Lisbon.

ROYAL, something belonging to a king: thus we say, royal family, royal assent, royal exchange, &c.

ROYAL *Family*. The first and most considerable branch of the king's royal family, regarded by the laws of England, is the queen.

1. The queen of England is either queen *regent*, queen *consort*, or queen *dowager*. The queen *regent*, *regnant*, or *sovereign*, is she who holds the crown in her own right; as the first (and perhaps the second) queen Mary, queen Elisabeth, and queen Anne; and such a one has the same powers, prerogatives, rights, dignities, and duties, as if she had been a king. This is expressly declared by statute 1 Mar. I. st. 3. c. 1. But the queen *consort* is the wife of the reigning king; and she by virtue of her marriage is participant of divers prerogatives above other women.

And, first, she is a public person, exempt and distinct from the king; and not, like other married women, so closely connected as to have lost all legal or separate existence so long as the marriage continues. For the queen is of ability to purchase lands and to convey them, to make leases, to grant copyholds, and do other acts of ownership, without the concurrence of her lord; which no other married woman can do: a privilege as old as the Saxon æra. She is also capable of taking a grant from the king, which no other wife is from her husband; and in this particular she agrees with the *Augusta*, or *piissima regina conjux divi imperatoris* of the Roman laws; who, according to Justinian, was equally capable of making a grant to, and receiving one from, the emperor. The queen of England hath separate courts and officers distinct from the king's, not only in matters of ceremony, but even of law; and her attorney and solicitor general are intitled to a place within the bar of his majesty's courts, together with the king's counsel. She may likewise sue and be sued alone, without joining her husband. She may also have a separate property in goods as well as lands, and has a right to dispose of them by will. In short, she is in all legal proceedings looked upon as a feme sole, and not as a feme covert; as a single, not as a married woman. For which the reason given by Sir Edward Coke is this: because the wisdom of the common law would not have the king (whose continual care and study is for the public, and *circa ardua regni*), to be troubled and disquieted on account of his wife's domestic affairs; and therefore it vests in the queen a power of transacting her own concerns, without the intervention of the king, as if she was an unmarried women.

Blackst. Comment.

The queen hath also many exemptions, and minute prerogatives. For instance: she pays no toll; nor is she liable to any amercement in any court. But in general, unless where the law has expressly declared her exempted, she is upon the same footing with other subjects; being to all intents and purposes the king's subject, and not his equal: in like manner as in the imperial law, *Augustus legibus soluta non est*.

The queen hath also some pecuniary advantages, which form her a distinct revenue: as, in the first place, she is intitled to an ancient perquisite called *queen-gold*, or *aurum reginæ;* which is a royal revenue belonging to every queen-consort during her marriage with the king, and due from every person who hath made a voluntary offering or fine to the king, amounting to ten merks or upwards, for and in consideration of any privileges, grants, licences, pardons, or other matter of royal favour conferred upon him by the king: and it is due in the proportion to one tenth part more, over and above the entire offering or fine made to the king, and becomes an actual debt of record to the queen's majesty by the mere recording of the fine. As, if 100 merks of silver be given to the king for liberty to take in mortmain, or to have a fair, market, park, chase, or free-warren: there the queen is intitled to 10 merks in silver, or (what was formerly an equivalent denomination) to one merk in gold, by the name of *queen-gold*, or *aurum reginæ*. But no such payment is due for any aids or subsidies granted to the king in parliament or convocation; or for fines imposed by courts on offenders against their will; nor for voluntary presents to the king, without any consideration moving from him

him to the ſubject; nor for any ſale or contract whereby the preſent revenues or poſſeſſions of the crown are granted away or diminiſhed.

The original revenue of our ancient queens, before and ſoon after the conqueſt, ſeems to have conſiſted in certain reſervations or rents out of the demeſne lands of the crown, which were expreſsly appropriated to her majeſty, diſtinct from the king. It is frequent in domeſday book, after ſpecifying the rent due to the crown, to add likewiſe the quantity of gold or other renders reſerved to the queen. Theſe were frequently appropriated to particular purpoſes; to buy wood for her majeſty's uſe, to purchaſe oil for lamps, or to furniſh her attire from head to foot, which was frequently very coſtly, as one ſingle robe in the fifth year of Henry II. ſtood the city of London in upwards of 80 pounds: A practice ſomewhat ſimilar to that of the eaſtern countries, where whole cities and provinces were ſpecifically aſſigned to purchaſe particular parts of the queen's apparel. And for a farther addition to her income, this duty of queen-gold is ſuppoſed to have been originally granted; thoſe matters of grace and favour, out of which it aroſe, being frequently obtained from the crown by the powerful interceſſion of the queen. There are traces of its payment, though obſcure ones, in the book of domeſday, and in the great pipe-roll of Henry I. In the reign of Henry II. the manner of collecting it appears to have been well underſtood; and it forms a diſtinct head in the ancient dialogue of the exchequer written in the time of that prince, and uſually attributed to Gervaſe of Tilbury. From that time downwards, it was regularly claimed and enjoyed by all the queen-conſorts of England till the death of Henry VIII.; though after the acceſſion of the Tudor family, the collecting of it ſeems to have been much neglected: and there being no queen conſort afterwards till the acceſſion of James I. a period of near 60 years, its very nature and quantity then became a matter of doubt; and being referred by the king to the chief juſtices and chief baron, their report of it was ſo very unfavourable, that his conſort queen Anne (though ſhe claimed it) yet never thought proper to exact it. In 1635, 11 Car. I. a time fertile of expedients for raiſing money upon dormant precedents in our old records (of which ſhip-money was a fatal inſtance), the king, at the petition of his queen Henrietta Maria, iſſued out his writ for levying it; but afterwards purchaſed it of his conſort at the price of 10,000 pounds; finding it, perhaps, too trifling and troubleſome to levy. And when afterwards, at the reſtoration, by the abolition of military tenures, and the fines that were conſequent upon them, the little that legally remained of this revenue was reduced to almoſt nothing at all; in vain did Mr Prynne, by a treatiſe that does honour to his abilities as a painful and judicious antiquarian, endeavour to excite queen Catherine to revive this antiquated claim.

Another ancient perquiſite belonging to the queen conſort, mentioned by all our old writers, and, therefore only, worthy notice, is this: that on the taking a whale on the coaſts, which is a royal fiſh, it ſhall be divided between the king and queen; the head only being the king's property, and the tail of it the queen's. *De ſturgione obſervetur, quod rex illum habebit integrum: de balena vero ſufficit, ſi rex habeat caput, et regina caudam.* The reaſon of this whimſical diviſion, as aſſigned by our ancient records, was, to furniſh the queen's wardrobe with whale-bone.

But farther: though the queen is in all reſpects a ſubject, yet, in point of the ſecurity of her life and perſon, ſhe is put upon the ſame footing with the king. It is equally treaſon (by the ſtatute 25 Edward III.) to imagine or compaſs the death of our lady the king's companion, as of the king himſelf; and to violate or defile the queen conſort, amounts to the ſame high crime; as well in the perſon committing the fact, as in the queen herſelf if conſenting. A law of Henry VIII. made it treaſon alſo for any woman who was not a virgin, to marry the king without informing him thereof: but this law was ſoon after repealed; it trepaſſing too ſtrongly, as well on natural juſtice, as female modeſty. If however the queen be accuſed of any ſpecies of treaſon, ſhe ſhall (whether conſort or dowager) be tried by the peers of parliament, as queen Ann Boleyn was in 28 Hen. VIII.

The huſband of a queen regnant, as prince George of Denmark was to queen Anne, is her ſubject; and may be guilty of high treaſon againſt her: but, in the inſtance of conjugal fidelity, he is not ſubjected to the ſame penal reſtrictions. For which the reaſon ſeems to be, that if a queen conſort is unfaithful to the royal bed, this may debaſe or baſtardize the heirs to the crown; but no ſuch danger can be conſequent on the infidelity of the huſband to a queen regnant.

2. A queen *dowager* is the widow of the king, and as ſuch enjoys moſt of the privileges belonging to her as queen conſort. But it is not high treaſon to conſpire her death, or to violate her chaſtity; for the ſame reaſon as was before alleged, becauſe the ſucceſſion to the crown is not thereby endangered. Yet ſtill, *pro dignitate regali*, no man can marry a queen-dowager without ſpecial licence from the king, on pain of forfeiting his lands and goods. This Sir Edward Coke tells us was enacted in parliament in 6 Henry VI. though the ſtatute be not in print. But ſhe, though an alien born, ſhall ſtill be intitled to dower after the king's demiſe, which no other alien is. A queen dowager when married again to a ſubject, doth not loſe her regal dignity, as peereſſes-dowager do when they marry commoners. For Katherine, queen dowager of Henry V. though ſhe married a private gentleman, Owen ap Meredith ap Theodore, commonly called *Owen Tudor;* yet, by the name of *Katherine queen of England*, maintained an action againſt the biſhop of Carliſle. And ſo the dowager of Navarre marrying with Edmond the brother of king Edward I. maintained an action of dower by the name of *queen of Navarre*.

3. The prince of Wales, or heir apparent to the crown, and alſo his royal conſort, and the princeſs royal, or eldeſt daughter of the king, are likewiſe peculiarly regarded by the laws. For, by ſtatute 25 Edw. III. to compaſs or conſpire the death of the former, or to violate the chaſtity of either of the latter, are as much high treaſon as to conſpire the death of the king, or violate the chaſtity of the queen. And this upon the ſame reaſon as was before given; becauſe the prince of Wales is next in ſucceſſion to the crown, and to violate his wife might taint the blood-royal with baſtardy: and the eldeſt daughter of the king is alſo alone inheritable to the crown on failure of

Royal of issue male, and therefore more respected by the laws than any of her younger sisters; insomuch that upon this, united with other (feodal) principles, while our military tenures were in force, the king might levy an aid for marrying his eldest daughter, and her only. The heir apparent to the crown is usually made prince of Wales and earl of Chester, by special creation and investiture; but being the king's eldest son, he is by inheritance duke of Cornwall, without any new creation.

4. The rest of the royal family may be considered in two different lights, according to the different senses in which the term *royal family* is used. The larger sense includes all those, who are by any possibility inheritable to the crown. Such, before the revolution, were all the descendants of William the Conqueror; who had branched into an amazing extent, by intermarriages with the ancient nobility. Since the revolution and act of settlement, it means the Protestant issue of the princess Sophia; now comparatively few in number, but which in process of time may possibly be as largely diffused. The more confined sense includes only those, who are in a certain degree of propinquity to the reigning prince, and to whom therefore the law pays an extraordinary regard and respect: but, after that degree is past, they fall into the rank of ordinary subjects, and are seldom considered any farther, unless called to the succession upon failure of the nearer lines. For though collateral consanguinity is regarded indefinitely with respect to inheritance or succession, yet it is and can only be regarded within some certain limits in any other respect, by the natural constitution of things and the dictates of positive law.

The younger sons and daughters of the king, and other branches of the royal family, who are not in the immediate line of succession, were therefore little farther regarded by the ancient law, than to give them a certain degree of precedence before all peers and public officers as well ecclesiastical as temporal. This is done by the statute 31 Henry VIII. c. 10. which enacts, that no person except the king's children shall presume to fix or have place at the side of the cloth of estate in the parliament chamber; and that certain great officers therein named, shall have precedence above all dukes, except only such as shall happen to be the king's son, brother, uncle, nephew (which Sir Edward Coke explains to signify grandson or *nepos*) or brother's or sister's son. But under the description of the king's *children*, his *grandsons* are held to be included, without having recourse to Sir Edward Coke's interpretation of *nephew*; and therefore when his late majesty king George II. created his grandson Edward, the second son of Frederick prince of Wales deceased, duke of York, and referred it to the house of lords to settle his place and precedence, they certified that he ought to have precedence next to the late duke of Cumberland, the then king's youngest son; and that he might have a seat on the left hand of the cloth of estate. But when, on the accession of his present majesty, these royal personages ceased to take place as the *children*, and ranked only as the *brother* and *uncle* of the king, they also left their seats on the side of the cloth of estate: so that when the duke of Gloucester, his majesty's second brother, took his seat in the house of peers, he was placed on the upper end of the earls bench (on which the dukes usually sit) next to his royal highness the duke of York. And in 1717, upon a question referred to all the judges by king George I. it was resolved, by the opinion of ten against the other two, that the education and care of all the king's grandchildren while minors, did belong of right to his majesty as king of this realm, even during their father's life. But they all agreed, that the care and approbation of their marriages, when grown up, belonged to the king their grandfather. And the judges have more recently concurred in opinion, that this care and approbation extend also to the presumptive heir of the crown; though to what other branches of the royal family the same did extend, they did not find precisely determined. The most frequent instances of the crown's interposition go no farther than nephews and nieces; but examples are not wanting of its reaching to more distant collaterals. And the statute 6 Henry VI. beforementioned, which prohibits the marriage of a queen-dowager without the consent of the king, assigns this reason for it: "because the disparagement of the queen shall give greater comfort and example to other ladies of estate, who are of the blood royal, more lightly to disparage themselves." Therefore by the statute 28 Hen. VIII. c. 18. (repealed, among other statutes of treasons, by 1 Edw. VI. c. 12.) it was made high treason for any man to contract marriage with the king's children or reputed children, his sisters or aunts *ex parte paterna*, or the children of his brethren or sisters; being exactly the same degrees to which precedence is allowed by the statute 31 Hen. VIII. beforementioned. And now, by statute 12 Geo. III. c. 11. no descendant of the body of king George II. (other than the issue of princesses married into foreign families) is capable of contracting matrimony, without the previous consent of the king signified under the great seal; and any marriage contracted without such a consent is void. Provided, that such of the said descendants as are not above of 25, may after a twelvemonth's notice given to the king's privy council, contract and solemnize marriage without the consent of the crown; unless both houses of parliament shall, before the expiration of the said year, expressly declare their disapprobation of such intended marriage. And all persons solemnizing, assisting, or being present at any such prohibited marriage, shall incur the penalties of the statute of *præmunire*.

Royal-*Oak*, a fair spreading tree at Boscobel, in the parish of Donnington in Staffordshire, the boughs whereof were once covered with ivy; in the thick of which king Charles II. sat in the day-time with colonel Careless, and in the night lodged in Boscobel house: so that they are mistaken who speak of it as an old hollow oak; it being then a gay flourishing tree, surrounded with many more. The poor remains thereof are now fenced in with a handsome wall, with this inscription in gold letters: *Felicissimam arborem quam in asylum potentissimi regis Caroli II. Deus op. max. per quem reges regnant, hic crescere voluit, &c.*

Royal-*Society*. See Society.

ROYALTIES, the rights of the king, otherwise called the *king's prerogative*, and the *regalia*. See Prerogative and Regalia.

ROYSTON, a town of Hertfordshire in England, seated in E. Long. 0. 1. N. Lat. 52. 3. It is a large place,

place, seated in a fertile vale full of inns, and the market is very considerable for corn. There was lately discovered, almost under the market-place, a subterraneous chapel of one Rosia, a Saxon Lady: it has several altars and images cut out of the chalky sides, and is in form of a sugar-loaf, having no entrance but at the top.

RUBENS (Sir Peter Paul), a famous painter, born at Cologne in 1577. He was the most accomplished of all the Flemish masters, and would have come up to the most celebrated Italians, if, instead of being educated under Adam Van Noort and Octavio Venius, he had been bred in the Roman or Lombard schools. Notwithstanding, perhaps, none of his predecessors can boast a more beautiful colouring, a nobler invention, or a more luxuriant fancy in their compositions. Beside his talent in painting, and his admirable skill in architecture, he was universally learned, spoke seven languages perfectly, was well read in history, and withal so excellent a statesman, that he was employed in several public negociations of great importance. His usual abode was at Antwerp, where he built a spacious apartment in imitation of the Rotunda at Rome, for a noble collection of pictures which he had purchased in Italy; some of which, together with his statues, medals, and other antiquities, he sold to the duke of Buckingham for 10,000l. His principal performances in painting are in the banquetting-house at Whitehall, the Escurial in Spain, and the Luxemburg galleries at Paris. He died in 1640, leaving vast riches to his children, the eldest of whom succeeded him in the office of secretary of state in Flanders.

RUBIA, MADDER; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the tetrandria class of plants. There are three species, of which the most remarkable is the tinctorum, or dyer's madder, so much used by the dyers and callico-printers. This hath a perennial root and annual stalk: the root is composed of many long, thick, succulent fibres, almost as large as a man's little finger; these are joined at the top in a head like asparagus, and run very deep into the ground. From the upper part, or head of the root, come out many side-roots, which extend just under the surface of the ground to a great distance, whereby it propagates very fast; for these send up a great number of shoots, which, if carefully taken off in the spring soon after they are above ground, become so many plants. These roots are of a reddish colour, somewhat transparent; and have a yellowish pith in the middle, which is tough and of a bitterish taste. From this root arise many large four-corned jointed stalks, which, in good land, will grow five or six feet long, and, if supported, sometimes seven or eight: they are armed with short herbaceous prickles; and at each joint are placed five or six spear-shaped leaves: their upper surfaces are smooth; but their midrib on the under side is armed with rough herbaceous spines, and the leaves sit close to the branches in whorls. From the joints of the stalk come out the branches, which sustain the flowers: they are placed by pairs opposite; each pair crossing the other: these have a few small leaves toward the bottom, which are by threes, and upwards by pairs opposite: the branches are terminated by loose branching spikes of yellow flowers, which are cut into four parts resembling stars. These appear in June, and are sometimes succeeded by seeds, which seldom ripen in England. For the manner of its cultivation and preparation for the use of dyers, see the article MADDER.

Madder-root is used in medicine. The virtues attributed to it, are those of a detergent and aperient; whence it has been usually ranked among the opening roots, and recommended in obstructions of the viscera, particularly of the kidneys, in coagulations of the blood from falls or bruises, in the jaundice and beginning dropsies. It is an ingredient in the icteric decoction of the Edinburgh pharmacopeia.

It is observable, that this root taken internally, tinges the urine of a deep red colour; and in the Philosophical Transactions we have an account of its producing a like effect upon the bones of animals who had it mixed with their food: all the bones, particularly the more solid ones, were said to be changed, both externally and internally, to a deep red; but neither the fleshy or cartilaginous parts suffered any alterations: some of these bones macerated in water for many weeks together, and afterwards steeped and boiled in spirit of wine, lost none of their colour, nor communicated any tinge to the liquors. This root, therefore, was concluded to be possessed of great subtilty of parts, and its medicel virtues hence to deserve inquiry. The same trials, however, made by others, have not been found to produce the same effects as those abovementioned.—Of late the root has come into great reputation as an emenagogue.

RUBININSKA, one of the northern provinces of Russia, bounded by the province of Dwina on the north, by Syrianes on the east, by Belozera on the south, and by the lake Onega on the west.

RUBRIC, in the canon law, signifies a title or article in certain ancient law-books; thus called because written, as the titles of the chapters in our ancient bibles are, in red letters.

RUBUS, the BRAMBLE, or *Raspberry-bush*; a genus of the polygynia order, belonging to the icosandria class of plants. The principal species is the common raspberry, which, with its varieties, demands culture in every garden for their fruit; particularly the common red kind, white sort, and twice-bearing raspberry; all of which are great bearers: but for the general plantations, choose principally the common red and the white kind, as being generally the greatest bearers of all; planting also a share of the twice-bearing sort, both as a curiosity, and for the sake of its autumnal crops of fruit, which in favourable seasons ripen in tolerable perfection; observing to allow all the sorts some open exposure in the kitchen garden, tho' they will prosper in almost any situation.

The other species are considered as plants of variety, for hardy plantations in the shrubbery. Some of them are also very ornamental flowering plants; particularly the Virginian flowering raspberry, and the double-blossomed bramble, which have great merit as furniture for ornamental compartments; and the white-berried bramble, which is a great curiosity. All the other species and varieties serve to diversify large collections.

RUBY, in natural history, a species of gems, being a beautiful gem of a red colour with an admixture of purple.

This, in its most perfect and best coloured state, is a gem of prodigious beauty and extreme value; it is often found perfectly pure and free from blemishes or foul-

Plate CCLIX.

RUINS of the ancient city of PALMIRA.

A. Bell Sculp.t

RUINS of PERSEPOLIS.

Ruby || Ruffhead.

foulnefs, but much more frequently debafed greatly in its value by them, efpecially in the larger fpecimens. It is of very great hardnefs, equal to that of the fapphire, and fecond only to the diamond. It is various in fize, but lefs fubject to variations in its fhape than moft of the other gems. It is ufually found very fmall, its moft common fize being equal to that of the head of the largeft fort of pins; but it is found of four, eight, or ten carats, and fometimes, tho' very rarely, up to 30, 30, or 40. It is never found of an angular or cryftalliform fhape; but always of a pebble-like figure, often roundifh, fometimes oblong, and much larger at one end than the other, and in fome form refembling a pear, and is ufually flatted on one fide. It commonly is naturally fo bright and pure on the furface, as to need no polifhing; and when its figure will admit of being fet without cutting, it is often worn in its rough ftate, and with no other than its native polifh.

We have the true ruby only from the Eaft Indies; and the principal mines of it are in the kingdom of Pegu and the ifland of Ceylon.

RUCTATION, a ventofity arifing from indigeftion, and difcharging itfelf at the mouth with a very difagreeable noife.

RUDBECK (Olaus), a learned Swedifh phyfician, born of an ancient and noble family in 1630. He became profeffor of medicine at Upfal, where he acquired great applaufe by his extenfive knowledge; and died in 1702. His principal works are, 1. *Exercitatio anatomica exhibens ductus novos hepaticos aquofos, & vafa glandularum ferofa*, in 4to. He there afferts his claim to the difcovery of the lymphatic veffels, againft the pretenfions of Thomas Bartholin. 2. *Athlantica, five Manheim, vera Japheti poflerorum fedes ac patria*, 4 vols folio, is full of ftrange paradoxes fupported with profound learning: he there endeavours to prove, that Sweden was the country whence all the ancient Pagan divinities and our firft parents were derived; and that the Germans, Englifh, French, Danes, Greeks, and Romans, with all other nations, originally came from thence.

RUDBECKIA, in botany, a genus of the fyngenefia polygamia fruftranea clafs. The receptacle is conical and paleaceous; the pappus has four teeth on its edge; and the calix confifts of a double row of fcales. There are fix fpecies, none of them natives of Britain.

RUDDER, in navigation, a piece of timber turning on hinges in the ftern of the fhip, and which, oppofing fometimes one fide in the water and fometimes another, turns or directs the veffel this way or that. See HELM.

RUDIMENTS, the firft principles or grounds of any art or fcience, called alfo the elements thereof.

RUE, in botany. See RUTA.

RUFF, in ichthyology; a fpecies of PERCA.

RUFF, in ornithology, a fpecies of TRINGA.

RUFFHEAD (Dr Owen), was the fon of his Majefty's baker, in Picadilly; who buying a lottery ticket for him in his infancy, which happened to be drawn a prize of 500l. this fum was applied to educate him for the law. He accordingly entered in the Middle Temple; and feconded fo well the views of his father, that he became a good fcholar and an acute barrifter. While he was waiting for opportunities to diftinguifh himfelf in his profeffion, he wrote a variety of pamphlets on temporary politics; and was afterwards diftinguifhed by his accurate edition of *The Statutes at large* in 4to. He now obtained good bufinefs, though more as a chamber-counfellor in framing bills for parliament than as a pleader; but his clofe application to ftudy, with the variety of works he engaged in as an author, fo impaired his conftitution, that after the laft exertion of his abilities to defend the conduct of adminiftration toward Mr Wilkes, by a pamphlet intitled, "The Cafe of the late election for the county of Middlefex confidered," he was prevented from receiving the reward of a place in the Treafury, by dying in 1769, at about 46 years of age. Some time before his death, bifhop Warburton engaged him to write his long promifed *Life of Alexander Pope*; which, however, when executed, was very far from giving general fatisfaction: the author attributed his ill fuccefs to the deficiency of his materials; while the public feemed rather to be of opinion, that, as a lawyer he ventured beyond his proper line, when he affumed the task of a critic in poetry.

Ruffling || Rules.

RUFFLING, or RUFFING, a beat on the drum. Lieutenant-generals have three ruffles, major-generals two, brigadiers one, and governors one, as they pafs by the regiment, guard, &c.

RUGEN, an ifland in the Baltic Sea, on the coaft of Pomerania, over againft Stralfund, about 23 miles in length and 15 in breadth, with the title of a principality. It is ftrong both by art and nature, abounds in corn and cattle, and belongs to Sweden. The chief town is Bergen. E. Long. 14. 30. N. Lat. 54. 32.

RUINS, a term particularly ufed for magnificent buildings fallen into decay by length of time, and whereof there only remains a confufed heap of materials.—The moft remarkable ruins, now exifting, of whole cities, are thofe of PALMYRA and PERSEPOLIS; of the grandeur of which, fome idea may be formed from the views given in Plate CCLIX.—The magnificent ruins ftill remaining in Rome, Athens, &c. of particular edifices, as temples, palaces, amphitheatres, aqueducts, baths, &c. it were endlefs to enumerate, and beyond the plan of this work to represent.

RULE, in matters of literature, a maxim, canon, or precept, to be obferved in any art or fcience.

RULE, in a monaftic fenfe, a fyftem of laws or regulations, whereby religious houfes are governed, and which the religious make a vow, at their entrance, to obferve. Such are the rules of the Auguftins, Benedictins, Carthufians, Francifcans, &c. See AUGUSTINS, &c.

RULES *of Court*, in law, are certain orders made from time to time in the courts of law, which attorneys are bound to obferve, in order to avoid confufion; and both the plaintiff and defendant are at their peril alfo bound to pay obedience to rules made in court relating to the caufe depending between them.

It is to be obferved, that no court will make a rule for any thing that may be done in the ordinary courfe; and that if a rule be made, grounded upon an affidavit, the other fide may move the court againft it, in order to vacate the fame, and thereupon fhall bring into court a copy of the affidavit and rule. On the breach and contempt of a rule of court an attachment lies; but it is not granted for difobedience to a rule, when

Rule, Rum.

when the party has not been perſonally ſerved; nor for diſobeying a rule made by a judge in his chamber, which is not of force to ground a motion upon, unleſs the ſame be entered.

A rule of court is granted every day the courts at Weſtminſter ſit, to priſoners of the King's-bench or Fleet priſons, to go at large about their private affairs.

RULE *of Three*. See PROPORTION.

RULE, or *Ruler*, an inſtrument of wood or metal, with ſeveral lines delineated on it; of great uſe in practical menſuration. When a ruler has the lines of chords, tangents, ſines, &c. it is called a *plane ſcale*.

RUM, a ſpecies of brandy or vinous ſpirits, diſtilled from ſugar-canes.

Rum, according to Dr Shaw, differs from ſimple ſugar-ſpirit, in that it contains more of the natural flavour or eſſential oil of the ſugar-cane; a great deal of raw juice and parts of the cane itſelf being often fermented in the liquor or ſolution of which the rum is prepared. The unctuous or oily flavour of rum is often ſuppoſed to proceed from the large quantity of fat uſed in boiling the ſugar; which fat, indeed, if coarſe, will uſually give a ſtinking flavour to the ſpirit, in our diſtillations of the ſugar liquor, or waſh, from our refining ſugar-houſes; but this is nothing of kin to the flavour of the rum, which is really the effect of the natural flavour of the cane.

The method of making rum is this: When a ſufficient ſtock of the materials are got together, they add water to them, and ferment them in the common method, though the fermentation is always carried on very ſlowly at firſt; becauſe at the beginning of the ſeaſon for making rum in the iſlands, they want yeaſt, or ſome other ferment to make it work: but by degrees, after this, they procure a ſufficient quantity of the ferment, which riſes up as a head to the liquor in the operation; and thus they are able afterwards to ferment and make their rum with a great deal of expedition, and in large quantities.

When the waſh is fully fermented, or to a due degree of acidity, the diſtillation is carried on in the common way, and the ſpirit is made up proof: though ſometimes it is reduced to a much greater ſtrength, nearly approaching to that of alcohol or ſpirit of wine; and it is then called *double-diſtilled rum*. It might be eaſy to rectify the ſpirit, and bring it to much greater purity than we uſually find it to be of: for it brings over in the diſtillation a very large quantity of the oil; and this is often ſo diſagreeable, that the rum muſt be ſuffered to lie by a long time to mellow before it can be uſed; whereas, if well rectified, it would grow mellow much ſooner, and would have a much leſs potent flavour.

The beſt ſtate to keep rum in, both for exportation and other uſes, is doubtleſs that of alcohol, or rectified ſpirit. In this manner it would be tranſported in one half the bulk it uſually is, and might be let down to the common proof-ſtrength with water when neceſſary: for the common uſe of making punch, it would likewiſe ſerve much better in the ſtate of alcohol; as the taſte would be cleaner, and the ſtrength might always be regulated to a much greater exactneſs than in the ordinary way.

The only uſe to which it would not ſo well ſerve in this ſtate, would be the common practice of adulteration among our diſtillers; for when they want to mix a large portion of cheaper ſpirit with the rum, their buſineſs is to have it of the proof-ſtrength, and as full of the flavouring oil as they can, that it may drown the flavour of the ſpirits they mix with it, and extend its own. If the buſineſs of rectifying rum was more nicely managed, it ſeems a very practicable ſcheme to throw out ſo much of the oil, as to have it in the fine light ſtate of a clear ſpirit, but lightly impregnated with it; in this caſe it would very nearly reſemble arac, as is proved by the mixing a very ſmall quantity of it with a taſteleſs ſpirit, in which caſe the whole bears a very near reſemblance to arac in flavour.

Rum is uſually very much adulterated in Britain; ſome are ſo bare-faced as to do it with malt-ſpirit; but when it is done with molaſſes ſpirit, the taſtes of both are ſo nearly allied, that it is not eaſily diſcovered. The beſt method of judging of it is by ſetting fire to a little of it; and, when it has burnt away all the inflammable part, examining the phlegm both by the taſte and ſmell.

RUMELIA, in geography, the ſame with ancient Greece; now a part of Turky in Europe.

RUMEN, the paunch, or firſt ſtomach of ſuch animals as chew the cud; thence called *ruminant animals*. See COMPARATIVE *Anatomy*, n° 90.

RUMEX, DOCK; a genus of the trigynia order, belonging to the hexandria claſs of plants. There are 27 ſpecies, of which the moſt remarkable are,

1. The patientia, commonly called *patience rhubarb*. This was formerly much more cultivated in the Britiſh gardens than at preſent: the roots of this have been generally uſed for the monk's rhubarb, and has even been thought to be the true kind; but others ſuppoſe the ſecond ſort ſhould be uſed as ſuch. The root is large, and divides into many thick fibres; their outer cover is brown, but they are yellow within, with ſome reddiſh veins; the leaves are broad, long, and acute-pointed; their footſtalks are of a reddiſh colour; the ſtalks riſe ſix or ſeven feet high, and divide towards the top into ſeveral erect branches garniſhed with a few narrow leaves terminating with looſe ſpikes of large ſtaminous flowers. Theſe appear in June, and are ſucceeded by pretty large three-cornered ſeeds, whoſe coverings are entire, which ripen in autumn.

2. The alpinus, or monk's rhubarb, grows naturally on the Alps, but has long been cultivated in the gardens of this country. This hath large roots which ſpread and multiply by their offſets: they are ſhorter and thicker than the former, are of a very dark brown on the outſide, and yellow within. The leaves are of the round heart-ſhape, ſtanding upon long footſtalks. The ſtalks riſe from two to three feet high; they are thick, and have a few ſmall roundiſh leaves on the lower part; but the upper part is cloſely garniſhed with ſpikes of white flowers ſtanding erect cloſe to the ſtalks. Theſe appear in the latter end of May, and are ſucceeded by large triangular ſeeds which ripen in Auguſt.

3. The aquaticus, or water-dock, grows naturally in ponds, ditches, and ſtanding waters, in many parts of Britain. It is ſuppoſed to be the herba Britannica of the ancients. It hath large roots which ſtrike deep into

Rumelia || Rumex.

Rundlet || Runnet.

into the loose mud, sending out leaves which are above two feet long. The stalks rise five or six feet high when the plants grow in water, but in dry land seldom more than three: these are garnished with narrow leaves among the spikes of flowers to the top. The flowers stand upon slender footstalks which are reflexed: they are of an herbaceous colour, appear in June, and the seeds ripen in autumn.

4. The acutus, or sharp pointed dock, (the oxylapathum of the shops); but the markets are supplied with roots of the common docks which are indifferently gathered by those who collect them in the fields, where the kind, commonly called *butter-dock* (from its leaves being used to wrap up butter), is much more common than this. The roots of this are slender, and run downright, sending out a few small fibres; the stalks rise about two feet high, garnished at bottom with leaves four inches long, and one and an half broad in the middle. They are rounded at their base, where they are slightly indented, but end in acute points. From the joints of the stalks come out alternately long footstalks, which sustain the spikes of flowers, which grow in small whorls round the stalks, at about an inch distant.

These plants are but seldom cultivated, and so easily multiply by their numerous seeds, that they soon become troublesome weeds where they once get an entrance.

RUNDLET, or Runlet, a small vessel, containing an uncertain quantity of any liquor, from 3 to 20 gallons.

RUNGS, in a ship, the same with the floor or ground timbers; being the timbers which constitute her floor; and are bolted to the keel, whose ends are rung-heads.

Rung-*Heads*, in a ship, are made a little bending to direct the sweep or mold of the futtocks and naval-timbers; for here the lines begin which make the compass and bearing of the ship.

RUNIC, a term applied to the language and letters of the ancient Goths, Danes, and other northern nations.

RUNNER, in the sea-language, a rope belonging to the garnet and the two bolt-tackles. It is reeved in a single block joined to the end of a pendant: it has at one end a hook to hitch into any thing; and, at the other, a double block, into which is reeved the fall of the tackle, or the garnet, by which means it purchases more than the tackle would without it.

RUNNING-thrush, among farriers. See Farriery, § xliv.

RUNNET, or Rennet, is the concreted milk found in the stomachs of sucking quadrupeds, which as yet have received no other nourishment than their mother's milk. In ruminating animals which have several stomachs, it is generally found in the last, though sometimes in the next to it. If the runnet is dried in the sun, and then kept close, it may be preserved in perfection for years. Not only the runnet itself, but also the stomach in which it is found, curdles milk without any previous preparation. But the common method is, to take the inner membrane of a calf's stomach, to clean it well, to salt, and hang it up in brown paper: when this is used the salt is washed off, then it is macerated in a little water during the night, and in the morning the infusion is poured into the milk to curdle it. The medicinal qualities of runnet are its acrimony, its resolvent power, and its usefulness in surfeits from food of difficult digestion. See Thistle.

Rupee, Rupert.

RUPEE, Roupia, or *Roupias*, names of a gold and silver coin, current in the East Indies. See Money-*Table*.

RUPERT, prince palatine of the Rhine, &c. son of Frederic prince elector palatine of the Rhine, and Elisabeth daughter to king James I. of England, was born in 1619. He gave proofs of his bravery at the age of 13; and in 1642 came over into England, and offered his service to king Charles I. his uncle, who gave him a command in his army. At Edgehill he charged with incredible bravery, and made a great slaughter of the parliamentarians. In 1643 he seized the town of Cirencester; obliged the governor of Litchfield to surrender; and having joined his brother prince Maurice, reduced Bristol in three days, and passed to the relief of Newark. In 1644 he marched to relieve York, where he gave the parliamentarians battle, and entirely defeated their right wing; but Cromwel charged the marquis of Newcastle with such an irresistible force, that prince Rupert was entirely defeated. After this the prince put himself into Bristol, which surrendered to Fairfax after a gallant resistance. The king was so enraged at the loss of this city, so contrary to his expectation, that he recalled all prince Rupert's commissions, and sent him a pass to go out of the kingdom. In 1648 he went for France, was highly complimented by that court, and kindly received by king Charles II. who sojourned there for the time. Afterward he was constituted admiral of the king's navy; infested the Dutch ships, many of which he took; and having engaged with de Ruyter, obliged him to fly. He died in 1682, and was interred in king Hen. VII.'s chapel, Westminster, with great magnificence. Mr Grainger observes, that he possessed in a high degree that kind of courage which is better in an attack than a defence; and is less adapted to the land-service than that of the sea, where precipitate valour is in its element. He seldom engaged but he gained the advantage, which he generally lost by pursuing it too far. He was better qualified to storm a citadel, or even to mount a breach, than patiently to sustain a siege; and would have furnished an excellent hand to a general of a cooler head. This prince is celebrated for the invention of prints in mezzotinto, of which he is said to have taken the hint from a soldier's scraping his rusty musil. The first print of this kind ever published was done by his highness, and may be seen in the first edition of Evelyn's Sculptra. The secret is said to have been soon after discovered by Sherwin an engraver, who made use of a loaded file for laying the ground. The prince, upon seeing one of his prints, suspected that his servant had lent him his tool, which was a channelled roller; but upon receiving full satisfaction to the contrary, he made him a present of it. The roller was afterwards laid aside; and an instrument with a crenelled edge, shaped like a shoemaker's cutting knife, was used instead of it. He also invented a metal called by his name, in which guns were cast; and contrived an excellent method of boring them, for which purpose

Rupert || Rushworth.

a water-mill was erected at Hackney-marsh, to the great detriment of the undertaker, as the secret died with the illustrious inventor.

RUPERT's *Drops*, a sort of glass-drops with long and slender tails, which burst to pieces on the breaking off those tails in any part; said to have been invented by prince Rupert, and therefore called by his name. Concerning the cause of this surprising phenomenon, scarce any thing that bears the least appearance of probability has been offered. Their explosion is attended in the dark with a flash of light; and by being boiled in oil, the drops are deprived of their explosive quality.

RUPIN, or RAPIN, a town of Germany, in the marquisate of Brandenburg, and capital of a duchy of the same name; it is divided into the Old and the New. The Old was nothing but an ancient castle, very well furnished, the present king of Prussia, before his father's death, residing there. New Rupin is seated on a lake, and become a considerable place of trade, with a manufactory of cloth. It is also noted for brewers. E. Long. 13. 23. N. Lat. 53. 0.

RUSCUS, KNEE-HOLLY, or *Butcher's Broom*; a genus of the syngenesia order, belonging to the dioecia class of plants. The most remarkable species is the aculeatus, or common butcher's broom, common in the woods in many parts of England. It has roots composed of many thick fibres which twine about each other; from which arise several stiff green stalks about three feet high, sending out from their sides several short branches, garnished with stiff, oval, heartshaped leaves, placed alternately on every part of the stalk, ending with sharp prickly points. The flowers are produced in the middle, on the upper side of the leaves; they are small, and cut into six parts; of a purple colour, sitting close to the midrib. They appear in June; and the female flowers are succeeded by berries as large as cherries, of a sweetish taste, which ripen in winter; when they are of a beautiful red colour. As this plant grows wild in most parts of England, it is rarely admitted into gardens; but if some of the roots are planted under tall trees in large plantations, they will spread into large clumps; and as they retain their leaves in winter, at that season they will have a good effect. The seeds of this plant generally lie a year in the ground before they vegetate; and the plants so raised are long before they arrive to a size big enough to make any figure, and therefore it is much better to transplant the roots.—The root of this plant is accounted aperient, and in this intention is sometimes made an ingredient in apozems and diet-drinks, for opening slight obstructions of the viscera, and promoting the fluid secretions. This plant is used by the butchers for besoms to sweep their blocks. Huckesters place the boughs round their bacon and cheese to defend them from the mice; for they cannot make their way thro' the prickly leaves.

RUSHWORTH (John), famous for his Historical Collections, was descended of a good family in Northumberland, and born about 1607. For some time he studied at Oxford, and afterwards became a barrister of Lincoln's Inn. But his genius leading him more to state affairs than the common law, he began early to take down speeches, &c. in parliament. He personally attended at all occurrences of moment, during the 11 years interval of parliament; he also went to observe distant transactions through the whole kingdom. Upon the opening of the long parliament in 1640, he was chosen assistant to Mr Henry Elsyng, clerk of the house of commons, who sent by him their addresses to the king when at York. In 1643 he took the covenant, and was appointed secretary to Sir Thomas Fairfax, general of the parliament's forces. In 1651 he was named one of the committee to consult about the reformation of the common law. In 1658 he was chosen a burgess for the town of Berwick upon Tweed; which place he represented in several parliaments afterwards, until that which met at Oxford in 1679. In 1667 he was appointed secretary to Sir Orlando Bridgman, lord keeper of the great seal of England. At length he was committed prisoner for debt to the king's-bench in Southwark, where he spent the six last years of his life, and died in 1690. His Historical Collections of private passages in State, weighty matters in Law, and remarkable proceedings in Parliament, were published at different times in folio; and comprehend from the year 1618 to the year 1648. All the seven volumes were reprinted together in 1721, with the trial of the earl of Strafford, which makes the whole eight volumes. This work has been highly extolled by those who were averse to the cause of Cha. I. and condemned as partial by all who favoured him and his measures: but it does not appear, nor is it pretended, that Mr Rushworth has misrepresented facts or speeches.

Russia.

RUSSIA, a very large and powerful kingdom of Europe, comprehending also under its dominion the northern part of Asia, quite to the eastern part where it approaches the coast of America. On the south, this immense track is bounded by Calmuck and Cuban Tartary, Persia, Georgia, the Caspian and Euxine seas; and on the west, by Poland and Sweden. It is divided into four parts; namely, Muscovy Proper, or Western Muscovy; Eastern Muscovy; Muscovite Tartary; and Muscovite Lapland. These are subdivided into provinces, northern, eastern, and western; amounting to a very considerable number, including some kingdoms and duchies which have been conquered and subdued by the czars of Russia.

1 Original inhabitants.

In ancient times this country was inhabited by various nations; such as Hunns, Scythians, Sarmatians, Massagetes, Sclavonians, Cimbri, &c. of whom an account is given under the various detached articles in this work. The origin of the Russians themselves, though not prior to the ninth century, is still covered with almost impenetrable obscurity; partly owing to the ignorance and barbarity of the people, and partly to the mistaken policy which yet prevails in the nation, of suppressing all accounts of their origin and inquiries into their ancient state and situation; of which we have a remarkable instance in the suppression of a work by professor Muller, intitled *De Originibus gentis et nominis Russorum*.

2 Origin of the Russians.

According to several authors of credit, the Russians derived their origin from the Slavi, or Slavonians, corruptly called the *Sclavonians*, who settled first along the banks of the Wolga, and afterwards near the Danube, in the countries named *Bulgaria* and *Hungary*: but being driven from thence by the Romans, (whom the Russians call *Wolochers*, or *Wolotaners*), they first removed to the river Borysthenes, or Dnciper, then over-ran Poland; and, as is reported, built the city of Kiow.

Russia. Kiow. Afterwards they extended their colonies farther north, to the rivers which run into the *Ilmen* lake, and laid the foundation of the city of Novogrod. The towns of Smolenſk and Tſernikow appear alſo to have been built by them, though the dates of theſe events cannot be aſcertained. The moſt ancient inhabitants, not only of Ruſſia, but all over Siberia, quite to the borders of China, are called *Tſhudi:* for profeſſor Muller, on inquiring in thoſe parts, by whom the ancient buildings and ſepulchral monuments he ſaw there were erected, was every where anſwered, that they were the works of the Tſhudi, who in ancient times had lived in that country.

In the ninth century the Scandinavians, that is the Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes, emigrated from the north, and, croſſing the Baltic, went to ſeek habitations in Ruſſia. They firſt ſubdued the Courlanders, Livonians, and Eſthonians; and, extending their conqueſts ſtill farther, they exacted tribute from the Novogrodians, ſettled kings over them, and traded as far as Kiow, and even to Greece. Theſe new invaders were called *Waregers;* which, according to profeſſor Muller, ſignifies "ſea-faring people;" or, if derived from the old northern word *war*, it ſignifies "warlike men." To theſe Waregers the name of *Ruſſes*, or *Ruſſians*, is thought by the moſt eminent authors to owe its origin; but the etymology of the word itſelf is entirely uncertain.

3 Ruſſia at firſt divided into a number of petty kingdoms.

In the dark ages of which we are ſpeaking, it is pretty certain that Ruſſia was divided among a great number of petty princes, who made war upon each other with the ferocity and cruelty of wild beaſts; ſo that the whole country was reduced to the utmoſt miſery; when Goſtomiſel, a chief of the Novogrodians, pitying the unhappy fate of his countrymen, and ſeeing no other method of remedying their calamities, adviſed them to offer the government of their country to the Waregers. The propoſal was readily accepted, and three princes of great abilities and valour were ſent to govern them; namely, Ruric, Sincus, and *Truwor*, generally ſuppoſed to have been brothers. The firſt took up his reſidence at Ladoga, in the principality of Great Novogrod; the ſecond at Bielo Oſero, or the White Lake; and the third kept his court at Iſborſk, or, according to others, at a ſmall town, then called *Twertzog*, in the principality of Pleſkow. The three brothers reigned amicably, and made conſiderable additions to their dominions; all of which at length devolved to Ruric by the death of Sincus and Truwor; but what the conqueſts of the two brothers were, we have no records to inform us of.

4 Ruric the firſt ſovereign.

The Ruſſian empire continued to flouriſh till the end of the reign of Wolodomir, who aſcended the throne in the year 976. Having ſettled the affairs of his empire in peace, he demanded in marriage the princeſs Anne, ſiſter to the Greek emperor Baſilius Porphyrogenitus. His ſuit was granted, on condition that he ſhould embrace Chriſtianity. With this the Ruſſian monarch complied; and that vaſt empire was thenceforward conſidered as belonging to the patriarchate of Conſtantinople. Wolodomir received the name of *Baſilius* the ſame day on which he was baptized; and, according to the Ruſſian annals, 20,000 of his ſubjects were baptized the ſame day. Michael Syra, or Cyrus, a Greek, ſent by Photius the patriarch of Conſtantinople, was accepted as metropolitan of the whole country. At the ſame time Wolodomir put away all his former wives and concubines, of whom he had upwards of 800, and by whom he had 12 ſons, who were baptized on the ſame day with himſelf. The idols of paganiſm were now thrown down; churches and monaſteries were erected, towns built, and the arts began to flouriſh. The Sclavonian letters were now firſt introduced into Ruſſia; and Wolodomir ſent miſſionaries to convert the Bulgarians; but only three or four of their princes came to him and were baptized. Theſe events happened in the year 987.

5 Chriſtianity introduced.

Wolodomir died in 1008, and, contrary to all rules of ſound policy and prudence, divided his empire among his 12 ſons. The conſequence was, that they fell to making war and deſtroying one another as ſoon as their father was dead. Suantepolk, one of the brothers, having deſtroyed and ſeized upon the dominions of two others, was himſelf driven out by Jariſlaus, and obliged to fly to Boleſlaus king of Poland. This brought on a dreadful war betwixt the Poles and Ruſſians; in which the former were victorious, and the latter loſt a great part of their dominions, as has been related under the article POLAND.

6 A civil war.

Jariſlaus finding himſelf unable to oppoſe the king of Poland, now turned his arms againſt the reſt of his brothers, all of whom he diſpoſſeſſed of their dominions, and ſeized them for himſelf. He next attacked the Coſſacks, over whom he gained ſeveral advantages. After which he ventured once more to try his fortune with Boleſlaus: but in this ſecond expedition he was attended with worſe ſucceſs than before; being now reduced to the condition of a vaſſal and tributary to the victorious monarch. However, in the reign of Mieczſlaus II. the ſucceſſor of Boleſlaus, the Ruſſians again ſhook off the yoke, and a laſting peace was confirmed by the marriage of Mieczſlaus with the ſiſter of Wolodomir.

7 Ruſſia becomes tributary to Poland.

Jariſlaus now continued to enjoy the empire quietly till his death, which happened in 1052; but fell into the ſame error which his father had committed, by dividing his dominions among his five ſons. This produced a repetition of the bloody ſcenes which had been acted by the ſons of Wolodomir; the Poles took the advantage of the diſtracted ſtate of affairs to make continual inroads and invaſions; and the empire continued in the moſt deplorable ſituation till the year 1237, when it was totally ſubdued by the Tartars. We are not informed of any particulars of this remarkable event, farther than that innumerable multitudes of theſe barbarians, headed by their khan Batto, or Battus, after ravaging great part of Poland and Sileſia, broke ſuddenly into Ruſſia, where they committed the greateſt cruelties. Moſt of the Ruſſian princes, among whom was the great duke George Sevoloditz, were made priſoners, and racked to death; and, in ſhort, none found mercy but ſuch as acknowledged themſelves the ſubjects of the Tartars. The imperious conqueror impoſed upon the Ruſſians every thing that is moſt mortifying in ſlavery; inſiſting that they ſhould have no other princes than ſuch as he approved of; that they ſhould pay him a yearly tribute, to be brought by the ſovereigns themſelves on foot, who were to preſent it humbly to the Tartarian ambaſſador on horſeback. They were alſo to proſtrate themſelves before the haughty

8 Subdued by the Tartars.

Russia.

Tartar; to offer him milk to drink; and, if any drops of it fell down, to lick them up; a singular mark of servility, which continued near 260 years.

9 The empire harrassed by internal dissensions.

George Sevoloditz was succeeded by his brother Michael Sevoloditz Zernigouski; who opposed the Tartars, but was defeated by them, and lost his life. He left three sons, Feodor, Alexander, and Andrew, whose wars with each other ended in the death of them all. A son of Alexander, and of the same name, was then placed on the throne by the Tartars; and his son Danilow, or Daniel Alexandrowitz, removed his court from Wolodimir to Moscow, where he first assumed the title of *Great duke of Wolodimir and Moscow*. Daniel Alexandrowitz left two sons, Gregory and John; the former of whom, named *Kalita* from a purse he used always to carry about him filled with money for the poor, ascended the throne; but he was soon assassinated by another prince; named *Demetri Michaelowitz*, who was himself put to death for it by the Tartars; and John, likewise surnamed *Kalita*, was then made czar. This John left three sons, John, Simon, and Andrew; and the eldest of these, commonly called *Iwan Iwanowitz*, was made czar, with the approbation of the Tartars, on whom he was dependant.

10 And by external enemies.

During these several reigns, which fill a space of upwards of 100 years, and which all historians have passed over for want of records concerning them, the miseries of a foreign yoke were aggravated by all the calamities of intestine discord and war; whilst the knights of Livonia, or brothers of the short-sword, as they are sometimes called, a kind of military order of religious, on one side, and the Poles on the other, catching at the opportunity, attacked Russia, and took several of its towns, and even some considerable countries. The Tartars and Russians, whose interests were in this case the same, often united to oppose their common enemies; but were generally worsted. The Livonians took Pleskow; and the Poles made themselves masters of Black Russia, the Ukraine, Podolia, and the city of Kiow. Casimir the Great, one of their kings, carried his conquests still farther. He asserted his pretensions to a part of Russia, in right of his relation to Boleslaus duke of Halitz, who died without issue, and forcibly possessed himself of the duchies of Perzemyslia, Halitz, and Luckow, and of the districts of Sanock, Lubackzow, and Trebowla; all which countries he made a province of Poland.

The newly-conquered Russians were ill-disposed to brook the government of the Poles; whose laws and customs were more contrary to their own than those of the Tartars had been. They joined the latter, to rid themselves of the yoke; and assembled an army numerous enough to overwhelm all Poland, but destitute of valour and discipline. Casimir, undaunted by this deluge of barbarians, presented himself at the head of a few troops on the borders of the Vistula, and obliged his enemies to retire.

11 A great army cut in pieces by the Tartars.

Demetrius Iwanowitz, son of Iwan Iwanowitz, who commanded in Moscow, made frequent efforts to rid himself of the galling yoke. He defeated in several battles, Maymay khan of the Tartars; and, when conqueror, refused to pay them any tribute, and assumed the title of *great duke of Muscovy*. But the oppressors of the north returned in greater numbers than before; and Demetrius, at length overpowered, after a struggle of three years, perished with his whole army, which, if we may credit historians, amounted to upwards of 240,00 men.

Basilius Demetriwitz revenged his father's death. He attacked his enemies, drove them out of his dominions, and conquered Bulgaria. He made an alliance with the Poles, whom he could not subdue; and even ceded to them a part of his country, on condition that they should help him to defend the rest against any new incursions of the Tartars. But this treaty was a weak barrier against ambition. The Russians found new enemies in their allies; and the Tartars soon returned. Basilius Demetriwitz had a son who was called after his name, and to whom the crown ought naturally to have descended. But the father suspecting his legitimacy, left it to his own brother Gregory, a man of a severe and tyrannical disposition, and therefore hated by the people, who asserted the son's right, and proclaimed him their sovereign. The Tartars took cognizance of the dispute, and determined it in favour of Basilius; upon which Gregory had recourse to arms, drove his nephew from Moscow to the principality of Uglitz, and forcibly usurped and kept possession of his throne. Upon the death Gregory, Basilius returned to Moscow; but Andrew and Demetrius, sons of the late usurper, laid siege to that city, and obliged him to retire to the monastery of Troitz, where they took him prisoner, with his wife and son, and put out his eyes: hence the appellation of *jemmoi*, "blind," by which this Basilius is distinguished. The subjects of this unfortunate prince, incensed at the cruel treatment he had received, forced the perpetrators of it to fly to Novogrod, and reinstated their lawful sovereign at Mosco, where he died.

12 John Basilowitz I. restores the affairs of Russia.

In the midst of this general confusion, John Basilowitz I. by his invincible spirit and refined policy, became both the conqueror and deliverer of his country, and laid the first foundation of its future grandeur. Observing with indignation the narrow limits of his power at his accession to the throne, after the death of his father Basilius the Blind, he began immediately to revolve within himself the means of enlarging his dominions. Marriage, though he had in reality no regard or inclination for women, seemed to him one of the best expedients he could begin with; and accordingly he demanded and obtained Maria, sister of Michael duke of Twer; whom he soon after deposed, under pretence of revenging the injuries done to his father, and added this duchy to his own territories of Moscow. Maria, by whom he had a son named *John*, who died before him, did not live long; and upon her death he married Sophia, daughter of Thomas Paleologus, who had been driven from Constantinople, and forced to take shelter at Rome, where the pope portioned this princess, in hopes of procuring thereby great advantage to the Romish religion; but his expectations were frustrated, Sophia being obliged to conform to the Greek church after her arrival in Russia. What could induce Basilowitz to seek a consort at such a distance, is nowhere accounted for; unless it be, that he hoped by this means to establish a pretension to the empire of the east, to which her father was the next heir: but however that may be, the Russians certainly owed to this alliance their deliverance from the Tartar yoke. Shocked at the servile homage exacted by those proud

13 Marries a Greek princess.

Russia.

proud victors, her husband going to meet their ambassadors at some distance from the city, and standing to hear what they had to say, whilst they were at dinner; Sophia told him, that she was surprised to find that she had married a servant to the Tartars. Nettled at this reproach, Basilowitz feigned himself ill when the next deputation from the Tartars arrived, and under that pretence avoided a repetition of the stipulated humiliating ceremonial. Another circumstance equally displeasing to this princess was, that the Tartars had, by agreement, within the walls of the palace at Moscow, houses in which their ministers resided; to show their power, and at the same time watch the actions of the great duke. To get rid of these, a formal embassy was sent to the Tartarian khan, to tell him, that Sophia having been favoured with a vision from above, ordering her to build a temple in the place where those houses stood, her mind could not be at ease till she had fulfilled the divine command; and therefore his leave was desired to pull them down, and give his people others. The khan consented: the houses within the Kremlin were demolished; and no new new ones being provided, the Tartar residents were obliged to leave Moscow; their prince not being able to revenge this breach of promise, by reason of a war he was then engaged in with the Poles. Basilowitz taking advantage of this circumstance, and having in the mean time considerably increased his forces, openly disclaimed all subjection to the Tartars, attacked their dominions, and made himself master of Casan, where he was solemnly crowned with the diadem of that kingdom, which is said to be the same that is now used for the coronation of the Russian sovereigns. The province of Permia, with great part of Lapland and Asiatic Bulgaria, soon submitted to him; and Great Novogrod, a city then so famous, that the Russians used to express its vast importance by the proverbial expression of, *Who can resist God and the Great Novogrod?* was reduced by his generals after a seven years siege, and yielded him an immense treasure; no less, say some writers, than 300 cart loads of gold and silver, and other valuable effects. Alexander Witold, waiwode of Lithuania, was in possession of this rich place, from which he had exacted for some years an annual tribute of 100,000 rubles, a prodigious sum for those days and for that country; when it was taken by John Basilowitz, who, the better to secure his conquest, put it under the protection of the Poles, voluntarily rendered himself their tributary for it, and accepted a governor from the hand of their king Casimir, a weak and indolent prince, from whom he well knew he had nothing to fear. The Novogrodians continued to enjoy all their privileges till about two years after; when John, ambitious of reigning without controul, entered the city with a numerous retinue, under pretence of keeping to the Greek faith, who, said he, intended to embrace the Romish religion; and with the assistance of the archbishop Theophilus, stripped them all of their remaining riches. He then deposed the treacherous prelate, and established over Novogrod new magistrates, creatures of his own; destroying at once, by this means, a noble city, which, had its liberties been protected, and its trade encouraged, might have proved to him an inexhaustible fund of wealth. All the north beheld with terror and astonishment the rapid increase of the victor's power: foreign nations courted his alliance; and the several petty princes of Russia submitted to him without resistance, acknowledging themselves his vassals.

14 Who excites him to shake off the Tartar yoke.

15 His success.

The Poles, however, complained loudly of his late breach of faith in regard to Novogrod, and threatened revenge: upon which Basilowitz, elated with his successes, with the riches he had amassed, and with the weak condition of most of his neighbours, sent a body of troops into Lithuania, and soon became master of several of its towns. Casimir applied for assistance to Matthias king of Hungary: but was answered by this last, that his own soldiers were quite undisciplined; that his auxiliaries had lately mutinied for want of pay; and that it was impossible for him to raise a new army out of the neighbouring countries. The Polish monarch in this distress, was obliged to purchase of John a cessation of arms for two years, during which the Muscovite made new accessions to his dominions.

16 Invades Lithuania, and obliges the Poles to sue for peace.

The dukes of Servia, whose territories were about 500 miles in extent, had long thought themselves ill used by the Lithuanians on account of their religion, which was that of the Greek church; and wanted to withdraw from their subjection to Poland, and put themselves under the protection of Russia. The following accident afforded them the wished-for pretence. Their envoys arriving at Wilna, desired admittance to the king's presence: which being refused, one of them endeavoured to force his way in; but the porter shut the door rudely against him, and in so doing broke one of his fingers. The servant was immediately put to death for this offence: but the Servians, by no means satisfied with that, returned home in great fury, and prevailed upon their countrymen to submit themselves and their country to the Muscovites. Casimir made several attempts to recall them, but to no purpose.

17 Servia submits to him.

Matthias king of Hungary dying about this time, two of his sons, Uladislaus, then king of Bohemia, and John Albert, contended for the vacant crown. Casimir wanted to give it to the latter, whom he accordingly assisted to the utmost of his power; and to enable him the better so to do, though he was in great want of money as well as men, he purchased a renewal of the truce with the Russians, and thereby gave John Basilowitz time to establish himself in his new acquisitions.

Casimir died in the year 1492, and was succeeded on the throne of Poland by his son John Albert, who totally disregarding the Russians, involved himself unnecessarily in a war with the brave Stephen, duke of Moldavia: and though he had at the same time both the Tartars and Turks against him, his propensity to pleasure, and his lascivious disposition, rendered him so indolent, that he not only did not so much as attempt to molest Basilowitz in any of his possessions, but concluded a peace with him on terms very advantageous to the latter; and even entered into a treaty, by which he stipulated not to assist the Lithuanians, though they had chosen his brother Alexander for their duke, in case the Russians should attack them, as it was supposed they would. Alexander thinking to parry the inconveniences of this agreement, and to guard against the designs of his enemies, demanded in marriage Basilowitz's daughter, Helena, by his second wife Sophia, and obtained her. The Lithuanians then flattered themselves with a prospect of tranquillity: but the ambitious *czar*, for Basilowitz had assumed that title since his

18 Concludes an advantageous treaty with the Poles.

his conquest of Casan, aiming only at the increase of dominion, soon found a pretence to break with his new allies, by alleging, that Polish Russia, as far as the river Berezina, had formerly belonged to his ancestors, and therefore should be his; and that Alexander, by his marriage-contract, had engaged to build a Greek church at Wilna for his Russian consort, which he had not done, but on the contrary endeavoured to force the Polish Russians to embrace the religion of the church of Rome. In consequence of this plea, he sent into the tenritories of his son-in-law, by different ways, three armies, which reduced several places, destroyed the country about Smolensko, and defeated the Lithuanian field-marshal Ostrosky, near the river Wedrasch, where he fell unawares into an ambush of the Russians. Alexander raised a new army of Silesians, Bohemians, and Moravians; but they came too late, the Russians having retired with their plunder. Elated by their success against the Lithuanians, they invaded Livonia in the year 1502, with 130,000 men: but Walter Von Plettenberg, grand-master of the knights of the cross, with only 12,000 men, gave them a total overthrow; killing 10,000 of his enemies, with scarce any loss on his own side. Basilowitz dispirited by this defeat, and being then engaged in a war with the Tartars, the Poles, and the city of Pleskow, immediately dispatched an embassy to Plettenberg, and concluded a truce with him for 50 years. At the same time he begged of that general to send to Moscow, that he might see him, one of the *iron-dragoons*, as he called them, who had performed wonders in the late engagement. Von Plettenberg readily complied; and the czar, struck with admiration, rewarded the cuirassier's accomplishments with considerable honours and presents.

19 His success in Lithuania.

20 Is defeated in Livonia, and obliged to retire.

Alexander had been elected king of Poland upon the death of his brother John Albert, which happened in the beginning of this year: but the Poles refused to crown his consort Helena, because she adhered to the Greek religion. Provoked at this affront, and probably still more stimulated by ambition, Basilowitz resolved again to try his fortune with them; and accordingly ordered his son Demetrius, now the eldest, to march against Smolensko, and reduce that city. The young prince did all that could be done: but the vigorous resistance of the besieged, and the arrival of the king of Poland with a numerous army, obliged the Russians to raise the siege and return home; and the czar was glad to make a fresh truce with the Poles for six years, upon the easy terms of only returning the prisoners he had taken. Some writers say, that flying into a violent passion with his son the moment he saw him, and imputing the miscarriage of this expedition to his want of courage or conduct, he gave him a blow which laid him dead at his feet; to which is added, that remorse for this rash action carried his father to his grave: but this account is not confirmed by authors whose authority can be relied on. Certain it is, however, that neither of them long survived this event; and that Demetrius died first: for Sophia, who had gained an absolute ascendant over her husband, and wanted to give the sovereignty to her own children, persuaded him by various artful insinuations, to set aside and imprison his grandson Demetrius, the only child of the late John, whom he had by his first wife Maria, and declare her then eldest son, Gabriel, his successor. Age and infirmities had rendered the czar so weak, that he blindly followed the iniquitous advice; but shortly after, finding his end approach, he sent for young Demetrius, expressed great repentance for his barbarity towards him, and on his death-bed declared him his lawful successor. He died in November 1505, after a reign of 55 years; leaving behind him an immense territory, chiefly of his own acquiring.

21 He dies, and is succeeded by his son, who takes the name of Basilius.

The czar was no sooner dead, than his son Gabriel Iwanowitz, at the intigation of his mother Sophia, put an end to the life of the young Demetrius, by confining him in prison, where he perished with hunger and cold; after which Gabriel was crowned by the name of *Basilius*, and took the title of *czar*, as well as all the rest belonging to the sovereignty. On his accession to the throne he expected that the Poles would be in confusion about the election of a new sovereign; but his expectations being defeated by their unanimous election of Sigismund I. a prince of a mild and peaceable disposition, he sent an army into Lithuania, and laid siege to Smolensko. The place made a brave resistance, till news arrived that the crown-troops of Poland were coming to their assistance, with the addional aid of 80,000 Crim Tartars; on which the Russians returned home with the utmost precipitation. They were, however, quickly followed by the Poles, who reduced the czar to submit to such terms as they pleased to impose. Basilius remained quiet till he thought himself capable of revenging the injuries he had sustained; after which, pretending to set out upon some other expedition, he marched with a numerous army, and encamped in the neighbourhood of Pleskow, where the Poles, presuming on the late treaty, received him as a friend and ally. But in the mean time the Muscovite priests of the Greek church preached to their hearers concerning the expediency of having a sovereign of their own religion; and brought them to such a height of enthusiasm, that they murdered their magistrates, and opened their gates to the czar, who made them all slaves, and sent them away to different parts, replacing them with Muscovites, the better to secure his conquest. Soon after he took also the city of Smolensko; and the Swedes alarmed at his rapid progress, desired a prolongation of the truce, at that time subsisting between the two states, for 60 years longer. The duchy of Lithuania was the great object of the designs of Basilowitz; and to accomplish his design, he ordered Iwan Czeladin, a man of great resolution, and enterprising even to rashness, to march thither with 80,000 men. The army of the Poles, which did not exceed 35,000 men, but was commanded by a most experienced general. The two armies met on the opposite banks of the Dneiper, near Orsova, and the Poles passed that river in sight of their enemies. Czeladin's officers advised him to fall upon the enemy when about half of them had crossed the river; but that general, too confident of success, replied, that the other half would then run away, and he was determined to gain a complete victory. The Lithuanians began the attack, but were repulsed by the Russians; who imprudently following them, lost an advantageous situation, and found themselves at once exposed to the full fire of the enemy's artillery. The Polish cavalry then rushed in among them sword in hand, and made dreadful havoc; the trembling Russians scarce even attempting to defend themselves. Those who endeavoured

22 He takes Pleskow and Smolenskow.

23 But is utterly defeated by the Poles.

Russia.

deavoured to fly, fell into the Dneiper and were drowned; and all the rest, including Czeladin himself, were made slaves.

24 Distress of Basilius.

Basilius was at Smolensko when he received the news of this dreadful defeat; on which he immediately fled to Moscow, where his danger increased daily. The Crim-Tartars ravaged his dominions, and the emperor Maximilian, with whom he had been in alliance, deserted him; his troops were utterly defeated in Livonia, where he was obliged to submit to a peace on dishonourable terms; but what these terms were, historians do not inform us of. In the mean time, the king of Poland stirred up the Tartars to invade Russia, while the Russian monarch in his turn endeavoured to excite them to an invasion of Poland. These barbarians, equally treacherous to both parties, first invaded and ravaged Podolia, a province of Poland; and then having invaded Russia and defeated the armies of the Czar in the year 1521, they poured in thither in such incredible multitudes, that they quickly made themselves masters of Moscow. An army, which had been sent to oppose their progress, was defeated near the river Occa; and the Czar's brother Andrew who commanded it, was the very first who fled. Basilius with great difficulty made his way to Novogrod; so terrified, that he hid himself by the way under a haycock, to avoid a straggling party of the enemy. The Tartars, however, soon obliged him to sign a writing, by which he acknowledged himself their vassal, and promised to pay them a tribute of so much a head for every one of his subjects. Besides this, Machmetgerei, the commander of the Tartars, caused his own statue to be set up at Moscow, as a mark of his sovereignty; compelled Basilius to return to his capital, to bring thither in person the first payment of this tribute, and, as a token of his submission, to prostrate himself before his statue. Machmetgerei then left Moscow, and returned home with an immense booty, and upwards of 80,000 prisoners, who were made slaves, and sold like cattle to the Turks and other enemies of the Christian name. In his way back he attempted to take the city of Rezan; but was repulsed with considerable loss by Iwan Kowen, who commanded in that place for the Russians. Here the Tartar general narrowly escaped with his life, his coat being shot thro' with a musket-ball; and the Muscovites pulled down his statue, and broke it to pieces as soon as the conquerors had left them.

25 Moscow taken by the Tartars.

The Tartars were no sooner gone, than Basilius began to talk in a high strain of the revenge he intended to take of them; but was never able to execute his threats. He died in 1533; and was succeeded by his son Iwan, or John Basiliowitz, an infant of five years of age.

26 Basilius dies, and is succeeded by his son, John Basiliowitz II.

During the minority of the young prince, his two uncles Andrew and George endeavoured to deprive him of the crown; but their attempts were defeated by the care and activity of his guardians; and the Poles also immediately commenced hostilities, but could make little progress. The new Czar, as soon as he entered the 19th year of his age, showed an inclination for rescuing his subjects out of that desperate state of ignorance and barbarism in which they had been hitherto immersed. He sent a splendid embassy to the emperor Charles V. who was then at Augsburg, to

Russia.

27 His embassy to Charles V.

desire the renewal of the treaty of friendship which had been concluded with his father Maximilian; and offering to enter into a league with him against the Turks, as enemies to the Christian religion; for his farther information in which, particularly in regard to the doctrine and ceremonies of the Latin church, he requested that his ambassador might be allowed to send from Germany to Russia proper priests to instruct him and his subjects. With these he likewise desired to have some wise and experienced statesmen, able to civilize the wild people under his government; and also, the better to help to polish them, he requested that he would send mechanics and artists of every kind; in return for all which he offered to furnish two tons of gold yearly, for 20 years together, to be employed in the war against the Turks. The emperor readily agreed to the desire of the Czar; and the Russian ambassador accordingly engaged upwards of 300 German artists, who were directed to repair to Lubec, in order to proceed from thence to Livonia. But the Lubeckers, who were very powerful at that time, and aimed at nothing less than the engrossing of the whole commerce of the north, stopped them, and represented strongly to the emperor, in the name of all the merchants in Livonia, the dangerous consequence of thus affording instructions to the Russians, who would soon avail themselves of it to ruin their trade, and distress the subjects of his Imperial majesty. The workmen and others intended for Russia, were easily prevailed upon to return to their respective homes; and the Czar's ambassador was arrested upon his arrival at Lubec, and imprisoned there at the suit of the Livonians: however, he made his escape shortly after; and the Czar, tho' provoked to the last degree at the behaviour of the Lubeckers, was obliged for some time to suspend his resentment.

28 The German artists prevented by the Lubeckers from going to Russia.

The first enterprize of Basilowitz now was against the Tartars of Casan, who had hitherto been such formidable enemies. In this he was attended with great success; the whole territory was conquered in seven years; but the capital, named also *Casan*, being well fortified and bravely defended, made such resistance as quite disheartened the besiegers, and made them think of abandoning their enterprize. Basilowitz being informed of this, hastened to them with a considerable reinforcement, endeavouring to revive their drooping courage, and exhorting them to push the siege with redoubled vigour. However, the greater part, deaf to all his remonstrances, after loudly insisting upon a peace with the Tartars, and leave to return home, proceeded to mutiny, and fell upon their comrades who were for continuing the war. Basilowitz, alarmed at this event, rushed in among the combatants, and with great difficulty parted them: but neither menaces nor intreaties, nor even a promise of giving them the whole plunder of the city if they took it, could prevail on them to continue the war. Their rage at last prompted them to threaten the life of their sovereign; who, to provide for his own safety, was obliged to make the best of his way to Moscow; and the mutineers, no longer regarding any command, instantly returned thither.

29 Casan conquered by Basilius.

Basilowitz, though justly incensed at this insolence, took a method of punishing it which does honour to his humanity. Having selected a guard of 2000 of his

30 His method of punishing a treachery.

Russia.

his best troops, he ordered a great feast, to which he invited his principal nobles and officers, to each of whom, according to the Russian custom, he gave very rich garments. The chief of the seditious were clothed in black velvet; and after the dinner was over, he made a speech to the whole company, setting forth the behaviour of his troops before Casan, their contempt of his commands, and their conspiracy to take away his life: to which he added, that he was doubly sorry to find the instigators of such wickedness among those who were styled, and who ought to be, his faithful counsellors; and that those who knew themselves to be guilty of such atrocious wickedness, could not do better than voluntarily to submit themselves to his mercy. Upon this, most of them immediately threw themselves at his feet, and implored his pardon. Some of the most criminal were executed, but the rest were only imprisoned.

Immediately after this punishment of the rebels, Basilowitz marched with a fresh army to re-invest Casan before the Tartars had time to recover themselves. The besieged still made an obstinate defence, and the Russians again began to be dispirited; upon which the Czar ordered his pioneers to undermine the walls of the citadel, a practice then quite unknown to the Tartars. This work being completed, he directed his priests to read a solemn mass to the whole army, at the head of which he afterwards spent some time in private prayer, and then ordered fire to be set to the powder, which acted so effectually, that great part of the foundation was immediately blown up, and the Muscovites rushing into the city, slaughtered all before them; while the astonished Tartars, crowding out at the opposite gate, crossed the river Casanka, and fled into the forests. Among the prisoners taken on this occasion were Simeon king of Casan with his queen; both of whom were sent to Moscow, where they were treated with the utmost civility and respect.

31 Astracan reduced.

Encouraged by this success, Basilowitz invaded the country of Astracan, the capital of which he soon reduced; after which he prepared to revenge himself on the Livonians for their behaviour in stopping the German artists. John Basilowitz I. had concluded a truce with this people for 50 years; which being now expired, Iodocus, a Reckarchbishop of Dorpt and canon of Munster in Westphalia, sensible of the danger to which he was exposed by the vicinity of the Russians, requested the Czar to give him a prolongation of the truce. Basilowitz desired him to choose whether he would have a truce for five years longer, on condition that all the inhabitants of his archbishopric should pay to him the annual tribute of a fifth part of a ducat for each person, which the people of Dorpt had formerly agreed to pay to the grand-dukes of Pleskow; or, for 20 years, on this farther condition that he and the Livonians should rebuild all the Russian churches which had been demolished in their territories at the time of the reformation, and allow his subjects the free exercise of their religion. Iodocus evaded an answer as long as he could: but finding at last that the affair grew serious, he levied a considerable sum from his subjects, and fled with it to Munster, where he resigned his prebend and married a wife. His successor, whose name was *Herman*, and the deputies from Livonia, accepted of the conditions, and swore to observe them; with this additional clause, that the priests of the Romish communion should be exempted from paying tribute.

32 Negociation with the Livonians.

But though the Livonians swore to the observation of these terms, they were at that very time in treaty with Gustavus Vasa, king of Sweden, to join them in attacking Russia. The king of Sweden very readily complied with their desires; upon which Basilowitz invaded Finland. Gustavus advanced against him with a powerful army; but as neither the Poles nor Livonians gave him any assistance, he was obliged to conclude a treaty with the Czar, and soon after to evacuate the country. Finland was at this time governed by William of Furstenberg grand-master of the Livonian knights, and the archbishop of Riga, with some other prelates; between whom a quarrel happened about this time, which soon facilitated the designs of Basilowitz on the country. The archbishop, after attempting to set himself above the grand-master even in civil affairs, and to persecute those who adhered to the confession of Augsburg, chose for his coadjutor in the archbishopric of Riga, Christopher duke of Mecklenburg. From the abilities and haughty temper of this lord, the Livonian knights apprehended that they had reason to fear the same fate which had befallen the Teutonic order in Prussia; and the step itself was, besides, unprecedented, and contrary to the established laws of the country. These discontents were heightened by letters said to be intercepted from the archbishop to his brother Albert duke of Prussia, inviting this last totally to suppress the order of Livonian knights, and to secularize their possessions, especially in Finland; so that an open war broke out among the contending parties, and the archbishop was seized and made prisoner. He was, however, soon released, through the mediation of the emperor of Germany and other potentates, backed by the powerful preparations of the Prussians to avenge his cause; but in the mean time, the strength of their country being totally exhausted, the Livonians were obliged, instead of preparing for war, to sue to the Czar for peace. Basilowitz replied, that he did not believe their intentions to be sincere while they kept 6000 Germans in pay; and therefore, if they meant to treat of peace, they must begin with dismissing these troops. The Livonians, having no longer any power to resist, did as they were ordered; but it availed them nothing. In 1558, an army of 100,000 Russians entered the district of Dorpt, and laid every thing waste before them with the most shocking cruelty. After this they entered the territories of Riga, where they behaved with equal inhumanity; and having at last satiated themselves with blood and treasure, they retired with an immense booty and a great number of prisoners.

33 Their treachery.

34 State of Finland.

35 Livonia ravaged by the Russians.

The Livonians, now thoroughly convinced of their own folly in exposing themselves to the resentment of the exasperated Russians, sent ambassadors to sue for peace in good earnest. These offered the Czar a present of 30,000 ducats, and prevailed upon him to grant their nation a truce for four months, during which they returned home to get the money. But in this interval the Livonian governor of the city of Nerva, out of an idle frolic, fired some cannon against Iwanogorod or Russian Nervt, situated on the opposite side of the river, and killed several of the Czar's subjects

36 The Livonians sue for peace, but the treaty is broke off.

Russia.

jects who were assembled in an open place quite unarmed. The Russians, out of regard to the truce, did not even attempt to make reprisals; but immediately acquainted Basilowitz with what had happened: which so incensed the Czar, that when the Livonian ambassadors arrived he told them, he looked upon their nation to be a set of perjured wretches, who had renounced all honesty; that they might go back with their money and proposals, and let their countrymen know that his vengeance would soon overtake them.

37 Livonia ravaged a second time.

The ambassadors were scarce arrived in Livonia, when an army of 300,000 Russians entered the district of Nerva, under the command of Peter Sifegaledrii, who had been a famous pirate in the Euxine sea. He took the city of Nerva in nine days, and very speedily made himself master of Dorpt, where he found immense treasures. Several other garrisons, terrified by the approach of such numbers, quitted their posts; so that the Russians became masters of a great part of Livonia almost without opposition. At last, Gothard Kettler, grand-master of the knights of Livonia, intreated Christian III. king of Denmark, to take Riga, Reval, and the countries of Garnland, Wirrland, and Esthonia, under his protection; but the advanced age of that monarch, the distance of the places, and the want of sufficient power to withstand so potent an adversary, made him decline the offer. However, he assisted them with some money and powder, of which they stood greatly in need. Having then applied, without success, first to the emperor of Germany, and then to the court of Sweden, Kettler put himself under the protection of the Poles, who had hitherto been such formidable enemies to the Russians. In the mean time the latter pursued their conquests; they took the city of Marienburg, laid waste the district of Riga, destroyed Garnland, and penetrated to the very gates of Reval. Felin, in which was the best artillery of the whole country, became theirs by the treachery of its garrison; and here William of Furstenberg the old grand-master was taken, and ended his days in a prison at Moscow. The distracted situation of the Livonian affairs now induced the bishop of Oesel to sell his bishopric to Ferdinand king of Denmark, who exchanged it with his brother Magnus for a part of Holstein. The districts of Reval and Esthonia put themselves under the protection of Sweden; and then

38 The order of Livonian Knights suppressed.

the grand-master, finding himself deserted on all sides, suppressed the order of which he was the chief, and accepted of the duchy of Courland, which he held as a fief of the crown of Poland.

The Czar saw with pleasure the division of Livonia between the Swedes and Poles, which, he rightly judged, would produce quarrels between the two nations, and thus give him the fairer opportunity of seizing the whole to himself. Accordingly, in 1564, the Swedes offered him their assistance against the Poles; but he, judging himself to be sufficiently strong without them, attacked the Poles with his own forces, and was twice defeated, which checked his farther operations in Livonia. In 1569, he entered into a

39 A treaty between Russia and England.

treaty of commerce with England, captain Richard Chancellor having a short time before discovered a passage to Archangel in Russia through the White Sea, by which that empire was likely to be supplied with foreign goods, without the assistance either of Poland or Livonia. To the discoverers of this new passage Basilowitz granted many exclusive privileges; and after the death of queen Mary, renewed the alliance with queen Elizabeth, and which has been continued without interruption ever since.

40 An army of Turks and Tartars cut off.

In the mean time, however, a prodigious army of Turks and Tartars entered Muscovy, with a design to subdue the whole country. But Zerebrinow, the Czar's general, having attacked them in a defile, put them to flight with considerable slaughter. Then they retired towards the mouth of the Wolga, where they expected a considerable reinforcement; but being closely pursued by the Russians and Tartars in alliance with them, they were again defeated and forced to fly towards Asoph on the Black Sea. But when they came there, they found the city almost entirely ruined by the blowing up of a powder magazine. The Russians then attacked their ships there, took some, and sunk the rest; by which means almost the whole army perished with hunger or the sword of the enemy.

From this time the empire of Russia became so formidable, that none of the neighbouring nations could hope to make a total conquest of it. The Poles and Swedes indeed continued to be very formidable enemies; and, by the instigation of the former, the Crim Tartars, in 1571, again invaded the country with an army of 70,000 men. The Russians, who might have prevented their passing the Wolga, retired before them till they came within 18 miles of the city of Moscow, where they were totally defeated. The Czar no sooner heard this news than he retired with his most valuable effects to a well-fortified cloyster; upon which the Tartars entered the city, plundered it, and set fire to several churches. A violent storm which happened at the same time, soon spread the flames all over the city; which was entirely reduced to ashes in six hours, though its circumference was upwards of 40 miles. The fire likewise communicated itself to a powder magazine at some distance from the city; by which accident upwards of 50 rods of the city wall, with all the buildings upon it, were destroyed; and, according to the best historians, upwards of 120,000 citizens were burnt or buried in the ruins, besides women, children, and foreigners. The cattle, however, which was strongly fortified, could not be taken; and the Tartars hearing that a formidable army was coming against them under the command of Magnus duke of Holstein, whom Basilowitz had made king of Livonia, thought proper to retire. The war, nevertheless, continued with the Poles and Swedes; and the Czar being defeated by the latter after some trifling success, was reduced to the necessity of suing for peace. But the negotiations being somehow or other broken off, the war was renewed with the greatest vigour. The Livonians, Poles, and Swedes, having united in a league together against the Russians, gained great advantages over them; and, in 1579, Stephen Battori, who was then raised to the throne of Poland, levied an army expressly with a design of invading Russia, and of regaining all that Poland had formerly claimed, which indeed was little less than the whole empire. As the Poles understood the art of war much better than the Russians, Basilowitz found his undisciplined multitudes unable to cope with the regular forces of his enemies: and their conquests were so rapid, that

41 Moscow taken and burnt by the Tartars.

42 War with Sweden and Poland.

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he was soon obliged to sue for peace: which, however, was not granted; and it is possible that the number of enemies which now attacked Russia might have overcome the empire entirely, had not the allies grown jealous of each other; the consequence of which was, that in 1582 a peace was concluded with the Poles, in which the Swedes were not comprehended. However, the Swedes finding themselves unable to effect any thing of moment after the desertion of their allies, were fain to conclude a truce; shortly after which the Czar having been worsted in an engagement with the Tartars, died in the year 1584.

43 Death of Basilius.

This great prince was succeeded by his son Theodore Iwanowitz; a man of such weak understanding, that he was totally unfit for government. Under him, therefore, the Russian affairs fell into confusion; and Boris Gudenow, a nobleman whose sister Theodore had married, found means to assume all the authority. At last, unable to bear even the name of a superior, he resolved to usurp the throne. For this purpose he caused the Czar's brother Demetrius, at that time only nine years of age, to be assassinated; and afterwards, knowing that no trust could be put in an assassin, he caused him also to be murdered left he should divulge the secret. In 1597, the Czar himself was taken ill and died, not without great suspicion of his being poisoned by Gudenow; of which indeed the Czarina was so well convinced, that she would never afterwards speak to her brother.

44 Extinction of the line of Ruric.

With Theodore ended the line of Ruric, who had governed the empire of Russia for upwards of 700 years. Boris, who in reality was possessed of all the power, and would indeed have suffered nobody else to reign, artfully pretended to be unwilling to accept the crown, till compelled to it by the intreaties of the people; and even then he put the acceptance of it on the issue of an expedition which he was about to undertake against the Tartars. The truth of the matter, however, was, that no Tartar army was in the field, nor had Boris any intention of invading that country; but by this pretence he assembled an army of 500,000 men, which he thought the most effectual method of securing himself in his new dignity. In 1600, he concluded a peace with the Poles, but resolved to continue the war against the Swedes; however, being disappointed in some of his attempts against that nation, he entered into an alliance with the Swedish monarch, and even proposed a match between the king's brother and his daughter. But while these things were in agitation, the city of Moscow was desolated by one of the most dreadful famines recorded in history. Thousands of people lay dead in the streets and highways, with their mouths full of hay, straw, or even the most filthy things which they had been attempting to eat. In many houses, the fattest person was killed in order to serve for food to the rest. Parents were said to have eaten their children and children their parents, or to have sold them to buy bread. One author (Petrius) says, that he himself saw a woman bite several pieces out of a child's arm as she was carrying it along; and captain Margaret relates, that four women having ordered a peasant to come to one of their houses, under pretence of paying him for some wood, killed and eat up both him and his horse. This dreadful calamity lasted three years, notwithstanding all the means which Boris could use to alleviate it; and in this time upwards of 500,000 people perished in the city.

45 Dreadful famine at Moscow.

In 1604 a young man appeared, who pretended to be Demetrius, whom Boris had caused to be murdered, as we have already seen. Being supported by the Poles, he proved very troublesome to Boris all his lifetime; and after his death deprived Theodore Borissowitz, the new czar, of the empire; after which he ascended the throne himself, and married a Polish princess. However, he held the empire but a short time, being killed in an insurrection of his subjects, and the unhappy czarina was sent prisoner to Jaroslaw.

After the death of Demetrius, Zuski, who had conspired against him, was chosen czar; but rebellions continually taking place, and the empire being perpetually harassed by the Poles and Swedes, in 1610, Zuski was deposed, and Uladislaus son of Sigismund king of Poland was elected. However, the Poles representing to Sigismund, that it would be more glorious for him to be the conqueror of Russia, than only the father of its sovereign, he carried on the war with such fury, that the Russians in despair fell upon the Poles who resided in great numbers at Moscow. The Poles being well armed and mostly soldiers, had greatly the advantage; however, they were on the point of being oppressed by numbers, when they fell upon the most cruel method of ensuring their success that could be devised. This was by setting fire to the city in several places; and while the distressed Russians ran to save their families, the Poles fell upon them sword in hand. In this confusion upwards of 100,000 people perished; but the event was, that the Poles were finally driven out, and lost all footing in Russia.

46 Uladislaus the king of Poland's son elected czar.

47 The Poles finally expelled.

The expulsion of the Poles was succeeded by the election of Theodorowitz Romanow, a young nobleman of 17 years of age, whose posterity still continue to enjoy the sovereignty. He died in 1646, and was succeeded by his son Alexis; whose reign was a continued scene of tumult and confusion, being harassed on all sides by external enemies, and having his empire perpetually disturbed by internal commotions. In 1676 he was succeeded by his son Theodore Alexowitz, who after an excellent reign, during the whole of which he exerted himself to the utmost for the good of his subjects, died in 1682, having appointed his brother Peter I. commonly called *Peter the Great*, his successor.

48 Accession of Peter the Great.

Theodore had another brother named *John*; but as he was subject to the falling-sickness, the czar had preferred Peter, though very young, to the succession. But through the intrigues of the princess Sophia, sister to Theodore, a strong party was formed in favour of John; and soon after both John and Peter were proclaimed sovereigns of Russia under the administration of Sophia herself, who was declared regent. However, this administration did not continue long; for the princess regent having conspired against Peter, and having the misfortune to be discovered, was confined for life in a convent. From this time also John continued to be only a nominal sovereign till his death, which happened in 1696, Peter continuing to engross all the power.

It is to this emperor that Russia is universally allowed to owe the whole of her present greatness.

The

Russia. The character of Peter himself seems to have been but very indifferent. Though he had been married in his eighteenth year to a young and beautiful princess, he was not sufficiently restrained by the solemn ties of wedlock; and he was besides so much addicted to feasting and drunkenness, the prevailing vice of his country, that nobody could have imagined him capable of effecting the reformation upon his subjects which he actually accomplished. The princess Sophia, whose interest it was to keep him as much as possible in ignorance, had impeded his education. However, in spite of all disadvantages, he applied himself to the military art and to civil government. He had also a very singular natural defect, which, had it not been conquered, would have rendered him for ever incapable of accomplishing what he afterwards did. This was a vehement dread of water; which is thus accounted for. When he was about five years of age, his mother went with him in a coach, in the spring-season; and passing over a dam where there was a considerable water-fall, whilst he lay asleep in her lap, he was so suddenly awaked and frightened by the rushing of the water, that it brought a fever upon him; and after his recovery, he retained such a dread of that element, that he could not bear to see any standing water, much less to hear a running stream. This aversion, however, he conquered by jumping into water; and afterwards became very fond of that element.

49 His character.

50 He removes the defects of his education.

Being ashamed of the ignorance in which he had been brought up, he learned almost of himself, and without a master, enough of the High and Low Dutch languages to speak and write intelligibly in both. He looked upon the Germans and Hollanders as the most civilized nations; because the former had already erected some of those arts and manufactures in Moscow, which he was desirous of spreading throughout his empire; and the latter excelled in the art of navigation, which he considered as more necessary than any other. During the administration of the princess Sophia, he had formed a design of establishing a maritime power in Russia; and for this purpose he took a model from an old English sloop, which with much difficulty he got repaired by a Dutch ship-builder residing at Moscow, which he first used as a pleasure-boat on a river, and afterwards caused to be removed to a large lake, on which he also caused two frigates and three yachts to be built, which he piloted himself. In 1694 he took a journey to Archangel, where he caused the Dutchman build him a small vessel, in which he embarked on the White Sea; which had never been visited by any Russian sovereign before. On this occasion he was escorted by a Dutch man of war, and attended by all the merchant-ships in the harbour of Archangel. He had already learned the method of working a ship; but, notwithstanding the eagerness with which courtiers generally imitate the example of their sovereigns, Peter himself was the only man in the court by whom this art was understood.

51 Forms a design of establishing a marine power.

52 His successful expedition against the Turks.

Having reformed his army and introduced new discipline among them, he led his troops against the Turks, from whom, in 1696, he took the fortress of Asoph, and had the satisfaction to see his fleet defeat that of the enemy. On his return to Moscow were struck the first medals which had ever appeared in Russia. The legend was, "PETER THE FIRST, *the august emperor of Russia*." On the reverse was AZOPH, with these words; *Victorious by sea and water*. Notwithstanding this success, however, Peter was very much chagrined at having his ships all built by foreigners; having besides as great an inclination to have an harbour on the Baltic, as on the Euxine Sea. These considerations determined him to send some of the young nobility of his empire into foreign countries, where they might improve. In 1697, he sent 60 young Russians into Italy; most of them to Venice, and the rest to Leghorn, in order to learn the method of constructing their galleys. Forty more were sent out by his direction for Holland, with an intent to instruct themselves in the art of building and working large ships: others were appointed for Germany, to serve in the land-forces, and to learn the military discipline of that nation. At last he resolved to travel through different countries in person, that he might have the opportunity of profiting by his own observation and experience. Accordingly, in the month of April 1697, he set out like a private person, in the retinue of three ambassadors, by the way of Great Novogorod. From thence they proceeded through Esthonia and Livonia. At Riga the czar desired to see the fortifications of the citadel: but the count D'Albert, the governor of Riga, not only refused his request, but seemed to make very light of the embassy; which provoked Peter so much, that he told him he hoped to see the day when he should be able to refuse the same request to the king of Sweden in person. From Livonia they travelled into Brandenburg Prussia; and having taken the road through Pomerania, arrived at Berlin: from whence one part took their route by Magdeburg, and the other by Hamburg; then they directed their course towards Minden, passed through Westphalia, and at last arrived by the way of Cleves at Amsterdam. The czar had reached this city 15 days before his ambassadors: he lodged at first in a house belonging to the East-India Company; but those afterwards a small apartment in the yards of the admiralty. He disguised himself in a Dutch skipper's habit, and went to the village of Sardam, where many more vessels were then built than at present. Here he admired the multitude of workmen constantly employed; the order and exactness they observed in their several departments; the prodigious dispatch with which they fitted out and built ships; and the incredible quantity of stores and machines, for the greater ease and security of labour. He began with purchasing a boat, and made a mast for it himself: by degrees he executed every part of the construction of a ship; and led the same life all the time as the carpenters of Sardam; clad and fed exactly like them; worked hard at the forges, rope-yards, and at the several mills for the sawing of timber, manufacturing paper, wire-drawing, &c. He entered himself as a common carpenter, and was enrolled among their workmen by the name of *Peter Michaeloff*. They commonly called him *Master Peter*, or *Peter Bas*; and though they were confounded at first to behold a sovereign their companion, yet they gradually accustomed themselves to the sight.

53 Sends some young noblemen into foreign countries.

54 And makes the tour of Europe himself.

55 Enters himself as a carpenter at Sardam.

Besides this, Peter frequently went from Sweden to Amsterdam, where he attended the lectures of the cele-

Ruſſia.

celebrated Ruyſch on anatomy. He alſo attended the lectures of burgomaſter Witſen on natural philoſophy. From this place he went for a few days to Utrecht, in order to pay a viſit to king William III. of England; and on his return ſent to Archangel a 60 gun ſhip, in the building of which he had aſſiſted with his own hands. In 1768 he went over to England, where he employed himſelf in the ſame manner as he had done in Holland. Here he perfected himſelf in the art of ſhip building; and having engaged a great number of artificers, he returned with them to Holland: from whence he ſet out for Vienna, where he paid a viſit to the emperor; and was on the point of ſetting out for Venice to finiſh his improvements, when he was informed of a rebellion having broken out in his dominions.—This was occaſioned by the ſuperſtition and obſtinacy of the Ruſſians, who having an almoſt invincible attachment to their old ignorance and barbariſm, had reſolved to dethrone the czar on account of his innovations. But Peter arriving unexpectedly at Moſcow, quickly put an end to their machinations, and took a moſt ſevere revenge of thoſe who had been guilty. Having then made great reformations in every part of his empire, in 1700 he entered into a league with the kings of Denmark and Poland againſt Charles XII. of Sweden. The particulars of this famous war are related under the article SWEDEN. Here we ſhall only obſerve, that from the concluſion of this war Sweden ceaſed not only to be a formidable enemy to Ruſſia, but even loſt its political conſequence in a great meaſure altogether.

56 Is obliged by a rebellion to return to his own dominions.

57 Hiſtory of Ruſſia ſince his time.

In 1725 this great monarch died; and was ſucceeded by his wife Catherine, who governed the empire with the greateſt wiſdom and prudence till her death, which happened in the year 1727. She was ſucceeded by Peter II. a minor, and who died in 1730. After his death the regular ſucceſſion was broken through, and the princeſs Anne Jwanouna, the ſecond daughter of John the brother of Peter the Great, was declared empereſs. She maintained the credit of the empire in as high a degree as any of her predeceſſors, ſettled Auguſtus III. on the throne of Poland, carried on a ſucceſsful war againſt the Turks, and totally broke the power of the Crim Tartars. The only error in her government was her confiding almoſt wholly in ſtrangers, and particularly Germans, with whom ſhe filled her councils and armies; which raiſed ſuch a ſpirit of jealouſy among the Ruſſians, that in 1741 a revolution took place in favour of Elizabeth Petrowna, the daughter of Peter the Great and the empreſs Catherine, who was crowned at Moſcow in 1742. The moſt remarkable tranſaction in her reign was her war with the king of Pruſſia, of which an account has already been given under the article PRUSSIA. When by her means this monarch had been reduced almoſt to the brink of deſtruction, he was ſuddenly freed by her death from ſuch a formidable enemy, and in her ſucceſſor Peter III found as warm a friend. This weak prince, however, puſhing his plans of reformation to too great a length, was depoſed by his wife Catherine II. the preſent empreſs; under whoſe reign a moſt ſucceſsful war has been carried on againſt the Turks, (ſee TURKEY;) ſo that now the empire of Ruſſia may be looked upon as ſuperior in power to any in Europe, though as yet far behind with regard to arts and civilization.

Ruſſia.

Muſcovy is in general a flat level country, except towards the north, where it is rough and mountainous. Foreſts abound every where throughout this empire. The plains are marſhy, or flooded with a great number of lakes, ſome of which extend above 40 leagues in length. The Ladoga and Onega, on the borders of Finland, are the largeſt in Europe. The other noted lakes are Brela-ozera, from whence a province derives its name; Iwanoſero-cargapol, which lends its name to another province; and Honent, in the neighbourhood of the Great Novogorod.

58 Deſcription of the country.

Muſcovy likewiſe boaſts a conſiderable number of large and famous rivers. The Oby, formed by the junction of the Tobal and the Irtis, in the 65th degree of northern latitude, runs northward into the Frozen Ocean, oppoſite to Nova Zembla, and is the boundary between Europe and Aſia. The Dwina takes its origin in Wologda, runs a northerly courſe, and falls into the White Sea below Archangel. The Wolga, or Volga, formerly known by the name of *Rha*, owes its origin to the lake Uranow, near the frontiers of Lithuania; directs its courſe ſouth-eaſterly thro' European Ruſſia, receiving in its route the rivers Mologo, Moſco, Kioma, Ocka, Samar, and above 30 more; then enters Aſiatic Ruſſia, and by ſeveral channels diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea, below Aſtracan: this is the largeſt and deepeſt river in Ruſſia. The Don, formerly called the *Tanais*, takes its riſe in the middle of Ruſſia, is ſwelled by the Weronetz, runs in a ſouth-eaſt direction to Kamiſinka; then winding to the ſouth-weſt, receives the Donets, and falls into the Palus Mœotis, or ſea of Azoph. The Nieper, formerly the Boriſthenes, riſes in the province of Moſcow, runs through Poland, re-enters Muſcovy, paſſes Kioſ, waters the Ukrain, and, after a ſoutherly courſe through Tartary, falls into the Euxine ſea at Oczakow. The Lower Dwina, riſing alſo in the province of Moſcow, runs through Poland, which it divides from Livonia, and diſcharges itſelf into the Baltic, below Riga. Some of theſe rivers run a ſurpriſing length of courſe; that of the Wolga exceeds 2000 miles: it waſhes the walls of near fourſcore towns, and ſupplies the country with prodigious quantities of ſturgeon, ſalmon, pikes, and other fiſhes of ſtupendous ſize and exquiſite delicacy. Along its banks are found trouſles, and wild aſparagus, of a moſt delicious taſte and flavour: here likewiſe grow the only oaks that are produced in Muſcovy. Tho' the length of the Don, or Tanais, which riſes in the province of Rezan, does not exceed 400 miles in a direct line from its ſource to the Palus Mœotis, in which it is loſt, it will be found to run above 1000, if traced in all its windings; in the courſe of which it is ſwelled by many rivers, waters many cities, and forms a great number of beautiful iſlands, in one of which is ſituated Tckercaſke, the metropolis of Circaſſia.

59 Climate, &c.

In ſuch a vaſt extent of country, ſtretching from the Temperate ſo far into the Frigid Zone, the climate muſt vary conſiderably in different places. In the ſouthern parts of Muſcovy the longeſt day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas in the moſt northern, the ſun in ſummer is ſeen two months above the horizon. The country in general, though lying under different climates, is exceſſively cold in the winter.

Russia.

ter. Towards the north, the country is covered near three quarters of the year with snow and ice; and by the severity of the cold, many unfortunate persons are maimed, or perish. This sort of weather commonly sets in about the latter end of August, and continues till the month of May; in which interval the rivers are frozen to the depth of four or five feet. Water thrown up into the air, will fall down in icicles; birds are frozen in their flight, and travellers in their sledges. In some provinces the heats of summer are as scorching as the winter colds are rigorous.

60 Soil and vegetable productions.

The soil of Muscovy varies still more than the climate, according to the influence of the sun and the situation of the country. The warmer provinces produce wheat, oats, barley, pease, and rye, together with a variety of herbs and fruits; and the vegetation is so quick, that corn is commonly reaped in two months after it begins to appear above the surface of the ground. The natives use no other manure than the snow; which is supposed to enrich the ground, and to cherish and shelter the grain that is sown immediately after harvest. The great variety of mushrooms produced spontaneously in Russia, may be considered as a comfortable relief to the poor, while they appear as delicacies at the tables of the rich. Above 1000 waggon-loads of them used to be sold annually in Moscow. Perhaps it is on account of the scarcity of provisions, that such a number of fasts are instituted in the Muscovite religion.

Besides the abovementioned productions, Muscovy yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, pasture for cattle, wax, and honey. Among other vegetables, we find in Russia a particular kind of rice called *pfyntha*, plenty of excellent melons, and in the neighbourhood of Astracan, the famous zoophyton, or animal-plant, which the Muscovites call *bonnaret*, or lambkin, from its resemblance to a lamb. [See the article *Scythian* Lamb.]

Agriculture in general was but little understood, and less prosecuted in this country, until it was improved under the encouragement and influence of that great patriot the czar Peter, who was indefatigable in executing his plans of reformation. The natural ignorance, sloth, and obstinacy of the people, together with the tyranny of the nobles, by whom they are miserably enslaved, were such obstructions to the improvement of husbandry, as nothing but his genius could have surmounted. The most considerable articles in the œconomy of a Russian farm are wax and honey, by which the peasant is often enriched. He cuts down a great number of trees in the forest, and sawing the trunks into a number of parts, bores each of these, and stops up the hollow at both ends, leaving only a little hole for the admittance of the bees; thus the honey is secured from all the attempts of the bear, who is extremely fond of it, and tries many different experiments for making himself master of the luscious treasure. Of this honey the Russians make a great quantity of strong metheglin, for their ordinary drink. They likewise extract from rye a spirit, which they prefer to brandy. Muscovy is very rich in mines of silver, lead, and iron, which are worked in different parts of the country, and yield a very considerable revenue to the sovereign.

61 Animals.

The wild beasts in the northern part of Russia are the same with those we have mentioned in the articles of Norway and Lapland: such as rein-deer, bears, foxes, ermins, martens, sables, hares, and squirrels. In the more southern provinces the Muscovites breed black cattle, small but hardy horses, sheep, goats, and camels. The breed of cattle and horses has been enlarged by the care and under the protection of Peter. The whole empire abounds with wild-fowl and game of all sorts, and a variety of birds of prey; besides the different kinds of poultry, which are raised in this as well as in other countries. The external parts and provinces of Muscovy are well supplied with sea-fish from the Northern Ocean, the Baltic, or gulph of Finland, the White Sea, the Black Sea, and the Caspian: but the whole empire is plentifully provided with fresh-water fish from the numerous lakes and rivers, yielding immense quantities of salmon, trout, pike, sturgeon, and belluga; the last being a large fish, of whose roe the best caviare is made. Innumerable insects, like those of Lapland, are hatched by the summer's heat in the sand, morasses, and forests, with which this empire abounds; and are so troublesome, as to render great part of the country altogether uninhabitable.

62 Inhabitants.

This vast empire is but thinly inhabited, in proportion to its extent; great part of it consisting of dreary wastes of sand, desart, forest, and morass. Many parts of it are possessed by people who are in all respects different from the native Muscovites. The kingdom of Siberia, including the province of Dauria, was originally peopled with Tartars, who lived in little hordes or tribes, under distinct governments, and shifted their habitations occasionally: but since the establishment of Russian colonies in these countries, they have learned to dwell in houses, to till the ground, and pay an annual tribute of furs to the czar or emperor. There are other Tartars, however, who still live in tents, leading a vagrant life, without acknowledging the czar's sovereignty. A large tract of land, between Nise Novogrod and Casan, on both sides of the river Volga, is occupied by the Zeremisses and Morduars, who live peaceably, employing themselves in agriculture, and pay taxes like the other subjects of Russia; but they never furnish recruits for the army. From Casan to the frontiers of Siberia, the country is inhabited by the Baskirs, a powerful nation, who have some villages, and enjoy certain privileges, of which they are very tenacious. The rest of this tract, as far as Astracan and the frontiers of the Usbecks, is frequented by the wandering Khalmucks, who remove with their tents, according to the season, for the convenience of subsistence. They receive annually from the czar presents of cloth, money, and arms; in return for which they are obliged to serve in his army without pay. This, however, is ill-saved: for they plunder friend and foe, without distinction; and are, on the whole, barbarous, brutal, and savagely cruel. The Cossacks are distinguished into three tribes, known by the places where they make their first settlements; though they are all of the same nation, speak the same language, profess the same religion, and live under the same form of government †. The Samoides and Laplanders are described in their proper places.

† See *Cossack*.

63 Character of the people.

The empire of Russia, including all these different nations, is not supposed to contain above seven millions of souls, the bulk of which number is composed by the native Russians. These are stigmatized by their neighbours as an ignorant brutal people, totally

resigned to sloth, and addicted to drunkenness, even in the most beastly excess: nay, they are accused of being arbitrary, perfidious, inhuman, and destitute of every social virtue. The severity of the country they inhabit, their want of letters, polity, and commercial intercourse, joined to the despotism of their government, and the tyranny of the grandees, may doubtless have an unhappy effect on the dispositions and morals of the people, which, however, have been meliorated and improved by the care, assiduity, and example of some of their late sovereigns. Certain it is, the vice of drunkenness was so universally prevalent among them, that Peter I. was obliged to restrain it by very severe edicts, which, however, have not produced much effect. They numbered in the city of Moscow no fewer than 4000 brandy-shops, in which the inhabitants used to sot away their time in drinking strong liquors and smoking tobacco. This last practice became so dangerous, among persons in the most beastly state of intoxication, that a very severe law was found necessary to prevent the pernicious consequences, otherwise the whole city might have been consumed by conflagrations. The nobility were heretofore very powerful, each commanding a great number of vassals, whom they ruled with the most despotic and barbarous authority: but their possessions have been gradually circumscribed, and their power transferred in a great measure to the czar, on whom they are now wholly dependant. At present there is no other degree of the nobility, but that of the boyars: these are admitted to the council, and from among them the waivodes, governors, and other great officers, are nominated. A Russian boyar is very proud of being corpulent, believing that nothing gives such a dignified air as does a broad face or portly belly. Their surnames are no other than patronimics: for example, the son of Alexis calls himself *Alexiowitz*. They formerly wore long beards, and long robes with strait sleeves dangling down to their ancles: their collars and shirts were generally wrought with silk of different colours: in lieu of hats, they covered their heads with furred caps; and, instead of shoes, wore red or yellow leathern buskins. The dress of the women nearly resembled that of the other sex; with this difference, that their garments were more loose, their caps fantastical, and their shift-sleeves three or four ells in length, gathered up in folds from the shoulder to the fore-arm. By this time, however, the French fashions prevail among the better sort throughout all Muscovy.

64 Manners and customs &c.

The common people are generally tall, healthy, and robust, patient of cold and hunger, inured to hardships, and remarkably capable of bearing the most sudden transition from the extremes of hot or cold weather. Nothing is more customary than to see a Russian, who is over-heated and sweating at every pore, strip himself naked, and plunge into a river; nay, when their pores are all opened in the hot bath, to which they have daily recourse, they either practise this immersion, or subject themselves to a discharge of some pailfuls of cold water. This is the custom of both men and women, who enter the baths promiscuously, and appear naked to each other, without scruple or hesitation.

A Russian will subsist for many days upon a little oatmeal and water, and even raw roots: an onion is a regale; but the food they generally use in their journeys is a kind of rye-bread, cut into small square pieces, and dried again in the oven: these, when they are hungry, they soak in water, and eat as a very comfortable repast. Both sexes are remarkably healthy and robust, and accustom themselves to sleep every day after dinner.

The Russian women are remarkably fair, comely, strong, and well-shaped, obedient to their lordly husbands, and patient under discipline: they are even said to be fond of correction, which they consider as an infallible mark of their husband's conjugal affection; and they pout and pine if it be with-held, as if they thought themselves treated with contempt and disregard. Of this neglect, however, they have very little cause to complain; the Russian husband being very well disposed, by nature and inebriation, to exert his arbitrary power. Some writers observe, that, on the wedding-day, the bride presents the bridegroom with a whip of her own making, in token of submission; and this he fails not to employ as the instrument of his authority. Very little ceremony is here used in match-making, which is the work of the parents. Perhaps the bridegroom never sees the woman until he is joined to her for life. The marriage being proposed and agreed to, the lady is examined, stark-naked, by a certain number of her female relations; and if they find any bodily defect, they endeavour to cure it by their own skill and experience. The bride, on her wedding-day, is crowned with a garland of wormwood, implying the bitterness that often attends the married state; when the priest has tied the nuptial knot at the altar, his clerk or sexton throws upon her head a handful of hops, wishing that she may prove as fruitful as the plant thus scattered. She is muffled up, and led home by a certain number of old women, the parish-priest carrying the cross before; while one of his subalterns, in a rough goat-skin, prays all the way that she may bear as many children as there are hairs on his garment. The new-married couple, being seated at table, are presented with bread and salt; and a chorus of boys and girls sing the epithalamium, which is always grossly obscene. This ceremony being performed, the bride and bridegroom are conducted to their own chamber by an old woman, who exhorts the wife to obey her husband, and retires. Then the bridegroom desires the lady to pull off one of his buskins, giving her to understand, that in one of them is contained a whip, and in the other a jewel or a purse of money. She takes her choice; and if she finds the purse, interprets it into a good omen; whereas should she light on the whip, she construes it into an unhappy presage, and instantly receives a lash, as a specimen of what she has to expect. After they have remained two hours together, they are interrupted by a deputation of old women, who come to search for the signs of her virginity: if these are apparent, the young lady ties up her hair, which before consummation hung loose over her shoulders, and visits her mother, of whom she demands the marriage-portion. It is generally agreed, that the Muscovite husbands are barbarous even to a proverb; they not only administer frequent and severe correction to their wives, but sometimes even torture them to death, without being subject to any punishment for the murder.

65 Of their marriages.

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Russia. The canon law of Muscovy forbids the conjugal commerce on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays; and whoever transgresses this law, must bathe himself before he enters the church-porch. He that marries a second wife, the first being alive, is not admitted farther than the church-door; and if any man espouses a third, he is excommunicated: so that though bigamy is tolerated, they nevertheless count it infamous. If a woman is barren, the husband generally persuades her to retire into a convent: if fair means will not succeed, he is at liberty to whip her into condescension. When the czar, or emperor, has an inclination for a wife, the most beautiful maidens of the empire are presented to him for his choice.

The education of the czarowitz, or prince royal, is intrusted to the care of a few persons, by whom he is strictly kept from the eyes of the vulgar, until he hath attained the 15th year of his age: then he is publicly exposed in the market-place, that the people, by viewing him attentively, may remember his person, in order to ascertain his identity; for they have more than once been deceived by impostors.

Such is the slavery in which the Muscovites of both sexes are kept by their parents, their patrons, and the emperor, that they are not allowed to dispute any match that may be provided for them by these directors, however disagreeable or odious it may be. Officers of the greatest rank in the army, both natives and foreigners, have been saddled with wives by the sovereign in this arbitrary manner. A great general some time ago deceased, who was a native of Britain, having been pressed by the late czarina to wed one of her ladies, saved himself from a very disagreeable marriage, by pretending his constitution was so unsound, that the lady would be irreparably injured by his compliance.

The Muscovites are fond of the bagpipe, and have a kind of violin, with a large belly like that of a lute: but their music is very barbarous and defective. Nevertheless, there are public schools, in which the children are regularly taught to sing. The very beggars ask alms in a whining cadence and ridiculous sort of recitative. A Russian ambassador at the Hague, having been regaled with the best concert of vocal and instrumental music that could be procured, was asked how he liked the entertainment; and replied, "Perfectly well: the beggars in my country sing just in the same manner." The warlike music of the Russians consists in kettle-drums and trumpets: they likewise use hunting horns; but they are not at all expert in the performance. The Muscovites think it is beneath them to dance; but they call in their Polish or Tartarian slaves to divert them with this exercise, in their hours of dissipation.

66 Languages. The Muscovites speak a dialect of the old Sclavonic, mixed with barbarisms from the Polish and other languages: but the pure Sclavonic is still retained in their bibles and homilies, and even spoken by those who affect to be thought men of letters. The Russians have adopted the Greek characters, which, however, they have corrupted and altered in the shape, and increased the letters to the number of 38. The whole empire was overwhelmed with the grossest ignorance: indeed, human learning was in so little request, that the nobility themselves were wholly illiterate; and even the clergy could hardly read their prayers. They had neither university nor school for the instruction of youth, until Peter, their great reformer, in some measure dispelled those clouds of ignorance, by inviting foreigners into his dominions, encouraging the liberal arts and sciences, obliging his nobles to send their sons to more civilized countries for their improvement, and instituting academies and seminaries in Moscow and Petersburg. These steps were so contrary to the natural disposition of the Muscovites, that no other prince could have taken them with any prospect of success. Nay, since the death of this great man, they seem returning to their old bigotry. Foreigners are discouraged at the court of Petersburg; a gaudy tinsel fop is substituted in the room of real grandeur and magnificence; little or no progress has been made in prosecuting the wise plans projected by the czar Peter; and perhaps the whole nation would relapse into its pristine barbarity, were it not for the great commerce with different nations which must necessarily be carried on at Petersburg, and other Russian ports in the Baltic.

67 Religion. The Russians were converted to the Christian religion towards the latter end of the tenth century, as has been already related. Since that period they have confessed the articles of the Greek church, mingled with certain superstitious ceremonies of their own. They do not believe in transubstantiation, purgatory, or the pope's infallibility or supremacy: they use auricular confession, communicate in both kinds, adopt the Athanasian creed, and adhere to the established liturgy of St Basil. They worship the Virgin Mary, and other saints; and pay their adorations to crosses and relics. They observe four great fasts in the year, during which they neither taste fish, flesh, nor any animal production: they will not drink after a man who has eaten flesh, nor use a knife that has cut meat in less than 24 hours after it has been used; nor will they, even though their health is at stake, touch any thing in which hartshorn or any animal substance has been infused. While this kind of Lent continues, they subsist upon cabbage, cucumbers, and rye-bread, drinking nothing stronger than a sort of small-beer called *quassi*. They likewise fast every Wednesday and Friday. Their common penance is to abstain from every species of food and drink, but bread, salt, cucumbers, and water. They are ordered to bend their bodies, and continue in that painful posture, and between whiles to strike their head against an image.

The Muscovites at all times reject as impure, horse-flesh, elk, veal, hare, rabbit, ass's milk, mare's milk, and Venice-treacle because the flesh of vipers is an ingredient; also every thing that contains even the smallest quantity of musk, civet, and castor: yet they have no aversion to swine's flesh; on the contrary, the country produces excellent bacon. They celebrate 15 grand festivals in the year. On Palm-sunday there is a magnificent procession, at which the czar assists in person and on foot. He is apparelled in cloth of gold: his train is borne up by the prime of the nobility, and he is attended by his whole court. He is immediately preceded by the officers of his household, one of whom carries his handkerchief on his arm, lying upon another of the richest embroidery. He halts at a fort of platform of free-stone, where, turning to the east, and bending

Russia. bending his body almost double, he pronounces a short prayer: then he proceeds to the church of Jerusalem, where he renews his devotion. This exercise being performed, he returns to his palace, the bridle of the patriarch's horse resting upon his arm. The horse's head being covered with white linen, is held by some nobleman; while the patriarch, sitting sidewise, and holding a cross in his hand, distributes benedictions as he moves along: on his head he wears a cap edged with ermin, adorned with loops and buttons of gold and precious stones: before him are displayed banners of consecrated stuff, in a variety of colours. Above 500 priests walk in the procession; those who are near the patriarch bearing pictures of the Virgin Mary, richly ornamented with gold, jewels, and pearls, together with crosses, relics, and religious books, including a copy of the Gospels, which they reckon to be of inestimable value. In the midst of this procession is borne a triumphal arch; and on the top an apple-tree covered with fruit, which several little boys inclosed in the machine endeavour to gather. The lawyers and laity carry branches of willow; the guards and the spectators prostrate themselves on the ground while the procession halts; and after the ceremony, the patriarch presents a purse of 100 rubles to the czar, who perhaps invites him to dine at his table. During the season of Easter the whole empire is filled with mirth and rejoicing: which, however, never fails to degenerate into heat and debauchery; even the ladies may indulge themselves with strong liquors to intoxication, without scandal. When a lady sends to inquire concerning the health of her guests whom she entertained over-night, the usual reply is, "I thank your mistress for her good cheer: by my troth, I was so merry that I don't remember how I got home."

During these carnivals a great number of people, in reeling home drunk, fall down and perish among the snow. It is even dangerous to relieve a person thus overtaken; for, should he die, the person who endeavoured to assist him is called before the judge, and generally pays dear for his charity.

The Muscovite priests use exorcisms at the administration of baptism. They plunge the child three times over head and ears in water, and give it the sacrament of the Lord's Supper in one species, until it hath attained the age of seven; after which the child is indulged with it in both kinds. They likewise administer the sacrament to dying persons, together with extreme unction; and if this be neglected, the body is denied Christian burial. Soon as the person expires, the body is deposited in a coffin, with a lunchion of bread, a pair of shoes, some few pieces of money, and a certificate signed by the parish-priest, and directed to St Nicholas, who is one of their great patrons. They likewise hold St Andrew in great veneration, and ridiculously pretend they were converted by him to Christianity. But next to St Nicholas, they adore St Anthony of Padua, who is supposed to have sailed upon a mill-stone through the Mediterranean and Atlantic, and over the lakes Ladoga and Onega, as far as Novogrod. Every house is furnished with an image of St Nicholas, carved in the most rude and fantastic manner; and when it becomes old and worm-eaten, the owner either throws it into the river with a few pieces of coin, saying, "Adieu, brother;" or returns it to the maker, who accommodates him with a new image for a proper consideration. The good women are very careful in adorning their private St Nicholases with rich cloaths and jewels; but on any emergency, these are refused, and the saint left as naked as he came from the hand of the carpenter. Russia.

There are monasteries in Russia; but neither the monks nor the nuns are subject to severe restrictions. The friars are either horse-jockeys, or trade in hops, wheat, and other commodities; the sisters are at liberty to go abroad when they please, and indulge themselves in all manner of freedoms.

Heretofore liberty of conscience was denied, and every convicted heretic was committed to the flames; but since the reign of Peter, all religions and sects are tolerated throughout the empire. Roman Catholics, Lutherans, Calvinists, Armenians, Jews, and Mahometans, enjoy the free exercise of their respective forms of worship: though it was not without great difficulty, and by dint of extraordinary solicitation from different powers, that the Romish religion was allowed. Peter knowing the dangerous tenets of a religion that might set the spiritual power of the pope at variance with the temporal power of the emperor, and being well acquainted with the meddling genius of its professors, held out for some time against the intercession of Germany, France, and Poland; and though at length he yielded to their joint interposition, he would by no means suffer any Jesuit to enter his dominions.

68 Government.

The government of Russia is mere despotism. The whole empire is ruled by the arbitrary will and pleasure of the sovereign, who is styled the *czar*, a title which is probably a corruption of Cæsar. Heretofore he was styled *grand duke of Muscovy:* but since the reign of Peter, he is dignified with the appellation of *emperor of Russia*. He is absolute lord, not only of all the estates in the empire, but also of the lives of his subjects: the greatest noblemen call themselves his *slaves*, and execute his commands with the most implicit obedience. The common people revere him as something supernatural: they never mention his name, or any thing immediately belonging to him, without marks of the most profound respect and awful veneration. A man asking a carpenter at work upon one of the czar's warehouses, what the place was intended for, answered, "None but God and the czar knows."

The nobility of Russia were formerly rich and powerful, and ruled despotically over their inferiors: but their wealth and influence are now swallowed up by the importance and authority of the crown, and they are become venal dependants on the government. The czar appoints waivodes, or governors of provinces; and bestows all offices of consequence, whether ecclesiastical, civil, or military. In a word, he is vested with the whole legislative and executive power, and all his subjects are slaves existing at his will.

The people of Russia are distinguished into three degrees; namely, the nobility, called *knez*, or *kneas;* the gentry, known by the name of *duorminis;* and the peasants. The knez, or dukes, were anciently the palatines of Russia, who exercised supreme power, each in his own territory, as an independent prince; but all of them either submitted, or were subdued by the princes of Voldomir, who translated their residence to Moscow, and assumed the title of *weliki kneas*, or "great dukes."

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Ruſſia. The deſcendants of theſe noblemen ſtill retain their appellation, though many of them are reduced to the moſt abject poverty and contempt. In the beginning of this century above 300 knez ſerved as common troopers in the regiment of dragoons commanded by prince Menzikoff. The czar Peter introduced the titles of *count* and *prince of the empire*, and inſtituted an order of knighthood in honour of St Andrew, diſtinguiſhed by a blue ribbon and ſtar, in imitation of the garter. The dourmins are country gentlemen, who generally hold their lands by knight's ſervice; and in time of war are obliged to appear in arms on horſeback. Thoſe are the moſt happy who live at the greateſt diſtance from court; becauſe they may enjoy their eſtates unknown and unmoleſted. In general, they are extremely inſolent and oppreſſive to the peaſants, and meanly ſubmiſſive to the nobility.

All the peaſants in the empire are conſidered as immediate ſlaves belonging to the czar, to the boyars, or to the monaſteries. The value of eſtates is computed, not by the extent or quality of the land, but from the number of thoſe peaſants, who may be ſold, alienated, or given away, at the pleaſure of their maſters. The number of theſe huſbandmen, whether living in villages or in the open country, being known, the czar, by requiring a certain proportion of each lord or proprietor, can raiſe 300,000 men in leſs than 40 days.

The adminiſtration is managed by a grand council, called *dumnoy boyaren*, or "council of the boyars," who are the grandees of the empire, and act as privy-counſellors. To this are ſubſervient ſix inferior chambers and courts of judicature, provided each with a preſident. The firſt regulates every thing relating to ambaſſadors and foreign negociations; the ſecond takes cognizance of military affairs; the third manages the public revenues of the empire; the buſineſs of the fourth is to encourage, protect, and improve trade and commerce. The two laſt hear and determine in all cauſes, whether civil or criminal.

Peter divided the empire into the eight governments of Moſco, Archangel, Aſoph, Caſan, Aſtracan, Chioff and the Ukraine, Siberia, Livonia, comprehending Ingria, Pleſcow, and Novogrod, Smolenſko, and Veroniiz. The governors or waivodes were veſted with power to diſpoſe of all employments civil and military, and receive the revenues. They were directed to defray all expences in their reſpective governments, and ſend a certain yearly ſum to the great treaſury. In a word, they enjoyed abſolute power in every thing but what related to the regular troops, which, though quartered in their juriſdiction, were neither paid nor directed by them, but received their orders immediately from the czar or his generals.

The deciſion of cauſes heretofore depended upon the opinion and equity of the judge; but about the middle of the laſt century, a code of laws was compiled in one volume, intitled, *ſabrona uloſcinia*, ſignifying univerſal law; and according to this the ſentences are now regulated.

Beſides theſe tribunals, there is an inferior court of judicature or proceſs eſtabliſhed in every province, having a preſident, chancellor, and ſecretary or diack. The law-ſuits are neither tedious nor expenſive, as all the proceedings are ſummary: but the judge is very ſeldom incorruptible; and unleſs he is tampered with beforehand, the plaintiff generally obtains the ſentence in his favour.

Few crimes are capital in Ruſſia: murder may be atoned by paying a ſum of money; nay, the civil magiſtrate takes no cognizance of murder, without having previouſly received information at the ſuit of ſome individuals.

Criminals were puniſhed with torture and the moſt cruel deaths, till the reign of the illuſtrious Catherine I. when a more merciful ſyſtem took place, and which the preſent empreſs has ſince confirmed by law. See the articles CATHERINE I. *of Ruſſia*, and ELIZABETH *Petrowna*.

69 Trade and commerce.

The Ruſſians drive a conſiderable traffic with different nations, both of Aſia and Europe. One of the moſt conſiderable articles is the iron manufacture, in its different branches of caſt cannon, mortars, bombs, anchors, and ſmall arms. They have likewiſe at Peterſburg large magazines of naval ſtores, leather, tallow, and pot-aſhes. The ſouthern parts furniſh great quantities of caviar; the north-eaſtern provinces ſupply plenty of ſpermaceti, ſea-horſes teeth, iſinglaſs, and train-oil; and Ruſſia produces an infinite number of the beſt furs in the world, together with abundance of honey, caſtor, rhubarb, and ſome other drugs. At the port of Peterſburg 1000 ſhips are loaded yearly by foreigners, with the commodities produced in the northern part of this great empire. But the Muſcovites likewiſe carry on a conſiderable commerce by land with China and the Eaſt Indies, for gold, ſilk, tea, and porcelaine. The court monopolizes this trade, and imports theſe commodities by caravans of camels. With reſpect to the revenue of Ruſſia, it continually fluctuates, according to the increaſe of commerce or the pleaſure of the czar, who has all the wealth of the empire at his diſpoſal. He monopolizes all the beſt furs, the mines, minerals, and trade by land to the Eaſt Indies; he farms out all the tobacco, wine, brandy, beer, mead, and other liquors; the inns, taverns, public houſes, bath, and ſweating-houſes. The cuſtoms upon merchandize, the impoſts upon corn, and toll exacted from cities, towns, and villages, are very conſiderable. He poſſeſſes demeſnes to a very great value; inherits the effects of all thoſe that die inteſtate, or under accuſation of capital crimes; derives a duty from all law-ſuits; and to ſum up the whole, can command the fortunes of all his ſubjects. All theſe articles added together, are ſaid to produce about 3,000,000 ſterling: but then the intrinſic value of money is at leaſt three times greater in Muſcovy than in Britain. The czar Peter ſeized the lands of the church, and annexed them to his own demeſnes; but the greater part was reſtored in the ſequel. As for the lands belonging to the dignity and office of patriarch, they were diſtributed among the monaſteries and nobility.

70 Military force, &c.

The ſtanding army of Ruſſia in computed at 250,000 men; beſides theſe, the Ruſſians can aſſemble a body of 40,000 irregulars, Calmucks, Coſſacks, and other Tartars, who live under their dominion. But the number may be doubled on any emergency. The czarina has likewiſe a conſiderable fleet in the Baltic, and a great number of formidable galleys, frigates, fire-ſhips, and bomb ketches.

RUST, the flower, or calx of any metal, procured by corroding and diſſolving its ſuperficial parts by

by some menstruum. Water is the great instrument or agent in producing rust: and hence oils, and other fatty bodies, secure metals from rust; water being no menstruum for oil, and therefore not able to make its way through it. All metals except gold are liable to rust; and even this also if exposed to the fumes of sea-salt.

RUSTIC, in architecture, implies a manner of building in imitation of nature, rather than according to the rules of art. See ARCHITECTURE.

RUSTIC *Work*, is where the stones in the face, &c. of a building, instead of being smooth, are hatched, or picked with the point of a hammer.

RUSTIC *Order*, that decorated with rustic quoins, rustic work, &c.

RUSTRE, in heraldry, a bearing of a diamond-shape, pierced through in the middle with a round hole. See HERALDRY.

RUT, in hunting, the venery or copulation of deer.

RUTA, RUE; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the decandria class of plants. There are several species; of which the most remarkable is the hortensis, or common broad-leaved garden rue, which has been long cultivated for medicinal use. This rises with a shrubby stalk to the height of five or six feet, sending out branches on every side, garnished with decompounded leaves, whose small lobes are wedge-shaped, of a grey colour, and have a strong odour. The flowers are produced at the end of the branches, in bunches almost in the form of umbels; they are composed of four yellow concave petals which are cut on their edges, and eight yellow stamina which are longer than the petals, terminated by roundish summits. The germen becomes a roundish capsule, with four lobes punched full of holes containing rough black seeds.

Rue has a strong ungrateful smell, and a bitterish penetrating taste; the leaves, when full of vigour, are extremely acid, insomuch as to inflame and blister the skin, if much handled. With regard to their medicinal virtues, they are powerfully stimulating, attenuating, and detergent; and hence, in cold phlegmatic habits, they quicken the circulation, dissolve tenacious juices, open obstructions of the excretory glands, and promote the fluid secretions. The writers on the materia medica in general, have entertained a very high opinion of the virtues of this plant. Boerhaave is full of its praises; particularly of the essential oil, and the distilled water cohobated or re-distilled several times from fresh parcels of the herb: after extravagantly commending other waters prepared in this manner, he adds, with regard to that of rue, that the greatest commendations he can bestow upon it fall short of its merit: "What medicine (says he) can be more efficacious for promoting sweat and perspiration, for the cure of the hysteric passion, and of epilepsies, and for expelling poison?" Whatever service rue may be of in the two last cases, it undoubtedly has its use in the others: the cohobated water, however, is not the most efficacious preparation of it. An extract made by rectified spirit, contains in a small compass the whole virtues of the rue; this menstruum taking up by infusion all the pungency and flavour of the plant, and elevating nothing in distillation. With water, its peculiar flavour and warmth arise; the bitterness, and a considerable share of the pungency, remaining behind.

BOOK *of* RUTH, a canonical book of the Old Testament; being a kind of appendix to the book of Judges, and an introduction to those of Samuel; and having its title from the person whose story is here principally related. In this story are observable the ancient rights of kindred and redemption; and the manner of buying the inheritance of the deceased, with other particulars of great note and antiquity.

RUTLANDSHIRE, is the least county in England, it being but 40 miles in circumference; in which are 2 towns, 48 parishes, and 3263 houses. However, for quality it may be compared with any other county; the air being good, and the soil fertile both for tillage and pastures; and it not only affords plenty of corn, but feeds a great number of horned cattle and sheep. It is well watered with brooks and rivulets, and the principal rivers are the Weland and the Wash. It is bounded on the east by Lincolnshire; on the south by the river Weland, which parts its from Northamptonshire; and on the west and north by Leicestershire. It has only two market-towns; namely, Okeham, where the assizes and sessions are held, and Uppingham.

RUYSCH (Frederic), son of Henry Ruysch commissary of the States-general, was born in 1638, and proved one of the greatest anatomists that ever appeared in Holland. He studied at Leyden and at Franeker, where he took his degree as doctor of physic, and settled at the Hague. A piece which he published in 1665, *De vasis lymphaticis & lacteis*, procured him an invitation to be professor of anatomy at Amsterdam; which he gladly accepted, and where he was continually employed in dissections, to examine every part of the human body with the most scrupulous exactness. He died in 1731, after having writ several books, in which he published many discoveries, yet not so many as he himself from his confined reading imagined.

RUYTER (Michael Adrian), lieutenant-admiral of the United Provinces, was born at Flushing in 1607, and was the son of a burgher of that city. He frequented the sea from his being 11 years of age; and was successively a sailor, mate, captain of a vessel, commodore, rear-admiral, vice-admiral, and at length lieutenant-admiral-general, which is the highest dignity to which he could be raised, since that of admiral belongs only to the governor of Holland. He succoured the Portuguese against the Spaniards; acquired great glory before Sallé; engaged several times with the English; took many Turkish vessels, with the famous renegado Amand de Dias, whom he caused to be hanged in 1655. In 1659, he sailed to the assistance of the king of Denmark against the Swedes, and gave proofs of uncommon bravery in the island of Funen. In 1661, he humbled the Algerine corsairs; took a great number of vessels in 1665; and obtained a remarkable victory over the English in 1666. These brave exploits occasioned his being the same year chosen lieutenant-admiral-general; and he continued to distinguish himself till the year 1676, when he was mortally wounded by a cannon-ball, in an engagement with the French, before the town of Augusta in Sicily, and died of his wounds a few days after. His body was carried to Amsterdam, where the States General erected a magnificent monument to his memory.

RYE, in botany. See SECALE.

Rye || Saavedra.

RYE, a town in Suſſex, with two markets, on Wedneſdays and Saturdays, but no fair. It is one of the cinque-ports; is a handſome well-built place, governed by a mayor and jurats; and ſends two members to parliament. It has a church built with ſtone, and a town-hall; and conſiſts of three ſtreets, paved with ſtone. One ſide of the town has been walled in, and the other is guarded by the ſea. It has two gates, and is a place of conſiderable trade in the ſhipping way. From thence large quantities of corn are exported, and many of the inhabitants are fiſhermen. It is 34 miles ſouth-eaſt by ſouth of Tunbridge, and 64 on the ſame point from London. The mouth of the harbour is of late choaked up with ſand; but, if well opened, it would be a good ſtation for privateers that cruize againſt the French. E. Long. 0. 50. N. Lat. 51. 0.

RYNCHOPS, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of anſeres. The breaſt is ſtrait; and the ſuperior mandible much ſhorter than the inferior, which is truncated at the point. The ſpecies are two, viz. the nigra and fulva, both natives of America.

RYMER (Thomas), Eſq; was born in the north of England, and educated at the univerſity of Cambridge. On his ſettling in London, he became a member of the Society of Gray's-Inn; and, in 1692, ſucceeded Mr Shadwell as hiſtoriographer to king William III. He was a man of great learning, and a lover of poetry: but, when he ſets up for a critic, ſeems to prove that he has very few of the requiſites for that character; and was indeed almoſt totally diſqualified for it, by his want of candour. The ſeverity which he has exerted, in his View of the Tragedies of the laſt Age, againſt the inimitable Shakeſpeare, are ſcarcely to be forgiven. Mr Rymer was, however, a very excellent antiquarian and hiſtorian. Some of his pieces relating to our conſtitution are extremely good; and his well-known, valuable, and moſt uſeful work, intitled the *Fœdera*, printed in 17 vols folio, will ſtand an everlaſting monument of his worth, his indefatigable aſſiduity, and clearneſs of judgment as an hiſtorical compiler. He died in 1713.

Ryſwick, Saavedra.

RYSWICK, a large village in Holland, ſeated between the Hague and Delft, where the prince of Orange has a palace; and is remarkable for a treaty concluded here in 1697, between England, Germany, Holland, France, and Spain. E. Long. 4. 20. N. Lat. 52. 8.

S.

S, ſ, or s, the 18th letter and 14th conſonant of our alphabet; the ſound of which is formed by driving the breath through a narrow paſſage between the palate and the tongue elevated near it, together with a motion of the lower jaw and teeth towards the upper, the lips being a little way open; with ſuch a configuration of every part of the mouth and larynx, as renders the voice ſomewhat ſibulous and hiſſing. Its ſound however varies; being ſtrong in ſome words, as *this*, *thus*, &c. and ſoft in words which have a final *e*, as *muſe*, *wiſe*, &c. It is generally doubled at the end of words, whereby they become hard and harſh, as in *kiſs*, *loſs*, &c. In ſome words it is ſilent, as *iſle*, *iſland*, *viſcount*, &c. In writing or printing, the long character ſ, is uſed at the beginning and middle of words, but the ſhort s, at the end.

In abbreviations, S ſtands for *ſocietas* or *ſocius*; as, R. S. S. for *regiæ ſocietatis ſocius*, i. e. fellow of the royal ſociety. In medicinal preſcriptions, S. A. ſignifies *ſecundum artem*, i. e. according to the rules of art: And in the notes of the ancients, S ſtands for *Sextus*; S.P. for *Spurius*; S.C. for *ſenatus conſultum*; S. P. Q. R. for *ſenatus populuſque Romanus*; S. S. S. for *ſtratum ſuper ſtratum*, i. e. one layer above another alternately; S. V. B. E. E. Q. V. for *ſi vales bene eſt, ego quoque valeo*, a form uſed in Cicero's time, in the beginning of letters. Uſed as a numeral, S anciently denoted ſeven; in the Italian muſic, S ſignifies *ſolo*: And in books of navigation, S. ſtands for ſouth; S. E. for ſouth-eaſt; S W. for ſouth-weſt; S. S. E. for ſouth ſouth-eaſt; S. S. W. for ſouth ſouth-weſt, &c.

SAAVEDRA (Michael de Cervantes), a celebrated Spaniſh writer, and the inimitable author of Don Quixote, was born at Madrid in the year 1549. From his infancy he was fond of books; but he applied himſelf wholly to books of entertainment, ſuch as novels and poetry of all kinds, eſpecially Spaniſh and Italian authors. From Spain he went to Italy, either to ſerve cardinal Aquaviva, to whom he was chamberlain at Rome; or elſe to follow the profeſſion of a ſoldier, as he did ſome years under the victorious banners of Marco Antonio Colonna. He was preſent at the battle of Lepanto, fought in the year 1571; in which he either loſt his left-hand by the ſhot of an harquebus, or had it ſo maimed that he loſt the uſe of it. After this he was taken by the Moors, and carried to Algiers, where he continued a captive five years and a half. Then he returned to Spain, and applied himſelf to the writing of comedies and tragedies; and he compoſed ſeveral, all of which were well received by the public, and acted with great applauſe. In the year 1584, he publiſhed his Galatea, a novel in ſix books; which he preſented to Aſcanio Colonna, a man of high rank in the church, as the firſt-fruits of his wit. But the work which has done him the greateſt honour, and will immortalize his name, is the hiſtory of Don Quixote; the firſt part of which was printed at Madrid in the year 1605. This is a ſatire upon books of knight-errantry; and the principal, if not the ſole, end of it was to deſtroy the reputation of theſe books, which had ſo infatuated the greater part of mankind, eſpecially thoſe of the Spaniſh nation. This work was univerſally read; and the moſt eminent painters, tapeſtry-workers, engravers, and ſculptors, have been employed in repreſenting the hiſtory of Don Quixote. Cervantes, even in his lifetime, obtained the glory of having his work receive a royal approbation. As king Philip the Third was ſtanding in a balcony of his palace at Madrid, and viewing the country, he obſerved a ſtudent on the

Saavedra, Sabæans.

banks of the river Manzanares reading in a book, and from time to time breaking off and beating his forehead with extraordinary tokens of pleasure and delight; upon which the king said to those about him, "That scholar is either mad, or reading Don Quixote:" the latter of which proved to be the case. But *virtus laudatur et alget:* notwithstanding the vast applause his book every-where met with, he had not interest enough to procure a small pension, but had much ado to keep himself from starving. In the year 1615, he published a second part; to which he was partly moved by the presumption of some scribbler, who had published a continuation of this work the year before. He wrote also several novels; and among the rest, "The Troubles of Persiles and Sigismunda." He had employed many years in writing this novel, and finished it but just before his death; for he did not live to see it published. His sickness was of such a nature, that he himself was able to be, and actually was, his own historian. At the end of the preface to the Troubles of Persiles and Sigismunda, he represents himself on horseback upon the road; and a student overtaking him, entered into conversation with him: "And happening to talk of my illness, (says he), the student soon let me know my doom, by saying it was a dropsy I had got, the thirst attending which, all the water of the ocean, though it were not salt, would not suffice to quench. Therefore Senor Cervantes, says he, you must drink nothing at all, but do not forget to eat; for this alone will recover you without any other physic. I have been told the same by others, answered I; but I can no more forbear tippling, than if I were born to do nothing else. My life is drawing to an end; and from the daily journal of my pulse, I shall have finished my course by next sunday at the fartherst.—But adieu, my merry friends all, for I am going to die; and I hope to see you ere long in the other world, as happy as heart can wish." His dropsy increased, and at last proved fatal to him; yet he continued to say and to write bons mots. He received the last sacrament on the 18th of April 1616; yet the day after wrote a Dedication of the Troubles of Persiles and Sigismunda, to the Condé de Lemos. The particular day of his death is not known.

SABÆANS, in church-history, a sect of idolaters much more ancient than the Jewish law.

In the early ages of the world, idolatry was divided between two sects; the worshippers of images, called *Sabæans* or *Sabians*; and the worshippers of fire, called *Magi*. See MAGI.

The Sabæans began with worshipping the heavenly bodies, which they fancied were animated by inferior deities. In the consecration of their images, they used many incantations to draw down into them from the stars those intelligences for whom they erected them, whose power and influence they held afterwards dwelt in them. This religion, it is said, first began among the Chaldæans, with their knowledge in astronomy: and from this it was that Abraham separated himself, when he came out of Chaldæa. From the Chaldæans it spread all over the east; and from thence to the Grecians, who propagated it to all the nations of the world. The remainder of this sect still subsists in the east, and pretend to derive their name from Sabius a son of Seth; and among the books in which the doctrines of this sect are contained, they have one which they call *the book of Seth*, and which they pretend was written by that patriarch.

Sabbath.

SABBATH, or the day of rest, a solemn festival of the Jews, on the seventh day of the week, or Saturday, beginning from sun-set on Friday to sun-set on Saturday.

The observation of the Sabbath began with the world: for God having employed six days in its creation, appointed the seventh as a day of rest to be observed by man, in commemoration of that great event. On this day the Jews were commanded to abstain from all labour, and to give rest to their cattle. They were not allowed to go out of the city farther than two thousand cubits, or a mile; a custom which was founded on the distance of the ark from the tents of the Israelites, in the wilderness, after their leaving Egypt; for being permitted to go, even on the Sabbath-day, to the tabernacle to pray, they from thence inferred, that the taking a journey of no greater length, though on a different account, could not be a breach of the sabbatical rest.

As the seventh day was a day of rest to the people, so was the seventh year to the land: it being unlawful in this year to plough or sow, and whatever the earth produced belonged to the poor; this was called the *sabbatical year*. The Jews, therefore, were obliged, during the six years, and more especially the last, to lay up a sufficient store for the sabbatical year.

The modern as well as the ancient Jews are very superstitious in the observance of the Sabbath: they carry neither arms, nor gold, nor silver, about them, and are permitted neither to touch these, nor a candle, nor any thing belonging to the fire; on which account they light up lamps on Friday, which burn till the end of the Sabbath.

Christian SABBATH. See SUNDAY.

SABBATH-*Breaking*, or profanation of the Lord's day, is punished by the municipal laws of England. For, besides the notorious indecency and scandal of permitting any secular business to be publicly transacted on that day in a country professing Christianity, and the corruption of morals which usually follows its profanation, the keeping one day in seven holy, as a time of relaxation and refreshment, as well as for public worship, is of admirable service to a state, considered merely as a civil institution. It humanizes, by the help of conversation and society, the manners of the lower classes; which would otherwise degenerate into a sordid ferocity and savage selfishness of spirit: it enables the industrious workman to pursue his occupation in the ensuing week with health and cheerfulness: it imprints on the minds of the people that sense of their duty to God, so necessary to make them good citizens; but which yet would be worn out and defaced by an unremitted continuance of labour, without any stated times of recalling them to the worship of their Maker. And therefore the laws of king Athelstan forbad all merchandizing on the Lord's day, under very severe penalties. And by the statute 27 Hen. VI. c. 5. no fair or market shall be held on the principal festivals, Good-friday, or any Sunday, (except the four Sundays in harvest), on pain of forfeiting the goods exposed to sale. And, since, by the statute 1 Car. I. c. 1. no persons shall assemble, out of their own parishes, for any sport whatsoever upon this day;

nor

Sabellians || Sable.

nor, in their parishes, shall use any bull or bear baiting, interludes, plays, or other unlawful exercises or pastimes; on pain that every offender shall pay 3s. 4d. to the poor. This statute does not prohibit, but rather impliedly allows, any innocent recreation or amusement, within their respective parishes, even on the Lord's day, after divine service is over. But by statute 29 Car. II. c. 7. no person allowed to work on the Lord's day, or use any boat or barge, or expose any goods to sale, except meat in public houses, milk at certain hours, and works of necessity or charity, on forfeiture of 5s. Nor shall any drover, carrier, or the like, travel upon that day, under pain of 20s.

SABELLIANS, a sect of Christians of the 3d century, that embraced the opinions of Sabellius, a philosopher of Egypt, who openly taught that there is but one person in the Godhead.

The Sabellians maintained, that the Word and the Holy Spirit are only virtues, emanations, or functions of the Deity; and held, that he who is in heaven is the Father of all things, descended into the virgin, became a child, and was born of her as a son; and that having accomplished the mystery of our salvation, he diffused himself on the apostles in tongues of fire, and was then denominated the *Holy Ghost*. This they explained by resembling God to the sun, the illuminative virtue or quality of which was the Word, and its warming virtue the Holy Spirit. The Word, they taught, was darted, like a divine ray, to accomplish the work of redemption; and that, being re-ascended to heaven, the influences of the Father were communicated after a like manner to the apostles.

SABINA, a province of Italy, in the territories of the church; bounded on the north by Umbria, on the east by Farther Abruzzo, on the south by the Campagna of Rome, and on the west by the patrimony of St Peter. It is 22 miles in length, and almost as much in breadth; watered by several small rivers, and abounding in oil and wine. There is no walled town in it, and Magliano is the principal place.

SABINUS (George), a celebrated Latin poet, born in the electorate of Brandenburg in 1508. His poem *Res gestæ Cæsarum Germanorum*, spread his reputation all over Germany, and procured him the patronage of all the princes who had any regard for polite literature: he was made professor of the belles lettres at Frankfort on the Oder, rector of the new academy at Konigsburg, and counsellor to the elector of Brandenburg. He married two wives, the first of which was the eldest daughter of the famous reformer Melanchthon; and died in 1560. His poems are well known, and have been often printed.

SABLE, or Sable *Animal*, in zoology, a creature of the weasel-kind, called by authors *mustela zibellina*. See Mustela.

Sable *Trade*, the trade carried on in the skins or furs of sables: of which the following commercial history was translated by Mr J. R. Forster, from a Russian performance on that subject by Mr Muller.

" *Sable*, *soble*, in Russian; *zobel* in German. Their price varies, from 1l. to 10l. sterling, and above: fine and middling sable-skins are without bellies, and the coarse ones are with them. Forty skins make a collection called *zimmer*. The finest sables are sold in pairs perfectly similar, and are dearer than single ones of the same goodness; for the Russians want those in pairs for facing caps, cloaks, tippets, &c. the blackest are reputed the best. Sables are in season from November to February; for those caught at any other time of the year are short-haired, and then called *nedosobeli*. The hair of sables differs in length and quality: the long hairs, which reach far beyond the inferior ones, are called *os*; the more a skin has of such long hairs, the blacker they are, and the more valuable is the fur; the very best have no other but those long and black hairs. *Motchka* is a technical term used in the Russian fur-trade, expressing the lower part of the long hairs; and sometimes it comprehends likewise the lower and shorter hairs: the abovementioned best sable furs are said to have a black motchka. Below the long hairs are, in the greater part of the sable-furs, some shorter hairs, called *podosie*, i. e. under-os; the more podosie a fur has, the less valuable: in the better kind of sables the podosie has black tips, and a grey or rusty motchka. The first kind of motchka makes the middling kind of sable furs; the red one the worst, especially if it has but few os. Between the os and podosie is a low wooly kind of hair, called *podsada*. The more podsada a fur has, the less valuable: for the long hair will, in such case, take no other direction than the natural one; for the characters of sable is, that notwithstanding the hair naturally lies from the head towards the tail, yet it will lie equally in any direction as you stroke your hand over it. The various combinations of these characters, in regard to os, motchka, podosie, and podsada, make many special divisions in the goodness of furs: besides this, the furriers attend to the size, preferring always, *cæteris paribus*, the biggest, and those that have the greatest gloss. The size depends upon the animal being a male or a female, the latter being always smaller. The gloss vanishes in old furs: the fresh ones have a kind of bloomy appearance, as they express it; the old ones are said to have done blooming: the dyed sables always lose their gloss; become less uniform, whether the lower hairs have taken the dye or not; and commonly the hairs are somewhat twisted or crisped, and not so straight as in the natural ones. Some fumigate the skins, to make them look blacker; but the smell, and the crisped condition of the long hair, betrays the cheat; and both ways are detected by rubbing the fur with a moist linen-cloth, which grows black in such cases.

" The Chinese have a way of dyeing the sables, so that the colour not only lasts, (which the Russian cheats cannot do), but the fur keeps its gloss, and the crisped hairs only discover it. This is the reason that all the sables, which are of the best kind, either in pairs or separate, are carried to Russia; the rest go to China. The very best sables come from the environs of Nertchitsk and Yakutsk; and in this latter district, the country about the river Ud affords sometimes sables, of whom one single fur is often sold at the rate of 60 or 70 rubles, 12l. or 14l. The bellies of sables, which are sold in pairs, are about two fingers breadth, and are tied together by 40 pieces, which are sold from 1l. to 2l. sterling. Tails are sold by the hundred. The very best sable-furs must have their tails; but ordinary sables are often cropped, and 100 sold from 4l. to 8l. sterling. The legs or feet of sables are seldom sold separately: white sables are rare, and no common merchandize, but bought only as curiosities: some are yellowish, and

are bleached in the ſpring on the ſnow."

SABLE, in heraldry, ſignifies "black;" and is borrowed from the French, as are moſt terms in this ſcience: in engraving it is expreſſed by both horizontal and perpendicular lines croſſing each other. Sable of itſelf ſignifies conſtancy, learning, and grief; and ancient heralds will have it, that it is compounded with

Or	It ſignifies	Honour.
Arg.		Fame.
Gul.		Reſpect.
Azu.		Application.
Ver.		Comfort.
Pur.		Auſterity.

The occaſion that introduced this colour into heraldry is thus related by Alexander Niſbet, p. 8. The duke of Anjou, king of Sicily, after the loſs of that kingdom, appeared at a tournament in Germany all in black, with his ſhield of that tincture, *ſemé de larmes*, i. e. beſprinkled with drops of water, to repreſent tears, indicating by that both his grief and loſs.

SABLESTAN, or SABLUSTAN, a province of Aſia, in Perſia, on the frontiers of Indoſtan; bounded on the north by Khoraſan; on the eaſt, by the mountains of Balk and Candahar; on the ſouth, by Sageſtan, or Segeſtan; and on the weſt, by Heri. It is a mountainous country, very little known to Europeans; nor is it certain which is the capital town.

SABRE, a kind of ſword or ſcimetar, with a very broad and heavy blade, thick at the back, and a little falcated or crooked towards the point. It is the ordinary weapon worn by the Turks, who are ſaid to be very expert in the uſe of it.

SABURRA, in medicine, uſually denotes any collection of half putrid indigeſted matter in the ſtomach and inteſtines, by which the operation of digeſtion is impeded.

SABURRÆ, GRITTS, in natural hiſtory; a genus of foſſils, found in minute maſſes, forming together a kind of powder, the ſeveral particles of which are of no determinate ſhape, nor have any tendency to the figure of cryſtal, but ſeem rudely broken fragments of larger maſſes; not to be diſſolved or diſunited by water, but retaining their figure in it, and not cohering by means of it into a maſs; conſiderably opake, and in many ſpecies fermenting with acids; often fouled with heterogene matters, and not unfrequently taken in the coarſer ſtony and mineral or metalline particles.

Gritts are of various colours, as, 1. The ſtony and ſparry gritts, of a bright or greyiſh white colour. 2. The red ſtony gritts. 3. The green ſtony gritts, compoſed of homogene ſparry particles. 4. The yellow gritt, of which there is only one ſpecies. 5. The black and blackiſh gritts, compoſed of ſtony or talky particles.

SACCADE, in the manege, is a jerk more or leſs violent, given by the horſeman to the horſe, in pulling or twitching the reins of the bridle all on a ſudden and with one pull, and that when a horſe lies heavy upon the hand, or obſtinately arms himſelf.

This is a correction uſed to make a horſe carry well; but it ought to be uſed diſcreetly, and but ſeldom.

SACERDOTAL, ſomething belonging to prieſts. See PRIEST.

SACCULUS, in anatomy, a diminutive of ſaccus, ſignifies a little bag, and is applied to many parts of the body.

SACCHARUM, SUGAR, or the *Sugar-Cane*; in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the triandria claſs of plants. There is but one ſpecies of this genus, *viz.* the officinarum; a genus of both the Indies, where it grows naturally, and is cultivated for its juice, which when boiled affords the ſweet ſalt called *ſugar*. See that article.

SACCHI (Andrea), a celebrated painter, born at Rome in 1594. He was the diſciple of Franciſco Albano, whom he afterwards ſurpaſſed in taſte and correctneſs. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf in a very eminent degree by his paintings in freſco; and a ſtrong emulation ſubſiſting between him and Pietro de Cortona, they each arrived at a degree of perfection that neither of them might have known, without ſuch a competition. The works of Sacchi have ſuch intrinſic merit, and are finiſhed with ſuch uncommon care and ſkill, as will always ſecure the applauſe of the judicious, and preſerve their true value. He died in 1668.

SACHEVEREL (Dr Henry), a famous clergyman of the Tory faction in the reign of queen Anne; who diſtinguiſhed himſelf by indecent and ſcurrilous ſermons and writings againſt the diſſenters and revolution principles. He owed his conſequence, however, to being indiſcreetly proſecuted by the houſe of lords, for his aſſize-ſermon at Derby, and his 5th of November ſermon at St Paul's in 1709; in which he aſſerted the doctrine of non reſiſtance to government in its utmoſt extent; and reflected ſeverely on the act of toleration. The high and low church parties were very violent at that time; and the trial of Sacheverel inflamed the high-church party to dangerous riots and exceſſes: he was, however, ſuſpended for three years, and his ſermons burned by the common hangman. The Tories being in adminiſtration when Sacheverel's ſuſpenſion expired, he was freed with every circumſtance of honour and public rejoicing; was ordered to preach before the commons on the 29th of May, had the thanks of the houſe for his diſcourſe, and obtained the valuable rectory of St Andrew's, Holborn.

SACK *of* WOOL, a quantity of wool containing juſt 22 ſtone, and every ſtone 14 pounds. In Scotland, a ſack is 24 ſtone, each ſtone containing 16 pounds.

SACK *of Cotton Wool*, a quantity from one hundred and a half to four hundred weight.

SACKS *of Earth*, in fortification, are canvas bags filled with earth. They are uſed in making retrenchments in haſte, to place on parapets, or the head of the breaches, &c. to repair them, when beaten down.

SACKBUT, a muſical inſtrument of the wind kind, being a ſort of trumpet, though different from the common trumpet both in form and ſize: it is fit to play a baſs, and is contrived to be drawn out or ſhortened, according to the tone required, whether grave or acute. The Italians call it *trombone*, and the Latins *tuba ductilis*.

SACKVILLE (Charles, earl of Dorſet), a celebrated wit and poet, deſcended from the foregoing, was born in 1637. He was, like Villiers, Rocheſter, Sedley, &c. one of the libertines of king Charles's court, and ſometimes indulged himſelf in inexcuſable exceſſes. He openly diſcountenanced the violent meaſures of James II. and engaged early for the prince of Orange,

Sackville. Orange, by whom he was made lord chamberlain of the houſehold, and taken into the privy-council. He died in 1706, and left ſeveral poetical pieces, which, though not conſiderable enough to make a volume by themſelves, may be found among the works of the minor poets, publiſhed in 1749.

SACKVILLE (Thomas, Lord Buckhurſt, and Earl of Dorſet), a ſtateſman and poet, the ſon of Richard Sackville, Eſq; of Buckhurſt, in the pariſh of Withian in Suſſex, was born in the year 1536. He was ſent to Hart-hall in Oxford, in the latter end of the reign of Edward VI. whence he removed to Cambridge, where he took a maſter of arts degree, and thence to the Inner Temple. He now applied himſelf to the ſtudy of the law, and was called to the bar. We are told that he commenced poet whilſt at the univerſities, and that theſe his juvenile productions were much admired, none of which however have been preſerved. In the fourth and fifth year of queen Mary, we find him a member of the houſe of commons; about which time, in 1557, he wrote a poetical piece, intitled *The Induction*, or, *The Myrror of Magiſtrates*. This laſt was meant to comprehend all the unfortunate Great from the beginning of our hiſtory; but the deſign being dropped, it was inſerted in the body of the work. The Myrror of Magiſtrates is formed on a dramatic plan; in which the perſons is introduced ſpeaking. The Induction is written much in the ſtyle of Spencer, who, with ſome probability, is ſuppoſed to have imitated this author.

In 1561, his tragedy of *Gorboduc* was acted before queen Eliſabeth by the gentlemen of the Inner Temple. This was the firſt tolerable tragedy in our language. The Companion to the Play-houſe tells us, that the three firſt acts were written by Mr Tho. Norton. Sir Philip Sidney, in his Apology for Poetry, ſays, "it is full of ſtately ſpeeches and well-ſounding phraſes, climbing to the height of Seneca in his ſtyle, &c." Rymer ſpeaks highly in its commendation. Mr Spence, at the inſtigation of Mr Pope, republiſhed it in 1736, with a pompous preface. It is ſaid to be our firſt dramatic piece written in verſe.

In the firſt parliament of this reign, Mr Sackville was member for Suſſex, and for Bucks in the ſecond. In the mean time, he made the tour of France and Italy, and in 1566 was impriſoned at Rome, when he was informed of his father's death, by which he became poſſeſſed of a very conſiderable fortune.

Having now obtained his liberty, he returned to England; and being firſt knighted, was created Lord Buckhurſt. In 1570 he was ſent ambaſſador to France. In 1586 he was one of the commiſſioners appointed to try the unfortunate Mary queen of Scots; and was the meſſenger employed to report the confirmation of her ſentence, and to ſee it executed. The year following he went ambaſſador to the States-General, in conſequence of their complaint againſt the earl of Leiceſter; who, diſliking his impartiality, prevailed on the queen to recall him, and confine him to his houſe. In this ſtate of confinement he continued about 10 months, when Leiceſter dying, he was reſtored to favour, and in 1580 was inſtalled knight of the garter: but the moſt incontrovertible proof of the queen's partiality for lord Buckhurſt appeared in the year 1591, when ſhe cauſed him to be elected chancellor in the univerſity of Oxford, in oppoſition to her favourite Eſſex. In 1598, on the death of the treaſurer Burleigh, lord Buckhurſt ſucceeded him, and by virtue of his office became in effect prime miniſter; and when, in 1601, the earls of Eſſex and Southampton were brought to trial, he ſat as lord high ſteward on that awful occaſion. Sacrament || Sacrifice.

On the acceſſion of James I. he was graciouſly received, had the office of lord high treaſurer confirmed to him for life, and was created earl of Dorſet. He continued in high favour with the king till the day of his death; which happened ſuddenly, on the 19th of April 1608, in the council-chamber at Whitehall. He was interred with great ſolemnity in Weſtminſter abbey. He was a good poet, an able miniſter, and an honeſt man. From him is deſcended the preſent noble family of the Dorſets. "It were needleſs (ſays Mr Walpole) to add, that he was the patriarch of a race of genius and wit."

SACRAMENT, ſignifies, in general, a ſign of a thing ſacred and holy; and is defined to be an outward and viſible ſign of a ſpiritual grace. Thus there are two objects in a ſacrament; the one the object of the ſenſes, and the other the object of faith. Proteſtants admit only of two ſacraments, baptiſm, and the euchariſt or Lord's Supper; but the Roman Catholics own ſeven, *viz.* baptiſm, confirmation, the euchariſt, penance, extreme unction, ordination, and marriage.

The Romaniſts, however, by way of eminence, call the euchariſt the *holy ſacrament*. Thus to expoſe the holy ſacrament, is to lay the conſecrated hoſt on the altar to be adored. The proceſſion of the holy ſacrament, is that in which this hoſt is carried about the church, or about a town.

SACRAMENTARY, an ancient Romiſh church-book, which contains all the paryers and ceremonies practiſed at the celebration of the ſacraments.

It was wrote by pope Gelaſius, and afterwards reviſed, corrected, and abridged by St Gregory.

SACRED, ſomething holy, or that is ſolemnly offered and conſecrated to God, with benedictions, unctions, &c.

SACRIFICE, a ſolemn act of religious worſhip, which conſiſted in dedicating or offering up ſomething animate or inanimate on an altar, by the hands of the prieſt, either as an expreſſion of their gratitude to the Deity for ſome ſignal mercy, or to acknowledge their dependence on him, or to conciliate his favour. The origin of ſacrifices is by ſome aſcribed to the Phœnicians; but Porphyry aſcribes it to the Egyptians, who firſt offered the firſt-fruits of their grounds to the gods, burning them upon an altar of turf: thus in the moſt ancient ſacrifices there were neither living creatures, nor any thing coſtly or magnificent, and no myrrh or frankincenſe. At length they began to burn perfumes: and afterwards men, leaving their ancient diet of herbs and roots, and beginning to uſe living creatures for food, began alſo to change their ſacrifices. The ſcriptures, however, furniſh us with a different account: for Noah, it is ſaid, ſacrificed animals at his coming out of the ark; and even Abel himſelf ſacrificed the beſt and fatteſt of his flock; but Grotius thinks it more probable that he contented himſelf with making a mere oblation of his lambs, &c. without ſlaying them.

The Jews had two ſorts of ſacrifices, taking the word

Sacrifice. word in its largeſt ſignification: The firſt were offerings of tythes, firſt-fruits, cakes, wine, oil, honey, and the like; and the laſt, offerings of ſlaughtered animals. When an Iſraelite offered a loaf or a cake, the prieſt broke it in two parts; and ſetting aſide that half which he reſerved for himſelf, broke the other into crumbs, poured oil, wine, incenſe, and ſalt upon it, and ſpread the whole upon the fire of the altar. If theſe offerings were accompanied with the ſacrifice of an animal, they were thrown upon the victim to be conſumed along with it. If the offerings were of the ears of new corn, they were parched at the fire, rubbed in the hand, and then offered to the prieſt in a veſſel, over which he poured oil, incenſe, wine, and ſalt, and then burnt it upon the altar, having firſt taken as much of it as of right belonged to himſelf.

The principal ſacrifices among the Hebrews conſiſted of bullocks, ſheep, and goats; but doves and turtles were accepted from thoſe who were not able to bring the other: theſe beaſts were to be perfect, and without blemiſh. The rites of ſacrificing were various; all of which are very minutely deſcribed in the books of Moſes.

The manner of ſacrificing among the Greeks and Romans was as follows. In the choice of the victim, they took care that it was without blemiſh or imperfection; its tail was not to be too ſmall at the end; the tongue not black, nor the ears cleft; and that the bull was one that had never been yoked. The victim being pitched upon, they gilt his forehead and horns, eſpecially if a bull, heifer, or cow. The head they alſo adorned with a garland of flowers, a woollen inſula or holy fillet, whence hung two rows of chaplets with twiſted ribands; and on the middle of the body a kind of ſtole, pretty large, hung down on each ſide; the leſſer victims were only adorned with garlands and bundles of flowers, together with white tufts or wreaths.

The victims thus prepared were brought before the altar; the leſſer being driven to the place, and the greater led by an halter; when, if they made any ſtruggle, or refuſed to go, the reſiſtance was taken for an ill omen, and the ſacrifice frequently ſet aſide. The victim thus brought was carefully examined, to ſee that there was no defect in it; then the prieſt, clad in his ſacerdotal habit, and accompanied with the ſacrificers and other attendants, and being waſhed and purified according to the ceremonies preſcribed, turned to the right-hand, and went round the altar, ſprinkling it with meal and holy-water, and alſo beſprinkling thoſe who were preſent. Then the crier proclaimed with a loud voice, Who is here? To which the people replied, Many and good. The prieſt then having exhorted the people to join with him by ſaying, Let us pray, confeſſed his own unworthineſs, acknowledging that he had been guilty of divers ſins; for which he begged pardon of the gods, hoping that they would be pleaſed to grant his requeſts, accept the oblations offered them, and ſend them all health and happineſs; and to this general form added petitions for ſuch particular favours as were then deſired. Prayers being ended, the prieſt took a cup of wine; and having taſted it himſelf, cauſed his aſſiſtants to do the like; and then poured forth the remainder between the horns of the victim. Then the prieſt or the crier, or ſometimes the moſt honourable perſon in the company, killed the beaſt, by knocking it down or cutting its throat. If the ſacrifice was in honour of the celeſtial gods, the throat was turned up towards heaven; but if they ſacrificed to the heroes or infernal gods, the victim was killed with its throat towards the ground. If by accident the beaſt eſcaped the ſtroke, leaped up after it, or expired with pain and difficulty, it was thought to be unacceptable to the gods. The beaſt being killed, the prieſt inſpected its entrails, and made predictions from them. They then poured wine, together with frankincenſe, into the fire, to increaſe the flame, and then laid the ſacrifice on the altar; which in the primitive times was burnt whole to the gods, and thence called an *holocauſt*; but in after-times, only part of the victim was conſumed in the fire, and the remainder reſerved for the ſacrificers; the thighs, and ſometimes the entrails, being burnt to their honour, the company feaſted upon the reſt. While the prieſt was ſacrificing, the prieſt, and the perſon who gave the ſacrifice, jointly prayed, laying their hands upon the altar. Sometimes they played upon muſical inſtruments in the time of the ſacrifice, and on ſome occaſions they danced round the altar, ſinging ſacred hymns in honour of the god.

Human SACRIFICES. One would think it ſcarce poſſible, that ſo unnatural a cuſtom as that of human ſacrifices ſhould have exiſted in the world: but it is very certain, that it did not only exiſt, but almoſt univerſally prevail. The Egyptians of old brought no victims to their temples, nor ſhed any blood at their altars: But human victims and the blood of men muſt be here excepted; which at one period they moſt certainly offered to their gods. The Cretans had the ſame cuſtom; and adhered to it a much longer time. The nations of Arabia did the ſame. The people of Dumah, in particular, ſacrificed every year a child; and buried it underneath an altar, which they made uſe of inſtead of an idol: for they did not admit of images. The Perſians buried people alive. Ameſtris, the wife of Xerxes, entombed 12 perſons quick under ground for the good of her ſoul. It would be endleſs to enumerate every city, or every province, where theſe dire practices obtained. The Cyprians, the Rhodians, the Phoceans, the Ionians, thoſe of Chios, Leſbos, Tenedos, all had human ſacrifices. The natives of the Tauric Cherſoneſus offered up to Diana every ſtranger whom chance threw upon their coaſt. Hence aroſe that juſt expoſtulation in Euripides, upon the inconſiſtency of the proceeding; wherein much good reaſoning is implied. Iphigenia wonders, as the goddeſs delighted in the blood of men, that every villain and murderer ſhould be privileged to eſcape, nay, be driven from the threſhold of the temple; whereas, if an honeſt and virtuous man chanced to ſtray thither, he only was ſeized upon, and put to death. The Pelaſgi, in a time of ſcarcity, vowed the tenth of all that ſhould be born to them, for a ſacrifice, in order to procure plenty. Ariſtomenes the Meſſenian ſlew 300 noble Lacedemonians, among whom was Theopompus the king of Sparta, at the altar of Jupiter at Ithome. Without doubt the Lacedemonians did not fail to make ample returns: for they were a ſevere and revengeful people, and offered the like victims to Mars. Their feſtival of the Diamaſtigoſis is well known; when the Spartan boys were whipped in the ſight of their parents with ſuch

Bryant's Obſervations and Inquiries relating to various parts of ancient hiſtory.

Sacrifice. such severity before the altar of Diana Orthia, that they often expired under the torture. Phylarchus affirms, as he is quoted by Porphyry, that of old every Grecian ſtate made it a rule, before they marched towards an enemy, to ſolicit a bleſſing on their undertakings by human victims.

The Romans were accuſtomed to the like ſacrifices. They both devoted themſelves to the infernal gods, and conſtrained others to ſubmit to the ſame horrid doom. Hence we read in Titus Livius, that, in the conſulate of Æmilius Paulus and Terentius Varro, two Gauls, a man and a woman, and two in like manner of Greece, were buried alive at Rome in the Ox-Market; where was a place under ground, walled round to receive them; which had before been made uſe of for ſuch cruel purpoſes. He ſays it was a ſacrifice not properly Roman, that is, not originally of Roman inſtitution; yet it was frequently practiſed there, and that too by public authority. Plutarch makes mention of a like inſtance a few years before, in the conſulſhip of Flaminius and Furius. There is reaſon to think, that all the principal captives who graced the triumphs of the Romans, were at the cloſe of that cruel pageantry put to death at the altar of Jupiter Capitolinus. Caius Marius offered up his own daughter for a victim to the Dii Averrunci, to procure ſucceſs in a battle againſt the Cimbri; as we are informed by Dorotheus, quoted by Clemens. It is likewiſe atteſted by Plutarch, who ſays that her name was *Calpurnia*. Marius was a man of a ſour and bloody diſpoſition; and had probably heard of ſuch ſacrifices being offered in the enemy's camp, among whom they were very common: or he might have beheld them exhibited at a diſtance; and therefore murdered what was neareſt, and ſhould have been deareſt, to him, to counteract their fearful ſpells, and outdo them in their wicked machinery. Cicero making mention of this cuſtom being common in Gaul, adds, that it prevailed among that people even at the time he was ſpeaking: from whence we may be led to infer, that it was then diſcontinued among the Romans. And we are told by Pliny, that it had then, and not very long, been diſcouraged. For there was a law enacted, when Lentulus and Craſſus were conſuls, ſo late as the 657th year of Rome, that there ſhould be no more human ſacrifices: for till that time thoſe horrid rites had been celebrated in broad day without any maſk or controul; which, had we not the beſt evidence for the fact, would appear ſcarce credible. And however they may have been diſcontinued for a time, we find that they were again renewed; tho' they became not ſo public, nor ſo general. For not very long after this, it is reported of Auguſtus Cæſar, when Peruſia ſurrendered in the time of the ſecond triumvirate, that beſides multitudes executed in a military manner, he offered up, upon the Ides of March, 300 choſen perſons, both of the equeſtrian and ſenatorial order, at an altar dedicated to the manes of his uncle Julius. Even at Rome itſelf this cuſtom was revived: and Porphyry aſſures us, that in his time a man was every year ſacrificed at the ſhrine of Jupiter Latiaris. Heliogabalus offered the like victims to the Syrian deity, which he introduced among the Romans. The ſame is ſaid of Aurelian.

The Gauls and the Germans were ſo devoted to this ſhocking cuſtom, that no buſineſs of any moment was tranſacted among them without being prefaced with the blood of men. They were offered up to various gods; but particularly to Heſus, Taranis, and Thautates. Theſe deities are mentioned by Lucan, where he enumerates the various nations who followed the fortunes of Cæſar. Sacrifice.

The altars of theſe gods were far removed from the common reſort of men; being generally ſituated in the depth of woods, that the gloom might add to the horror of the operation, and give a reverence to the place and proceeding. The perſons devoted were led thither by the Druids, who preſided at the ſolemnity, and performed the cruel offices of the ſacrifice. Tacitus takes notice of the cruelty of the Hermunduri, in a war with the Catti, wherein they had greatly the advantage; at the cloſe of which they made one general ſacrifice of all that was taken in battle. The poor remains of the legions under Varus ſuffered in ſome degree the ſame fate. There were many places deſtined for this purpoſe all over Gaul and Germany; but eſpecially in the mighty woods of Arduenna, and the great Hercinian foreſt; a wild that extended above 30 days journey in length. The places ſet apart for this ſolemnity were held in the utmoſt reverence, and only approached at particular ſeaſons. Lucan mentions a grove of this ſort near Maſſilia, which even the Roman ſoldiers were afraid to violate, tho' commanded by Cæſar. It was one of thoſe ſet apart for the ſacrifices of the country.

Claudian compliments Stilicho, that, among other advantages accruing to the Roman armies through his conduct, they could now venture into the awful foreſt of Hercinia, and follow the chace in thoſe ſo much dreaded woods, and otherwiſe make uſe of them.

Theſe practices prevailed among all the people of the north, of whatever denomination. The Maſſagetæ, the Scythians, the Getes, the Sarmatians, all the various nations upon the Baltic, particularly the Suevi and Scandinavians, held it as a fixed principle, that their happineſs and ſecurity could not be obtained but at the expence of the lives of others. Their chief gods were Thor and Woden, whom they thought they could never ſufficiently glut with blood. They had many very celebrated places of worſhip; eſpecially in the iſland Rugen, near the mouth of the Oder; and in Zeeland: ſome, too, very famous among the Semnones and Naharvalli. But the moſt reverenced of all, and the moſt frequented, was at Upſal; where there was every year a grand celebrity, which continued for nine days. During this term they ſacrificed animals of all ſorts: but the moſt acceptable victims, and the moſt numerous, were men. Of theſe ſacrifices none were eſteemed ſo auſpicious and ſalutary, as a ſacrifice of the prince of the country. When the lot fell for the king to die, it was received with univerſal acclamations and every expreſſion of joy; as it once happened in the time of a famine, when they caſt lots, and it fell to king Domalder to be the peoples victim: and he was accordingly put to death. Olaus Tretelger, another prince, was burnt alive to Woden. They did not ſpare their own children. Harald the ſon of Gunild, the firſt of that name, ſlew two of his children to obtain a ſtorm of wind. "He did not let (ſays Verſtegan) to ſacrifice two of his ſons unto his idols, to the end he might obtain of them ſuch a tempeſt;

Sacrifice. tempeſt at ſea, as ſhould break and diſperſe the ſhipping of Harald king of Denmark." Saxo Grammaticus mentions a like fact. He calls the king Haquin; and ſpeaks of the perſons put to death as two very hopeful young princes. Another king ſlew nine ſons, in order to prolong his own life; in hopes, perhaps, that what they were abridged of would in great meaſure be added to himſelf. Such inſtances, however, occur not often: but the common victims were without end. Adam Bremenſis, ſpeaking of the awful grove at Upſal, where theſe horrid rites were celebrated, ſays, that there was not a ſingle tree but what was reverenced, as if it were gifted with ſome portion of divinity: and all this becauſe they were ſtained with gore, and foul with human putrefaction. The ſame is obſerved by Scheiffer in his account of this place.

The manner in which the victims were ſlaughtered, was diverſe in different places. Some of the Gauliſh nations chined them with a ſtroke of an ax. The Celtæ placed the man who was to be offered for a ſacrifice upon a block, or an altar, with his breaſt upwards, and with a ſword ſtruck him forcibly acroſs the ſternum; then tumbling him to the ground, from his agonies and convulſions, as well as from the effuſion of blood, they formed a judgment of future events. The Cimbri ripped open the bowels; and from them they pretended to divine. In Norway they beat mens brains out with an ox-yoke. The ſame operation was performed in Iceland, by daſhing them againſt an altar of ſtone. In many places they tranſfixed them with arrows. After they were dead they ſuſpended them upon the trees, and left them to putrefy. One of the writers above quoted, mentions that in his time 70 carcaſes of this ſort were found in a wood of the Scevi. Dithmar of Merſburgh, an author of nearly the ſame age, ſpeaks of a place called *Ledur* in Zeeland, where there were every year 99 perſons ſacrificed to the god Swantowite. During theſe bloody feſtivals a general joy prevailed; and banquets were moſt royally ſerved. They fed, carouſed, and gave a looſe to indulgence, which at other times was not permitted. They imagined that there was ſomething myſterious in the number nine: for which reaſon theſe feaſts were in ſome places celebrated every ninth year, in others every ninth month; and continued for nine days. When all was ended, they waſhed the image of the deity in a pool; and then diſmiſſed the aſſembly. Their ſervants were numerous, who attended during the term of their feaſting, and partook of the banquet. At the cloſe of all, they were ſmothered in the ſame pool, or otherwiſe made away with. On which Tacitus remarks, how great an awe this circumſtance muſt neceſſarily infuſe into thoſe who were not admitted to theſe myſteries.

Theſe accounts are handed down from a variety of authors in different ages; many of whom were natives of the countries which they deſcribe, and to which they ſeem ſtrongly attached. They would not therefore have brought ſo foul an imputation on the part of the world in favour of which they were each writing, nor could there be that concurrence of teſtimony, were not the hiſtory in general true.

The like cuſtom prevailed to a great degree at Mexico, and even under the mild government of the Peruvians; and in moſt parts of America. In Africa it is ſtill kept up; where, in the inland parts, they ſacrifice ſome of the captives taken in war to their fetiches, in order to ſecure their favour. Snelgrave was in the king of Dahoome's camp, after his inroad into the countries of Ardra and Whidaw; and ſays, that he was a witneſs to the cruelty of this prince, whom he ſaw ſacrifice multitudes to the deity of his nation. Sacrifice.

The ſacrifices of which we have been treating, if we except ſome few inſtances, conſiſted of perſons doomed by the chance of war, or aſſigned by lot, to be offered. But among the nations of Canaan, the victims were peculiarly choſen. Their own children, and whatever was neareſt and deareſt to them, were deemed the moſt worthy offering to their god. The Carthaginians, who were a colony from Tyre, carried with them the religion of their mother-country, and inſtituted the ſame worſhip in the parts where they ſettled. It conſiſted in the adoration of ſeveral deities, but particularly of Kronus; to whom they offered human ſacrifices, and eſpecially the blood of children. If the parents were not at hand to make an immediate offer, the magiſtrates did not fail to make choice of what was moſt fair and promiſing; that the god might not be defrauded of his dues. Upon a check being received in Sicily, and ſome other alarming circumſtances happening, Himilcar without any heſitation laid hold of a boy, and offered him on the ſpot to Kronus; and at the ſame time drowned a number of prieſts, to appeaſe the deity of the ſea. The Carthaginians another time, upon a great defeat of their army by Agathocles, imputed their miſcarriages to the anger of this god, whoſe ſervices had been neglected. Touched with this, and ſeeing the enemy at their gates, they ſeized at once 300 children of the prime nobility, and offered them in public for a ſacrifice. Three hundred more, being perſons who were ſomehow obnoxious, yielded themſelves voluntarily, and were put to death with the others. The neglect of which they accuſed themſelves, conſiſted in ſacrificing children purchaſed of parents among the poorer ſort, who reared them for that purpoſe; and not ſelecting the moſt promiſing, and the moſt honourable, as had been the cuſtom of old. In ſhort, there were particular children brought up for the altar, as ſheep are fattened for the ſhambles; and they were bought and butchered in the ſame manner. But this indiſcriminate way of proceeding was thought to have given offence. It is remarkable, that the Egyptians looked out for the moſt ſpecious and handſome perſon to be ſacrificed. The Albanians pitched upon the beſt man of the community, and made him pay for the wickedneſs of the reſt. The Carthaginians choſe what they thought the moſt excellent, and at the ſame time the moſt dear to them; which made the lot fall heavy upon their children. This is taken notice of by Silius Italicus in his fourth book.

Kronus, to whom theſe ſacrifices were exhibited, was an oriental deity, the god of light and fire; and therefore always worſhipped with ſome reference to that element. See PHŒNICIA.

The Greeks, we find, called the deity to whom theſe offerings were made *Agraulos;* and feigned that ſhe was a woman, and the daughter of Cecrops. But how came Cecrops to have any connection with Cyprus? Agraulos is a corruption and tranſpoſition of the ori-

Sacrifices. original name, which ſhould have been rendered *Uk El Aur*, or *Uk El Aurus;* but has, like many other oriental titles and names, been ſtrangely ſophiſticated; and is here changed to Agraulos. It was in reality the god of light, who was always worſhipped with fire. This deity was the Moloch of the Tyrians and Canaanites, and the Melech of the eaſt; that is, the great and principal god, the god of light, of whom fire was eſteemed a ſymbol; and at whoſe ſhrine, inſtead of viler victims, they offered the blood of men.

Such was the Kronus of the Greeks, and the Moloch of the Phœnicians: and nothing can appear more ſhocking than the ſacrifices of the Tyrians and Carthaginians, which they performed to this idol. In all emergencies of ſtate, and times of general calamity, they devoted what was moſt neceſſary and valuable to them, for an offering to the gods, and particularly to Moloch. But beſides theſe undetermined times of bloodſhed, they had particular and preſcribed ſeaſons every year, when children were choſen out of the moſt noble and reputable families, as before mentioned. If a perſon had an only child, it was the more liable to be put to death, as being eſteemed more acceptable to the deity, and more efficacious of the general good. Thoſe who were ſacrificed to Kronus were thrown into the arms of a molten idol, which ſtood in the midſt of a large fire, and was red with heat. The arms of it were ſtretched out, with the hands turned upwards, as it were to receive them; yet ſloping downwards, ſo that they dropt from thence into a glowing furnace below. To other gods they were otherwiſe ſlaughtered, and, as it is implied, by the very hands of their parents. What can be more horrid to the imagination, than to ſuppoſe a father leading the deareſt of all his ſons to ſuch an infernal ſhrine? or a mother the moſt engaging and affectionate of her daughters, juſt riſing to maturity, to be ſlaughtered at the altar of Aſhteroth or Baal? Juſtin deſcribes this unnatural cuſtom very pathetically: *Quippe homines, ut victimas, immolabant; et impuberes (quæ ætas hoſtium miſericordiam provocat) aris admovebant; pacem ſanguine eorum expoſcentes, pro quorum vitâ Dii rogari maxime ſolent.* Such was their blind zeal, that this was continually practiſed; and ſo much of natural affection ſtill left unextinguiſhed, as to render the ſcene ten times more ſhocking from the tenderneſs which they ſeemed to expreſs. They embraced their children with great fondneſs, and encouraged them in the gentleſt terms, that they might not be appaled at the ſight of the helliſh proceſs; begging of them to ſubmit with cheerfulneſs to this fearful operation. If there was any appearance of a tear riſing, or a cry unawares eſcaping, the mother ſmothered it with her kiſſes, that there might not be any ſhow of backwardneſs or conſtraint, but the whole be a free-will offering. Theſe cruel endearments over, they ſtabbed them to the heart, or otherwiſe opened the ſluices of life; and with the blood warm, as it ran, beſmeared the altar and the grim viſage of the idol. Theſe were the cuſtoms which the Iſraelites learned of the people of Canaan, and for which they are upbraided by the Pſalmiſt: "They did not deſtroy the nations, concerning whom the Lord commanded them; but were mingled among the heathen, and learned their works: yea, they ſacrificed their ſons and their daughters unto devils, and ſhed innocent blood, even the blood of their ſons and of their daughters, whom they ſacrificed unto the idols of Canaan; and the land was polluted with blood. Thus were they defiled with their own works, and went a-whoring with their own inventions."

Sacrifices || Sadducees.

Theſe cruel rites, practiſed in ſo many nations, made Plutarch debate with himſelf, "Whether it would not have been better for the Galatæ, or for the Scythians, to have had no tradition or conception of any ſuperior beings, than to have formed to themſelves notions of gods who delighted in the blood of men; of gods, who eſteemed human victims the moſt acceptable and perfect ſacrifice? Would it not," ſays he, "have been more eligible for the Carthaginians to have had the atheiſt Critias, or Diagorus, their lawgiver at the commencement of their polity, and to have been taught, that there was neither god nor dæmon, than to have ſacrificed, in the manner they were wont, to the god which they adored? Wherein they acted, not as the perſon did whom Empedocles deſcribes in ſome poetry, where he expoſes this unnatural cuſtom. The fire there with many idle vows offers up unwittingly his ſon for a ſacrifice; but the youth was ſo changed in feature and figure, that his father did not know him. Theſe people uſed, knowingly and wilfully, to go through this bloody work, and ſlaughter their own offſpring. Even they who were childleſs would not be exempted from this curſed tribute; but purchaſed children, at a price, of the poorer ſort, and put them to death with as little remorſe as one would kill a lamb or a chicken. The mother, who ſacrificed her child, ſtood by, without any ſeeming ſenſe of what ſhe was loſing, and without uttering a groan. If a ſigh did by chance eſcape, ſhe loſt all the honour which ſhe propoſed to herſelf in the offering; and the child was notwithſtanding ſlain. All the time of this celebrity, while the children were murdering, there was a noiſe of clarions and tabors ſounding before the idol, that the cries and ſhrieks of the victims might not be heard. Tell me now," ſays Plutarch, "if the monſters of old, the Typhons, and the giants, were to expel the gods, and to rule the world in their ſtead; could they require a ſervice more horrid than theſe infernal rites and ſacrifices?"

SACRILEGE, the crime of profaning ſacred things, or thoſe devoted to the ſervice of God.

SACRISTAN, a church-officer, otherwiſe called Sexton.

SACRISTY, in church-hiſtory, an apartment in a church where the ſacred utenſils were kept, being the ſame with our Veſtry.

SADDLE, is a ſeat upon a horſe's back, contrived for the conveniency of the rider.

A hunting-ſaddle is compoſed of two bows, two bands, fore-bolſters, pannels, and ſaddle-ſtraps; and the great ſaddle has, beſides theſe parts, corks, hind-bolſters, and a trouſſequin.

The pommel is common to both.

SADDUCEES, in Jewiſh antiquity, a famous ſect among the ancient Jews, ſo called from their founder Sadoc Antigonus of Socho, preſident of the ſanhedrim at Jeruſalem, and teacher of the law in the principal divinity-ſchool of that city. Having often, in his lectures, aſſerted to his ſcholars, that they ought not

Sadler. || Safe-guard.

not to serve God in a servile manner, with respect to reward, but only out of filial love and fear, two of his scholars, Sadoc and Baithus, inferred from thence, that there were no rewards or punishments after this life; and, therefore, separating from the school of their master, they taught, that there was no resurrection nor future state. Many embracing this opinion, gave rise to the sect of the Sadducees, who were a kind of epicureans; but differing from them in this, that tho' they denied a future state, yet they allowed the world was created by the power of God, and governed by his Providence; whereas the followers of Epicurus denied both.

The Sadducees denied all manner of predestination whatever; and not only rejected all unwritten traditions, but also all the books of the Old Testament, excepting the PENTATEUCH.

SADLER (John), was descended from an ancient family in Shropshire; born in 1615; and educated at Cambridge, where he became eminent for his great knowledge in the oriental languages. He removed to Lincoln's-Inn, where he made no small progress in the study of the law; and in 1644 was admitted one of the masters in Chancery, as also one of the two masters of Requests. In 1649, he was chosen town-clerk of London, and the same year published his *Rights of the Kingdom*. He was greatly esteemed by Oliver Cromwell, by whose special warrant he was continued a master in Chancery, when their number was reduced to six. By his interest it was that the Jews obtained the privilege of building for themselves a synagogue in London. In 1658, he was made member of parliament for Yarmouth; and next year was appointed first commissioner under the great seal with Mr Taylor, Mr Whitelocke, and others, for the probate of wills. In 1660, he published his *Olbia*. Soon after the Restoration, he lost all his employments. In the fire of London in 1666, he was a great sufferer; which obliged him to retire to his seat of Warmwell in Dorsetshire, where he lived in a private manner till 1674, when he died.

SADOLET (James), a polite and learned cardinal of the Romish church, born at Modena in 1477. Leo. X. made him and Peter Bembus his secretaries, an office for which they were both well qualified; and Sadolet was soon after made bishop of Carpentras, near Avignon: he was made a cardinal in 1536 by Paul III. and employed in several negociations and embassies. He died in 1547, not without the suspicion of poison, for corresponding too familiarly with the Protestants, and for testifying too much regard for some of their doctors. His works, which are all in Latin, were collected in 1607 at Mentz, in one vol. 8vo. All his cotemporaries spoke of him in the highest terms.

SADOC, a famous Jewish rabbi, and founder of the sect of the Sadducees. He was the disciple of Antigonus, who taught, that virtue was to be practised for its excellency alone, without regard to any recompence whatever; from whence Sadoc drew this erroneous inference, That no rewards were to be hoped for, nor punishments to be dreaded, in another life. The sect still subsists in Africa. Sadoc flourished about 220 B. C.

SAFE-GUARD, a protection formerly granted to a stranger who feared violence from some of the king's subjects for seeking his right by course of law. Safe-conduct Saffron.

SAFE-*Conduct*, is a security given by a prince under the great seal, to a stranger for his *safe-coming* into and passing out of the realm; the form whereof is in *Reg. Orig.* 25. There are letters of safe-conduct which must be enrolled in chancery; and the persons to whom granted must have them ready to show; and touching which there are several statutes. See PREROGATIVE.

SAFFRON, in the materia medica, is formed of the stigmata of the crocus officinalis *, dried on a kiln, and pressed together into cakes. Of this there are two kinds, the English and Spanish; of which the latter is by far the most esteemed. Saffron is principally cultivated in Cambridgeshire, in a circle of about ten miles diameter. The greatest part of this tract is an open level country, with few inclosures; and the custom there is, as in most other places, to crop two years, and let the land be fallow the third. Saffron is generally planted upon fallow ground, and, all other things being alike, they prefer that which has borne barley the year before.

The saffron ground is seldom above three acres, or less than one; and, in choosing, the principal thing they have regard to is, that they be well exposed, the soil not poor, nor a very stiff clay, but a temperate dry mould, such as commonly lies upon chalk, and is of an hazel-colour; though, if every thing else answers, the colour of the mould is pretty much neglected.

The ground being made choice of, about Lady-day, or the beginning of April, it must be carefully ploughed, the furrows being drawn much closer together, and deeper, if the soil will allow it, than is done for any kind of corn; and accordingly the charge is greater.

About five weeks after, during any time in the month of May, they lay between 20 and 30 loads of dung upon each acre, and having spread it with great care, they plough it in as before. The shortest rotten dung is the best; and the farmers, who have the conveniency of making it, spare no pains to make it good, being sure of a proportionable price for it. About Midsummer they plough a third time, and between every 16 feet and an half they leave a broad furrow or trench, which serves both as a boundary to the several parcels, and for throwing the weeds into at the proper season. The time of planting is commonly in the month of July. The only instrument used at this time is a small narrow spade, commonly called a *spit-shovel*. The method is this: One man with his shovel raises about three or four inches of earth, and throws it before him about six or more inches. Two persons, generally women, follow with roots, which they place in the farthest edge of the trench made by the digger, at about three inches from each other. As soon as the digger has gone once the breadth of the ridge, he begins again at the other side; and, digging as before, covers the roots last set, which makes room for another row of roots at the same distance from the first that they are from one another. The only dexterity necessary in digging is, to leave some part of the first stratum of earth untouched, to lie under the roots; and, in setting, to place the roots directly upon their bottom. The quantity of roots planted on an acre is generally

† See *Crocus*.

Saffron. nerally about 16 quarters, or 128 bushels. From the time of planting till the beginning of September, or sometimes later, there is no more labour required; but at that time they begin to vegetate, and are ready to shew themselves above ground, which may be known by digging up a few of the roots. The ground is then to be pared with a sharp hoe, and the weeds raked into the furrows, otherwise they would hinder the growth of the saffron. In some time after, the flowers appear.

They are gathered before they are full-blown, as well as after, and the proper time for it is early in the morning. The owners of the saffron-fields get together a sufficient number of hands, who pull off the whole flowers, and throw them by handfuls into a basket, and so continue till about 11 o'clock. Having then carried home the flowers, they immediately fall to picking out the stigmata or chives, and together with them a pretty large proportion of the stylus itself, or string to which they are attached: the rest of the flower they throw away as useless. Next morning they return to the field, without regarding whether the weather be wet or dry; and so on daily, even on Sundays, till the whole crop is gathered.—The next labour is to dry the chives on the kiln. The kiln is built upon a thick plank, that it may be moved from place to place. It is supported by four short legs; the outside consists of eight pieces of wood of three inches thick, in form of a quadrangular frame about twelve inches square at the bottom on the infide, and 22 on the upper part; which last is likewise the perpendicular height of it. On the fore-side is left a hole of about eight inches square, and four inches above the plank, through which the fire is put in; over all the rest laths are laid pretty thick, close to one another, and nailed to the frame already mentioned. They are then plaistered over on both sides, as are also the planks at bottom, very thick, to serve for an hearth. Over the mouth is laid a hair-cloth, fixed to the edges of the kiln, and likewise to two rollers, or moveable pieces of wood, which are turned by wedges or screws, in order to stretch the cloth. Instead of the hair-cloth, some people use a net-work, or iron-wire, by which the saffron is sooner dried, and with less fuel; but the difficulty of preserving it from burning makes the hair-cloth preferred by the best judges. The kiln is placed in a light part of the house, and they begin with putting five or six sheets of white paper on the hair-cloth, and upon these they lay out the wet saffron two or three inches thick. It is then covered with some other sheets of paper, and over these they lay a coarse blanket five or six times doubled, or instead of this, a canvas pillow filled with straw; and after the fire has been lighted for some time, the whole is covered with a board having a considerable weight upon it. At first they apply a pretty strong heat, to make the chives *sweat*, as they call it; and at this time a great deal of care is necessary to prevent burning. When it has thus been dried about an hour, they turn the cakes of saffron upside down, putting on the coverings and weight as before. If no sinister accident happens during these first two hours, the danger is thought to be over; and nothing more is requisite than to keep up a very gentle fire for 24 hours, turning the cake every half hour. That fuel is best which yields the least smoke; and for this reason charcoal is preferable to all others.

The quantity of saffron produced at a crop is uncertain. Sometimes five or six pounds of wet chives are got from one rood, sometimes not above one or two; and sometimes not so much as is sufficient to defray the expence of gathering and drying. But it is always observed, that about five pounds of wet saffron go to make one pound of dry for the first three weeks of the crop, and six pounds during the last week. When the heads are planted very thick, two pounds of dry saffron may, at a medium be allowed to an acre for the first crop, and 24 pounds for the two remaining ones, the third being considerably larger than the second.

To obtain the second and third crops, the labour of hoeing, gathering, picking, &c. already mentioned, must be repeated; and about midsummer, after the third crop is gathered, the roots must all be taken up and transplanted. For taking up the roots, sometimes the plough is made use of, and sometimes a forked hoe; and then the ground is harrowed once or twice over. During all the time of ploughing, harrowing, &c.; 15 or more people will find work enough to follow and gather the heads as they are turned up. The roots are next to be carried to the house in sacks, where they are cleaned and rased. This labour consists in cleaning the roots thoroughly from earth, decayed old pieces, involucra, or excrescences; after which they become fit to be planted in new ground immediately, or they may be kept for some time, without danger of spoiling. The quantity of roots taken up in proportion to those planted, is uncertain; but, at a medium, 24 quarters of clean roots, fit to be planted, may be had from each acre.——There sometimes happens a remarkable change in the roots of saffron and some other plants. As soon as they begin to shoot upwards, there are commonly two or three large tap-roots sent forth from the side of the old one, which will run two or three inches deep into the ground. At the place where these bulbs first come out from, the old one will be formed sometimes, though not always, and the tap-root then decays. The bulb increases in bignes, and at last falls quite off; which commonly happens in April. But many times these tap-roots never produce any bulbs, and remain barren for ever after. All such roots therefore should be thrown away in the making a new plantation. This degeneracy of the roots is a disease for which no cure is as yet known.

When saffron is offered to sale, that kind ought to be chosen which has the broadest blades; this being the mark by which English saffron is distinguished from the foreign. It ought to be of an orange, or fiery-red colour, and to yield a dark yellow tincture. It should be chosen fresh, not above a year old, in close cakes, neither dry nor yet very moist, tough and firm in tearing, of the same colour within as without, and of a strong, acrid, diffusive smell.

This drug has been reckoned a very elegant and useful aromatic. Besides the virtues it has in common with other substances of that class, it has been accounted one of the highest cordials, and is said to exhilarate the spirits to such a degree as, when taken in large doses, to occasion immoderate mirth, involuntary laughter, and

and the ill effects which follow from the abuſe of ſpirituous liquors. This medicine is particularly ſerviceable in hyſteric depreſſions proceeding from a cold cauſe or obſtruction of the uterine ſecretions, where other aromatics, even thoſe of the more generous kind, have little effect. Saffron imparts the whole of its virtue and colour to rectified ſpirit, proof ſpirit, wine, vinegar, and water: A tincture drawn with vinegar, loſes greatly of its colour in keeping: the watery and vinous tinctures are apt to grow ſour, and then loſe their colour alſo: that made in pure ſpirit keeps in perfection for many years.

Meadow-SAFFRON. See COLCHICUM.

SAGAPENUM, in pharmacy, &c. a gum-reſin, brought to us in two forms; the finer and purer is in looſe granules, or ſingle drops; the coarſer kind is in maſſes compoſed of theſe drops of various ſizes, cemented together by a matter of the ſame kind. In either caſe, it is of a firm and compact ſubſtance, conſiderably heavy, and of a reddiſh colour on the outſide, browniſh within, and ſpotted in many places with ſmall yellowiſh or whitiſh ſpecks. Its ſmell is ſtrong and diſagreeable; its taſte acrid and unpleaſant.

It is brought to us from Perſia and the Eaſt-Indies. The plant which produces it has never been deſcribed; but is ſuppoſed to be, as Dioſcorides ſays, of the ferula kind, from the ſeeds and fragments of the ſtalks ſometimes met with in the body of it.

Sagapenum is a very great attenuant, aperient, and diſcutient. It is good in all diſorders of the breaſt that owe their origin to a tough phlegm. It has alſo been found to diſcuſs tumours in the nervous parts, in a remarkable manner; and to give relief in habitual headachs, where almoſt all things elſe have failed. Its doſe is from ten grains to two ſcruples; but it is now ſeldom given alone. It has been found, however, to do great things in aſthmas; in obſtructions of the viſcera, particularly the ſpleen; in nervous complaints; and even in epilepſies. It alſo promotes the menſes, and expels the ſecundines; and is an ingredient in the theriaca, mithridate, and many other of the ſhop compoſitions.

SAGE, in botany. See SALVIA.

SAGE (Alain Rene), an ingenious French romance-writer, was born at Ruys in Brittany in the year 1667. He had a fine flow of imagination, was a complete maſter of the French and Spaniſh languages, and wrote ſeveral admired romances in imitation of the Spaniſh authors. Theſe were, The Bachelor of Salamanca, 2 vols 12mo; New Adventures of Don Quixote, 2 vols 12mo. The Devil on Sticks, 2 vols 12mo; and Gil Blas, 4 vols 12mo. He produced alſo ſome comedies, and other pieces of pleaſantry; and died in 1747, in a little houſe near Paris, where he ſupported himſelf by writing.

SAGENE, a Ruſſian long meaſure, 500 of which make a werſt: the ſagene is equal to ſeven Engliſh feet.

SAGITTARIA, ARROW-HEAD; a genus of the polyandria order, belonging to the monœcia claſs of plants. There are four ſpecies, of which the moſt remarkable is the ſagittifolia, growing naturally in many parts of England. The root is compoſed of many ſtrong fibres, which ſtrike into the mud; the footſtalks of the leaves are in length proportionable to the depth of the water in which they grow; ſo they are ſometimes almoſt a yard long: they are thick and fungous; the leaves, which float upon the water, are ſhaped like the point of an arrow, the two ears at their baſe ſpreading wide aſunder, and are very ſharp-pointed. The flowers are produced upon long ſtalks which riſe above the leaves, ſtanding in whorls round them at the joints. They conſiſt of three broad white petals, with a cluſter of ſtamina in the middle, which have purple ſummits. There is always a bulb at the lower part of the root, growing in the ſolid earth beneath the mud. This bulb conſtitutes a conſiderable part of the food of the Chineſe; and upon that account they cultivate it. Horſes, goats, and ſwine, eat it; cows are not fond of it.

SAGITTARIUS, in aſtronomy, the name of one of the 12 ſigns of the zodiac.

SAGO, a ſimple brought from the Eaſt Indies, of conſiderable uſe in diet as a reſtorative. It is produced from a ſpecies of palm-tree growing ſpontaneouſly in the Eaſt Indies without any culture. It riſes to the height of about 20 or 30 feet; its circumference being ſometimes from five to ſix. Its ligneous bark is about an inch in thickneſs, and covers a multitude of long fibres; which, being interwoven one with another, envelope a maſs of a gummy kind of meal. As ſoon as this tree is ripe, a whitiſh duſt, which tranſpires through the pores of the leaves, and adheres to their extremities, proclaim its maturity. The Malais then cut them down near the root, divide them into ſeveral ſections, which they ſplit into quarters: they then ſcoop out the maſs of mealy ſubſtance, which is enveloped by and adheres to the fibres; they dilute it in pure water, and then paſs it through a ſtraining bag of fine cloth, in order to ſeparate it from the fibres. When this paſte has loſt part of its moiſture by evaporation, the Malais throw it into a kind of earthen veſſels, of different ſhapes, where they allow it to dry and harden. This paſte is wholeſome nouriſhing food, and preſerves for many years.

SAGUM, in Roman antiquity, a military habit, open from top to bottom, and uſually faſtened on the right ſhoulder with a buckle or claſp. It was not different in ſhape from the *chlamys* of the Greeks, and the *paludamentum* of the generals. The only difference between them was, that the paludamentum was made of a richer ſtuff, was generally of a purple-colour, and both longer and fuller than the ſagum.

SAICK, or SAIQUE, a Turkiſh veſſel, very common in the Levant for carrying merchandize.

SAIL, in navigation, an aſſemblage of ſeveral breadths of canvas ſewed together by the liſts, and edged round with cord, faſtened to the yards of a ſhip, to make it drive before the wind. See SHIP.

The edges of the cloths, or pieces, of which a ſail is compoſed, are generally ſewed together with a double ſeam: and the whole is ſkirted round at the edges with a cord, called the *bolt-rope*.

Although the form of ſails is extremely different, they are all nevertheleſs triangular or quadrilateral figures; or, in other words, their ſurfaces are contained either between three or four ſides.

The former of theſe are ſometimes ſpread by a yard, as lateen-ſails; and otherwiſe by a ſtay, as ſtay-ſails; or by a maſt, as ſhoulder-of-mutton ſails; in all which caſes the foremoſt leech or edge is attached to the ſaid yard, maſt, or ſtay, throughout its whole length. The latter

Fig. 3.
SAILING.

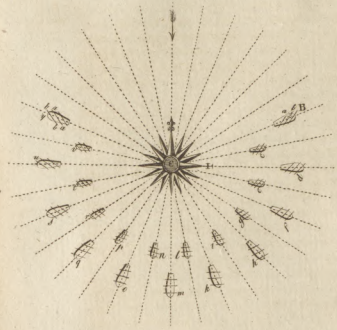

Fig. 1.
SAIL.

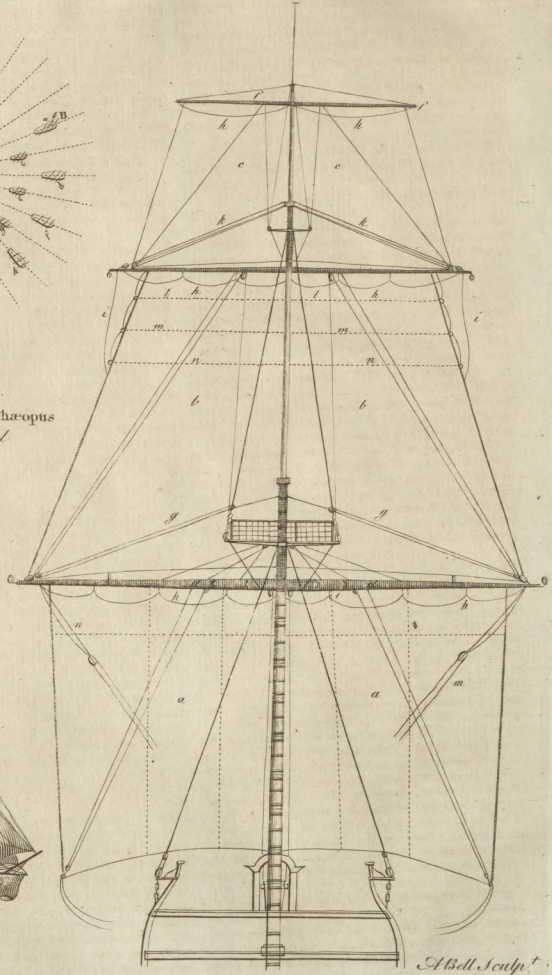

Fig. 4.
SCOLOPAX Phæopus
or Whimbrel.

Fig. 2.

A Bell Sculpt.

latter, or those which are four-sided, are either extended by yards, as the principal sails of a ship; or by yards and booms, as the studding-sails, drivers, ring-tails, and all those sails which are set occasionally; or by gaffs and booms, as the main-sails of sloops and brigantines.

The principal sails of a ship (Plate CCLX. fig. 2.) are the courses or lower sails *a;* the top-sails *b*, which are next in order above the courses; and the top-gallant sails *c*, which are expanded above the top-sails.

The courses are the main-sail, fore-sail, and mizen, main stay-sail, fore-stay sail, and mizen-stay sail; but more particularly the three first. The main-stay sail is rarely used except in small vessels.

In all quadrangular sails the upper edge is called the *head;* the sides or skirts are called *leeches;* and the bottom or lower edge is termed the *foot*. If the head is parallel to the foot, the two lower corners are denominated *clues*, and the upper corners earings.

In all triangular sails, and in those four-sided sails wherein the head is not parallel to the foot, the foremost corner at the foot is called the *tack*, and the after lower corner the *clue;* the foremost perpendicular or sloping edge is called the *fore-leech*, and the hindmost the *after-leech*.

The heads of all four-sided sails, and the fore-leeches of lateen-sails, are attached to their respective yard or gaff by a number of small cords called *ro-bands;* and the extremities are tied to the yard arms, or to the peck of the gaff, by earings.

The stay-sails are extended upon stays between the masts, whereon they are drawn up or down occasionally, as a curtain slides upon its rod, and their lower parts are stretched out by a tack and sheet. The clues of a top-sail are drawn out to the extremities of the lower yard, by two large ropes called the *top-sail sheets;* and the clues of the top-gallant sails are in like manner extended upon the top-sail yard-arms, as exhibited by fig. 2.

The studding-sails are set beyond the leeches or skirts of the main-sail and fore-sail, or of the top-sails or top-gallant sails of a ship. Their upper and lower edges are accordingly extended by poles run out beyond the extremities of the yards for this purpose. Those sails, however, are only set in favourable winds and moderate weather.

All sails derive their name from the mast, yard, or stay, upon which they are extended. Thus the principal sail extended upon the main-mast is called the *main sail, d;* the next above, which stands upon the main-top mast is termed the *main-top sail, e;* and the highest, which is spread across the main-top-gallant-mast, is named the *main top-gallant sail, f.*

In the same manner there is the fore-sail, *g;* the fore-top-sail, *h;* and the fore-top-gallant-sail, *i;* the mizen, *k;* the mizen top-sail, *l;* and mizen top-gallant-sail, *m*. Thus also there is the main-stay-sail, *o;* main-top-mast stay-sail, *p;* and main-top-gallant stay-sail, *q;* with a middle stay-sail which stands between the two last.

N. B. All these stay-sails are between the main and fore masts.

The stay-sails between the main-mast and mizen-mast are the mizen stay-sail, *r;* and the mizen top-mast stay-sail, *s;* and sometimes a mizen top-gallant stay-sail above the latter.

The stay-sails between the fore-mast and the bow-sprit are the fore stay-sail, *t;* the fore top-mast stay-sail, *u;* and the jib, *x*. There is besides two square sails extended by yards under the bowsprit, one of which is called the *sprit-sail, y;* and the other the *sprit-sail top-sail, z*.

The studding-sails being extended upon the different yarps of the main-mast and fore-mast, are likewise named according to their stations, the *lower, top-mast*, or *top gallant studding sails*.

The ropes by which the lower yards of a ship are hoisted up to their proper height on the masts, are called the *jears*. In all other sails the ropes employed for this purpose are called *haliards*.

The principal sails are then expanded by haliards, sheets, and bowlines; except the courses, which are always stretched out below by a tack and sheet. They are drawn up together, or trussed up, by bunt-lines, clue-lines, *dd;* leech-lines, *ee;* reef tackles, *ff;* slab-line, *g;* and spilling-lines. As the bunt-lines and leech-lines pass on the other side of the sail, they are expressed by the dotted lines in the figure.

The courses, top-sails, and top-gallant sails, are wheeled about the mast, so as to suit the various directions of the wind by braces. The higher studding-sails, and in general all the stay-sails, are drawn down, so as to be furled, or taken in, by down-hauls.

Sail is also a name applied to any vessel beheld at a distance under sail.

To Set Sail, is to unfurl and expand the sails upon their respective yards and stays, in order to begin the action of sailing.

To Make Sail, is to spread an additional quantity of sail, so as to increase the ship's velocity.

To Shorten Sail, is to reduce or take in part of the sails, with an intention to diminish the ship's velocity.

To Strike Sail, is to lower it suddenly. This is particularly used in saluting or doing homage to a superior force, or to one whom the law of nations acknowledges as superior in certain regions. Thus all foreign vessels strike to a British man of war in the British seas.

SAILING, the movement by which a vessel is wafted along the surface of the water, by the action of the wind upon her sails.

When a ship changes her state of rest into that of motion, as in advancing out of a harbour, or from her station at anchor, she acquires her motion very gradually, as a body which arrives not at a certain velocity till after an infinite repetition of the action of its weight.

The first impression of the wind greatly affects the velocity, because the resistance of the water might destroy it; since the velocity being but small at first, the resistance of the water which depends on it will be very feeble: but as the ship increases her motion, the force of the wind on the sails will be diminished; whereas, on the contrary, the resistance of the water on the bow will accumulate in proportion to the velocity with which the vessel advances. Thus the repetition of the degrees of force, which the action of the sails adds to the motion of the ship, is perpetually decreasing; whilst, on the contrary, the new degrees added to the effort of resistance on the bow are always augmenting. The velocity

Sailing. velocity is then accelerated in proportion as the quantity added is greater than that which is subtracted: but when the two powers become equal; when the impression of the wind on the sails has lost so much of its force, as only to act in proportion to the opposite impulse of resistance on the bow, the ship will then acquire no additional velocity, but continue to sail with a constant uniform motion. The great weight of the ship may indeed prevent her from acquiring her greatest velocity: but when she has attained it, she will advance by her own intrinsic motion, without gaining any new degree of velocity, or lessening what she has acquired. She moves then by her own proper force *in vacuo*, without being afterwards subject either to the effort of the wind on the sails, or to the resistance of the water on the bow. If at any time the impulsion of the water on the bow should destroy any part of the velocity, the effort of the wind on the sails will revive it, so that the motion will continue the same. It must, however, be observed, that this state will only subsist when these two powers act upon each other in direct opposition; otherwise they will mutually destroy one another. The whole theory of working ships depends on this counter-action, and the perfect equality which should subsist between the effort of the wind and the impulsion of the water.

The effect of sailing is produced by a judicious arrangement of the sails to the direction of the wind. Accordingly the various modes of sailing are derived from the different degrees and situations of the wind with regard to the course of the vessel.

To illustrate this observation by examples, the plan of a number of ships proceeding on various courses are represented by fig. 3. which exhibits the 32 points of the compass, of which C is the centre; the direction of the wind, which is northerly, being expressed by the arrow. Plate CCLX.

It has been observed in the article Close-*Hauled*, that a ship in that situation will sail nearly within six points of the wind. Thus the ships B and *y* are close-hauled; the former being on the larboard tack, steering E. N. E. and the latter on the starboard tack, sailing W. N. W. with their yards *a b* braced obliquely, as suitable to that manner of sailing. The line of battle on the larboard tack would accordingly be expressed by CB, and on the starboard by C*y*.

When a ship is neither close-hauled, nor steering afore the wind, she is in general said to be sailing large. The relation of the wind to her course is precisely determined by the number of points between the latter and the course close-hauled. Thus the ships *c* and *x* have the wind one point large, the former steering E. *b* N. and the latter W. *b* N. The yards remain almost in the same position as in B and *y*; the bowlines and sheets of the sails being only a little slackened.

The ships *d* and *u* have the wind two points large, the one steering east and the other west. In this manner of sailing, however, the wind is more particularly said to be upon the beam, as being at right angles with the keel, and coinciding with the position of the ship's beams. The yards are now more across the ship, the bowlines are cast off, and the sheets more relaxed; so that the effort of the wind being applied nearer to the line of the ship's course, her velocity is greatly augmented.

In *e* and *t* the ships have the wind three points large, or one point abaft the beam, the course of the former being E. *b* S. and that of the latter W. *b* S. The sheets are still more flowing, the angle which the yards make with the keel further diminished, and the course accelerated in proportion. Sailing.

The ships *f* and *s*, the first of which steers E. S. E. and the second W. S. W. have the wind four points large, or two points abaft the beam. In *g* and *r* the wind is five points large, or three points abaft the beam, the former sailing S. E. *b* E. and the latter S. W. *b* W. In both these situations the sheets are still farther slackened, and the yards laid yet more athwart the ship's length, in proportion as the wind approaches the quarter.

The ships *h* and *q*, steering S. E. and S. W. have the wind six points large, or more properly on the quarter; which is considered as the most favourable manner of sailing, because all the sails co-operate to increase the ship's velocity: whereas, when the wind is right aft, as in the ship *m*, it is evident, that the wind in its passage to the foremost sails, will be intercepted by those which are farther aft. When the wind is on the quarter, the fore-tack is brought to the cat-head; and the main-tack being cast off, the weather-clue of the main-sail is hoisted up to the yard, in order to let the wind pass freely to the fore-sail; and the yards are disposed so as to make an angle of about two points, or nearly 22°, with the keel.

The ships *i* and *p*, of which the former sails S. E. *b* S. and the latter S. W. *b* S. are said to have the wind three points on the larboard or starboard quarter: and those expressed by *k* and *o*, two points; as steering S. S. E. and S. S. W. in both which positions the yards make nearly an angle of 16°, or about a point and an half, with the ship's length.

When the wind is one point on the quarter, as in the ships *l* and *n*, whose courses are S. *b* E. and S. *b* W. the situation of the yards and sails is very little different from the last mentioned; the angle which they make with the keel being somewhat less than a point, and the stay-sails being rendered of very little service. The ship *m* sails right afore the wind, or with the wind right aft. In this position the yards are laid at right angles with the ship's length: the stay-sails being entirely useless, are hauled down; and the main-sail is drawn up in the brails, that the fore-sail may operate; a measure which considerably facilitates the steerage, or effort of the helm. As the wind is then intercepted by the main-top-sail and main-top-gallant-sail, in its passage to the fore-top-sail and fore-top-gallant-sail, these latter are by consequence entirely becalmed; and might therefore be furled, to prevent their being fretted by flapping against the mast, but that their effort contributes greatly to prevent the ship from broaching-to, when she deviates from her course to the right or left thereof.

Thus all the different methods of sailing may be divided into four, *viz.* close-hauled, large, quartering, and afore the wind; all which relate to the direction of the wind with regard to the ship's course, and the arrangement of the sails.

Sailing also implies a particular mode of navigation, formed on the principles, and regulated by the laws of trigonometry. Hence we say, Plain Sailing, Mer-

Sailor || Salamanca

Mercator's, Middle-latitude, Parallel, and Great-circle Sailing. See the article NAVIGATION.

SAILOR, the same with MARINER and SEAMAN.

SAINT, in the Romish church, a holy person deceased, and since his decease canonized by the pope, after several informations and ceremonies. See the articles CANONIZATION, &c.

One of the points wherein the Roman-Catholics and Protestants differ is, that the former address, invoke, and supplicate saints, &c. to intercede for them; whereas the latter hold it sufficient to propose their good examples for our imitation. The number of saints, allowed as such in the Romish church, is prodigious. Father Papebroche reckons 17 or 18 to have died on the first of June only. Father Mabillon, in an express dissertation on the worship of unknown saints, observes, that honours are given to saints who perhaps were not Christians, and whose very names were never known: hence, being under a necessity of giving them names, they are therefore called *baptized saints*. He adds, that they every day beseech saints to intercede for them with God, when it is a matter of doubt whether they themselves be in heaven.

SAINT-*Foin*, in botany, a species of the hedysarum. See HEDYSARUM; and AGRICULTURE, n° 136.

SAINT *Januarius's Blood*. See CHEMISTRY, n° 237.

SAL. See SALT.

SAL *Alembroth*. See CHEMISTRY, n° 337.

SAL *Ammoniac*, common. See CHEMISTRY, n° 253.

SAL, *Fixed*, See CHEMISTRY, n° 234.

SAL, *Glauber's* secret. See CHEMISTRY, n° 125.

SAL *Nitrous*. See CHEMISTRY, n° 189.

SAL *Vegetable*. See CHEMISTRY, n° 276.

SAL *Volatile*. See CHEMISTRY, n° 331.

SAL *Digestivus*, Sylvii. See CHEMISTRY, n° 231.

SAL *Diureticus*. See CHEMISTRY, n° 274.

SAL *Microcosmicus*. See CHEMISTRY, n° 308.

SAL *Prunellæ*. See CHEMISTRY, n° 188.

SAL *Sedativus*. See CHEMISTRY, n° 265.

SAL *Volatile Oleosum*. See CHEMISTRY, n° 332.

SALADIN, famous sultan of Egypt, equally renowned as a warrior and legislator. He supported himself by his valour, and the influence of his amiable character, against the united efforts of the chief Christian potentates of Europe, who carried on the most unjust wars against him, under the false appellation of *Holy Wars*. See the articles EGYPT, and CROISADE.

SALAMANCA, an ancient, large, rich, and populous city of Spain, in the kingdom of Leon, situated on the river Tormes, about 75 miles west from Madrid. It is said to have been founded by Teucer the son of Telamon, who called it *Salamis* or *Salmantica*, in memory of the ancient Salamis. Here is an university, the greatest in Spain, and perhaps inferior to none in the whole world, in respect at least to its revenues, buildings, number of scholars, and masters. Here are also many grand and magnificent palaces, squares, convents, churches, colleges, chapels, and hospitals. The bishop of this country is suffragan to the archbishop of Compostella, and has a yearly revenue of 1000 ducats. A Roman way leads from hence to Merida and Seville, and there is an old Roman bridge over the river. Of the colleges in the university, four are appropriated to young men of quality; and near it is an infirmary for poor sick scholars. W. Long. 6. 10. N. Lat. 41. 0.

Salamander || Salamis.

SALAMANDER, in zoology. See LACERTA.

SALAMIS, an island of the Archipelago, situated in E. Long. 34. N. Lat. 37. 32.—It was famous in antiquity for a battle between the Greek and Persian fleets. In the council of war held among the Persians on this occasion, all the commanders were for engaging, because they knew this advice to be most agreeable to the king's inclinations. Queen Artemisia was the only person who opposed this resolution. She was queen of Halicarnassus; and followed Xerxes in this war with five ships, the best equipped of any in the fleet, except those of the Sidonians. This princess distinguished herself on all occasions by her singular courage, and still more by her prudence and conduct. She represented, in the council of war we are speaking of, the dangerous consequences of engaging a people that were far more expert in maritime affairs than the Persians; alleging, that the loss of a battle at sea would be attended with the ruin of their army; whereas, by spinning out the war, and advancing into the heart of Greece, they would create jealousies and divisions among their enemies, who would separate from one another, in order to defend each of them their own country; and that the king might, almost without striking a blow, make himself master of Greece. This advice, though very prudent, was not followed, but an engagement unanimously resolved upon. Xerxes, in order to encourage his men by his presence, caused a throne to be erected on the top of an eminence, whence he might safely behold whatever happened; having several scribes about him, to write down the names of such as should signalize themselves against the enemy. The approach of the Persian fleet, with the news that a strong detachment from the army was marching against Cleombrotus, who defended the isthmus, struck such a terror into the Peloponnesians, that they could not by any intreaties be prevailed upon to stay any longer at Salamis. Being therefore determined to put to sea, and sail to the isthmus, Themistocles privately dispatched a trusty friend to the Persian commanders, informing them of the intended flight; and exhorting them to send part of their fleet round the island, in order to prevent their escape. The same messenger assured Xerxes, that Themistocles, who had sent him that advice, designed to join the Persians, as soon as the battle began, with all the Athenian ships. The king giving credit to all he said, immediately caused a strong squadron to sail round the island in the night, in order to cut off the enemy's flight. Early next morning, as the Peloponnesians were preparing to set sail, they found themselves encompassed on all sides by the Persian fleet; and were against their will obliged to remain in the straits of Salamis, and expose themselves to the same dangers with their allies. The Grecian fleet consisted of 380 sail, that of the Persians of 2000 and upwards. Themistocles avoided the engagement till a certain wind, which rose regularly every day at the same time, and was entirely contrary to the enemy, began to blow. As soon as he found himself favoured by this wind, he gave the signal for battle. The Persians, knowing that they fought under their king's eye, advanced with great resolution; but the wind blowing directly in their faces, and the largeness and number of their ships embarrassing them in a place so strait and

narrow, their courage soon abated; which the Greeks observing, used such efforts, that in a short time breaking into the Persian fleet, they entirely disordered them; some flying towards Phalarus, where their army lay encamped, others saving themselves in the harbours of the neighbouring islands. The Ionians were the first that betook themselves to flight. But queen Artemisia distinguished herself above all the rest, her ships being the last that fled: which Xerxes observing, cried out, that the men behaved like women, and the women with the courage and intrepidity of men. The Athenians were so incensed against her, that they offered a reward of 10,000 drachmas to any one that should take her alive; but she, in spite of all their efforts, got clear of the ships that pursued her, and arrived safe on the coast of Asia. In this engagement, which was one of the most memorable actions we find recorded in history, the Grecians lost 40 ships; and the Persians 200, besides a great many more that were taken, with all the men and ammunition they carried.

SALARY, a recompence or consideration made to a person for his pains and industry in another man's business. The word is used in the statute 23 Ed. III. cap. 1. *Salarium* at first signified the rents or profits of a sale, hall, or house; (and in Gascoigne they now call the seats of the gentry *sala's*, as we do *halls*); but afterwards is was taken for any wages, stipend, or annual allowance.

SALE, is the exchange of a commodity for money; barter, or permutation, is the exchange of one commodity for another. When the bargain is concluded, an obligation is contracted by the buyer to pay the value, and by the seller to deliver the commodity at the time and place agreed on, or immediately, if no time be specified.

In this, as well as other mercantile contracts, the safety of commerce requires the utmost good faith and veracity. Therefore, although, by the laws of England, a sale, above the value of 10l. be not binding, unless earnest be paid, or the bargain confirmed by writing, a merchant would lose all credit who refused from his agreement, although these legal requisites were omitted.

When a specific thing is sold, the property, even before delivery, is in some respect vested in the buyer; and if the thing perishes, the buyer must bear the loss. For example, if a horse dies before delivery, he must pay the value: but if the bargain only determines the quantity and quality of the goods, without specifying the identical articles, and the seller's ware-house, with all his goods, be burned, he is entitled to no payment. He must also bear the loss if the thing perish through his fault; or when a particular time and place of delivery is agreed on, if it perish before it be tendered, in terms of the bargain.

If a person purchase goods at a shop without agreeing for the price, he is liable for the ordinary market-price at the time of purchase.

If the buyer proves insolvent before delivery, the seller is not bound to deliver the goods without payment or security.

If the importation, or use of the commodities sold, be prohibited by law, or if the buyer knows that they were smuggled, no action lies for delivery.

The property of goods is generally presumed, in favour of commerce, to belong to the possessor, and cannot be challenged in the hands of an onerous purchaser. But to this there are some exceptions. By the Scots law, stolen good may in all cases be reclaimed by the proprietor, and also by the English law, unless they were bought *bona fide* in open market; that is, in the accustomed public places, on stated days in the country, or in a shop in London; and horses may be reclaimed, unless the sale be regularly entered by the book-keeper of the market. In all cases, if the goods be evicted by the lawful proprietor, the seller is liable to the purchaser for the value.

Actions for payment of shop-accounts, as well as other debts not constituted by writing, are limited in England to six years. The testimony of one witness is admitted; and the seller's books, although the person that kept them be dead, are good evidence for one year. In Scotland, merchants books may be proved within three years of the date of the last article, by one witness, and the creditor's books and oath in supplement. After three years, they can only be proved by the oath or writ of the debtor. A merchant's books are, in all cases, good evidence against him.

SALEP, in the materia medica, the dried root of a species of orchis. See ORCHIS.

Several methods of preparing salep have been proposed and practised. Geoffroy has delivered a very judicious process for this purpose, in the *Histoire de l'Academie Royale des Sciences*, 1740; and Retmus, in the Swedish Transactions 1764, has improved Geoffroy's method. But Mr Moult of Rochdale has lately favoured the public with a new manner of curing the orchis root; by which salep is prepared, at least equal, if not superior, to any brought from the Levant. The new root is to be washed in water; and the fine brown skin which covers it is to be separated by means of a small brush, or by dipping the root in hot water, and rubbing it with a coarse linen cloth. When a sufficient number of roots have been thus cleaned, they are to be spread on a tin plate, and placed in an oven heated to the usual degree, where they are to remain six or ten minutes, in which time they will have lost their milky whiteness, and acquired a transparency like horn, without any diminution of bulk. Being arrived at this state, they are to removed, in order to dry and harden in the air, which will require several days to effect; or by using a very gentle heat, they may be finished in a few hours.

Salep thus prepared, may be afforded in this part of England, where labour bears a high value, at about eight-pence or ten-pence per pound: And it might be sold still cheaper, if the orchis were to be cured, without separating from it the brown skin which covers it; a troublesome part of the process, and which does not contribute to render the root either more palatable or salutary. Whereas the foreign salep is now sold at five or six shillings per pound.

Salep is said to contain the greatest quantity of vegetable nourishment in the smallest bulk. Hence a very judicious writer, to prevent the dreadful calamity of famine at sea, has lately proposed that the powder of it should constitute part of the provisions of every ship's

Salep. ship's company. This powder and portable ſoup, diſſolved in boiling water, form a rich thick jelly, capable of ſupporting life for a conſiderable length of time. An ounce of each of theſe articles, with two quarts of boiling water, will be ſufficient ſubſiſtence for a man a-day; and as being a mixture of animal and vegetable food, muſt prove more nouriſhing than double the quantity of rice-cake, made by boiling rice in water: which laſt, however, ſailors are often obliged ſolely to ſubſiſt upon for ſeveral months; eſpecially in voyages to Guinea, when the bread and flour are exhauſted, and the beef and pork, having been ſalted in hot countries, are become unfit for uſe.

"But as a wholeſome nouriſhment," ſays Dr Percival, "rice is much inferior to ſalep. I digeſted ſeveral alimentary mixtures prepared of mutton and water, beat up with bread, ſea-biſcuit, ſalep, rice-flour, ſago-powder, potatoe, old cheeſe, &c. in a heat equal to that of the human body. In 48 hours they had all acquired a vinous ſmell, and were in briſk fermentation, except the mixture with rice, which did not emit many air-bubbles, and was but little changed. The third day ſeveral of the mixtures were ſweet, and continued to ferment; others had loſt their inteſtine motion, and were ſour; but the one which contained the rice was become putrid. From this experiment it appears, that rice as an aliment, is ſlow of fermentation, and a very weak corrector of putrefaction. It is therefore an improper diet for hoſpital-patients; but more particularly for ſailors in long voyages; becauſe it is incapable of preventing, and will not contribute much to check the progreſs of that fatal diſeaſe, the ſea-ſcurvy. Under certain circumſtances, rice ſeems diſpoſed of itſelf, without mixture, to become putrid; for by long keeping it ſometimes acquires an offenſive fœtor. Nor can it be conſidered as a very nutritive kind of food, on account of its difficult ſolubility in the ſtomach. Experience confirms the truth of this concluſion; for it is obſerved by the planters in the Weſt-Indies, that the negroes grow thin, and are leſs able to work, whilſt they ſubſiſt upon rice.

"Salep has the ſingular property of concealing the taſte of ſalt water; a circumſtance of the higheſt importance at ſea, when there is a ſcarcity of freſh water. I diſſolved a dram and a half of common ſalt in a pint of the mucilage of ſalep, ſo liquid as to be potable, and the ſame quantity in a pint of ſpring-water. The ſalep was by no means diſagreeable to the taſte, but the water was rendered extremely unpalatable.

"This experiment ſuggeſted to me the trial of the orchis root as a corrector of acidity, a property which would render it a very uſeful diet for children. But the ſolution of it, when mixed with vinegar, ſeemed only to dilute like an equal proportion of water, and not to cover its ſharpneſs.

"Salep, however, appears by my experiments, to retard the acetous fermentation of milk; and conſequently would be a good lithing for milk-pottage, eſpecially in large towns, where the cattle being fed upon ſour draſt, muſt yield acefcent milk.

"Salep in a certain proportion, which I have not yet been able to aſcertain, would be a very uſeful and profitable addition to bread. I directed one ounce of the powder to be diſſolved in a quart of water, and the mucilage to be mixed with a ſufficient quantity of flour, ſalt, and yeaſt. The flour amounted to two pounds, the yeaſt to two ounces, and the ſalt to 80 grains. The loaf when baked was remarkably well fermented, and weighed three pounds two ounces. Another loaf, made with the ſame quantity of flour, &c. weighed two pounds and twelve ounces; from which it appears, that the ſalep, though uſed in ſo ſmall a proportion, increaſed the gravity of the loaf ſix ounces, by abſorbing and retaining more water than the flour alone was capable of. Half a pound of flour and an ounce of ſalep were mixed together, and the water added according to the uſual method of preparing bread. The loaf when baked weighed thirteen ounces and a half; and would probably have been heavier, if the ſalep had been previouſly diſſolved in about a pint of water. But it ſhould be remarked, that the quantity of flour uſed in this trial was not ſufficient to conceal the peculiar taſte of the ſalep. Salep || Salic.

"The reſtorative, mucilaginous, and demulcent qualities of the orchis root, render it of conſiderable uſe in various diſeaſes. In the ſea-ſcurvy it powerfully obtunds the acrimony of the fluids, and at the ſame time is eaſily aſſimilated into a mild and nutritious chyle. In diarrhœas and the dyſentery it is highly ſerviceable, by ſheathing the internal coat of the inteſtines, by abating irritation, and gently correcting putrefaction. In the ſymptomatic fever, which ariſes from the abſorption of pus from ulcers in the lungs, from wounds, or from amputation, ſalep uſed plentifully is an admirable demulcent, and well adapted to reſiſt the diſſolution of the craſis of the blood, which is ſo evident in theſe caſes. And by the ſame mucilaginous quality, it is equally efficacious in the ſtrangury and dyſury; eſpecially in the latter, when ariſing from a venereal cauſe, becauſe the diſcharge of urine is then attended with the moſt exquiſite pain, from the ulceration about the neck of the bladder and through the courſe of the urethra. I have found it alſo an uſeful aliment for patients who labour under the ſtone or gravel."

SALERNO, an ancient and conſiderable town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and capital of the Hither Principato, with an archbiſhop's ſee, a caſtle, harbour, and an univerſity chiefly for medicine. It is ſeated at the bottom of a bay of the ſame name. E. Long. 14. 43. N. Lat. 40. 45.

SALET, in war, a light covering or armour for the head, anciently worn by the light-horſe, only different from the caſque in that it had no creſt and was little more than a bare cap.

SALIANT, in fortification, denotes projecting. There are two kinds of angles, the one ſaliant, which have their point outwards; the other re-entering, which have their points inwards.

SALIANT, SALIENT, or SAILLANT, in heraldry, is applied to a lion, or other beaſt, when is fore-legs are raiſed in a leaping poſture.

SALIC, or SALIQUE, LAW, (*Lex Salica*,) an ancient and fundamental law of the kingdom of France, uſually ſuppoſed to have been made by Pharamond, or at leaſt by Clovis; in virtue whereof males only are to inherit.

Some, as Poſtellus, would have it to have been called *Salic*, q. d. *Gallic*, becauſe peculiar to the Gauls. For Montanus inſiſts, it was becauſe Pharamond

ramond was at first called *Salicus*. Others will have it to be so named, as having been made for the salic lands. These were noble fiefs which their first kings used to bestow on the sallians, that is, the great lords of their salle or court, without any other tenure than military service; and for this reason, such fiefs were not to descend to women, as being by nature unfit for such a tenure. Some, again, derive the origin of this word from the Salians, a tribe of Franks that settled in Gaul in the reign of Julian, who is said to have given them lands on condition of their personal service in war. He even passed the conditions into a law, which the new conquerors acquiesced in, and called it *salic*, from the name of their former countrymen.

SALICORNIA, JOINTED GLASS-WORT, or *Saltwort*, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the monandria class of plants. There are four species, of which the most remarkable are, 1. The fruticosa, with obtuse points, grows plentifully in most of the salt marshes which are overflowed by the tides in many parts of England. It is an annual plant, with thick, succulent, jointed stalks, which trail upon the ground. The flowers are produced at the ends of the joints toward the extremity of the branches, which are small, and scarce discernible by the naked eye. 2. The perennis, with a shrubby branching stalks, grows naturally in Sheppey island. This hath a shrubby branching stalk about six inches long; the points of the articulations are acute; the stalks branch from the bottom, and form a kind of pyramid. They are perennial, and produce their flowers in the same manner as the former.

The inhabitants near the sea-coasts where these plants grow, cut them up toward the latter end of summer, when they are fully grown; and, after having dried them in the sun, they burn them for their ashes, which are used in making of glass and soap. These herbs are by the country people called *kelp*, and promiscuously gathered for use. See the article SALSOLA; also *Dyeing of* LEATHER, p. 4161, note A.

SALII, in Roman antiquity, priests of Mars, whereof there were twelve, instituted by Numa, wearing painted, parti-coloured garments, and high bonnets; with a steel cuirasse on the breast. They were called *salii*, from *saltare* "to dance;" because, after assisting at sacrifices, they went dancing about the streets, with bucklers in their left-hand, and a rod in their right, striking musically with their rods on one another's bucklers, and singing hymns in honour of the gods.

SALISBURY, the capital of the county of Wiltshire in England, situated in W. Long. 1. 55. N. Lat. 51. 3. This city owed its first rise to its cathedral, which was begun in 1219, and finished in 1258. According to an estimate delivered in to Henry III. it cost forty thousand merks. It is a Gothic building, and is certainly the most elegant and regular in the kingdom. The doors and chapels are equal in number to the months, the windows to the days, and the pillars and pilasters to the hours in a year. It is built in the form of a lantern, with a spire in the middle, and nothing but buttresses and glass windows on the outside. The spire is the highest in the kingdom, being 410 feet, which is twice the height of the monument in London. The pillars and pilasters in the church are of fusile marble; the art of making which is now either entirely lost, or little known. The roof of the chapter-house, which is 50 feet in diameter and 150 in circumference, bears all upon one slender pillar, which is such a curiosity as can hardly be matched in Europe. The turning of the western road through the city in the reign of Edward III. was a great advantage to it. The chancellorship of the most noble order of the garter, which is annexed to this see, was first conferred on bishop Richard Beauchamp. The hospital of St Michael's near this city, was founded by one of its bishops. Dr Seth Ward, bishop of this see in the reign of Charles II. contributed greatly to the making the river Avon navigable to Christ-church in Hampshire. The same prelate, in 1683, built an hospital for the entertainment of the widows of poor ministers of the gospel. There are three other churches besides the cathedral, which is without the liberty of the city, and a greater number of boarding-schools, especially for young ladies, than in any other town in England. Here is a manufacture of druggets, flannels, bonelace, and those cloaths called *Salisbury-whites*; in consideration of which, and its fairs, markets, assizes, boarding-schools, and clergy, the city may be justly said to be in a flourishing condition. It was incorporated by Henry III. and is governed by a mayor, high-steward, recorder, deputy-recorder, 24 aldermen, and 30 assistants or common-council men. The number of souls is about 10,000. That quarter called the *close*, where the canons and prebendaries live, is like a fine city of itself. Here is an assembly for the ladies every Tuesday, and coaches set out from hence to London every day. In this town are several charity-schools; the expence of one of them is entirely defrayed by the bishop. The city gives title of earl to the noble family of Cecil.

SALIVA, is that fluid by which the mouth and tongue are continually moistened in their natural state; and is supplied by glands which form it, that are called *salivary glands*. This humour is thin and pellucid, incapable of being concreted by the fire, almost without taste and smell. By chewing, it is expressed from the glands which separate it from the blood, and is intimately mixed with our food, the digestion of which it greatly promotes. In hungry persons it is acrid, and copiously discharged; and in those who have fasted long it is highly acrid, penetrating, and resolvent. A too copious evacuation of it produces thirst, loss of appetite, bad digestion, and an atrophy.

SALIVATION, in medicine, a promoting of the flux of saliva, by means of medicines, mostly by mercury. The chief use of salivation is in diseases belonging to the glands and membrana adiposa, and principally in the cure of the venereal disease; though it is sometimes also used in epidemic diseases, cutaneous diseases, &c. whose crises tend that way.

SALIX, the WILLOW, a genus of the diandria order, belonging to the diœcia class of plants. There are 31 species; of which the most remarkable are, 1. The caprea, or common sallow-tree, grows to but a moderate height, having smooth, dark-green, brittle branches; oval, waved, rough leaves, indented

at

Salix.

at top, and woolly underneath. It grows abundantly in this country, but more frequently in dry than moist situations: it is of a brittle nature, so is unfit for the basket-makers; but will serve for poles, stakes, and to lop for fire-wood; and its timber is good for many purposes. 2. The alba, white, or silver-leaved willow, grows to a great height and considerable bulk, having smooth pale-green shoots; long, spear-shaped, acuminated, sawed, silvery-white leaves, being downy on both sides, with glands below the serratures. This is the common white willow, which grows abundantly about towns and villages, and by the sides of rivers and brooks, &c. 3. The vitellina, yellow or golden willow, grows but to a moderate height; having yellow, very pliant, shoots; oval, acute, serrated, very smooth leaves, with the serratures cartilaginous, and with callous punctures on the foot-stalks. 4. The purpurea, purple, or red willow, grows to a large height, having long, reddish, very pliable shoots, and long spear-shaped, serrated, smooth leaves, the lower ones being opposite. 5. The viminalis, or osier-willow, grows but a moderate height, having slender rod-like branches, very long, pliant, greenish shoots; and very long, narrow, spear-shaped, acute, almost entire leaves, heary, and silky underneath. 6. The pentandria, pentandrous, broad-leaved, sweet-scented willow, grows to some considerable stature, having brownish-green branches; oblong, broad, serrated, smooth, sweet-scented leaves, shining above; and pentandrous flowers. 7. The triandria, or triandrous willow, grows to a large stature, having numerous, erect, greyish-green branches, and pliant shoots; oblong, acute-pointed, serrated smooth, shining-green leaves, eared at the base; and triandrous flowers. 8. The fragilis, fragile or crack-willow, rises to a middling stature, with brownish, very fragile, or brittle branches, long, oval-lanceolate, sawed, smooth leaves of a shining-green on both sides, having dentated-glandular foot-stalks. This sort in particular being exceedingly fragile, so that it easily cracks and breaks, is unfit for culture in osier-grounds. 9. The Babylonica, Babylonian pendulous salix, commonly called *weeping willow*, grows to a largish size, having numerous, long, slender, pendulous branches, hanging down loosely all round in a curious manner, and long, narrow, spear-shaped, serrated, smooth leaves. This curious willow is a native of the east, and is retained in our hardy plantations for ornament, and exhibits a most agreeable variety; particularly when disposed singly by the verges of any piece of water, or in spacious openings of grass-ground.

All the species of salix are of the tree kind, very hardy, remarkably fast growers, and several of them attaining a considerable stature when permitted to run up to standards. They are mostly of the aquatic tribe, being generally the most abundant and of most prosperous growth in watery situations: they however will grow freely almost any where, in any common soil and exposure; but grow considerably the fastest and strongest in low moist land, particularly in marshy situations, by the verges of rivers, brooks, and other waters; likewise along the sides of watery ditches, &c. which places often lying waste, may be employed to good advantage, in plantations of willows, for different purposes.

Sallee || Sallustius.

SALLEE, an ancient and considerable town of Africa in the kingdom of Fez, with a harbour and several ports. The harbour of Sallee is one of the best in the country; and yet, on account of a bar that lies across it, ships of the smallest draught are forced to unload and take out their guns before they can get into it. There are docks to build ships; but they are hardly ever used, for want of skill and materials. It is a large place, divided into the Old and New Towns, by the river Guero. It has long been famous for its rovers or pirates, which make prizes of all Christian ships that come in their way, except there is a treaty to the contrary. W. Long. 6. 30. N. Lat. 34. 0.

SALLO (Denis de), a French writer, famous for being the projector of literary journals, was born at Paris in 1626. He studied the law, and was admitted a counsellor in the parliament of Paris in 1652. It was in 1664 he schemed the plan of the *Journal des Sçavans;* and the year following began to publish it under the name of Sieur de Heronville, which was that of his valet de chambre. But he played the critic so severely, that authors, surprised at the novelty of such attacks, retorted so powerfully, that M. de Sallo, unable to weather the storm, after he had published his third Journal, declined the undertaking, and turned it over to the abbe Gallois; who, without presuming to criticise, contented himself merely with giving titles, and making extracts. Such was the origin of literary journals, which afterwards sprang up in other countries under different titles; and the success of them, under judicious management, is a clear proof of their utility. M. de Sallo died in 1669.

SALLUSTIUS (Caius Crispus), a celebrated Roman historian, was born at Amiternum, a city of Italy, in the year of Rome 669, and before Christ 85. His education was liberal, and he made the best use of it; of which we need no other proof, than those valuable historical monuments of his, that are happily transmitted to us among the few remains of antiquity. No man has inveighed more sharply against the vices of his age than this historian; yet no man had less pretensions to virtue than he. His youth was spent in a most lewd and profligate manner; and his patrimony almost squandered away, when he had scarcely taken possession of it. Marcus Varro, a writer of undoubted credit, relates, in a fragment preserved by Aulus Gellius, that Sallust was actually caught in bed with Fausta the daughter of Sylla, by Milo her husband; who scourged him very severely, and did not suffer him to depart till he had redeemed his liberty with a considerable sum. A U.C. 694, he was made questor, and in 702 tribune of the people; in neither of which places is he allowed to have acquitted himself at all to his honour. By virtue of his questorship, he obtained an admission into the senate; but was expelled thence by the censors in 704, on account of his immoral and debauched way of life. In the year 705 Cæsar restored him to the dignity of a senator; and to introduce him into the house with a better grace, made him questor a second time. In the administration of this office he behaved himself very scandalously; exposed every thing to sale that he could find a purchaser for; and if we may believe the author of the invective, thought nothing wrong which he had a mind to do: *Nihil non venale habuerit, cujus aliquis emptor fuit, nihil non*

Sally || Salmo.

æquum et verum duxit, quod ipsi facere collibuisset. In the year 707, when the African war was at an end, he was made prætor for his services to Cæsar, and sent to Numidia. Here he acted the same part as Verres had done in Sicily; outrageously plundered the province; and returned with such immense riches to Rome, that he purchased a most magnificent building upon mount Quirinal, with those gardens which to this day retain the name of *Sallustian gardens*, besides his country house at Tivoli. How he spent the remaining part of his life, we have no account from ancient writers. Eusebius tells us, that he married Terentia, the divorced wife of Cicero; and that he died at the age of 50, in the year 710, which was about four years before the battle of Actium. Of the many things which he wrote, we have nothing remaining but his Histories of the Catilinarian and Jugurthine wars; together with some orations or speeches, printed with his fragments.

SALLY-PORTS, in fortification, or *Postern-Gates*, as they are sometimes called, are those under-ground passages which lead from the inner works to the outward ones; such as from the higher flank to the lower, or to the tenailles, or the communication from the middle of the curtain to the ravelin. When they are made for men to go through only, they are made with steps at the entrance and going out. They are about 6 feet wide, and $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet high. There is also a gnter or shore made under the sally-ports, which are in the middle of the curtains, for the water which runs down the streets to pass into the ditch; but this can only be done when there are wet ditches. When sally-ports serve to carry guns through them for the out-works, instead of making them with steps, they must have a gradual slope, and be 8 feet wide.

SALMASIUS (Claudius), a French writer of uncommon abilities and immense erudition, descended from an ancient and noble family, and born at or near Semur in 1596. His mother, who was a Protestant, infused her notions of religion into him, and he at length converted his father: he settled at Leyden; and in 1650 paid a visit to Christina queen of Sweden, who is reported to have shown him extraordinary marks of regard. Upon the violent death of Charles I. of England, he was prevailed on by the royal family, then in exile, to write a defence of that king; which was answered by our famous Milton in 1651, in a work intitled *Defensio pro Populo Anglicano contra Claudii Salmasii Defensionem Regiam.* This book was read over all Europe; and conveyed such a proof of the writer's abilities, that he was respected even by those who hated his principles. Salmasius died in 1653; and some did not scruple to say, that Milton killed him by the acuteness of his reply. His works are numerous and of various kinds; but the greatest monuments of his learning are, his *Notæ in Historiæ Augustæ Scriptores*, and his *Exercitationes Plinianæ in Solinum.*

SALMO, the SALMON; a genus of the order of abdominales. The head is smooth, and furnished with teeth and a tongue; the rays of the gills are from four to ten; the back-fin is fat behind; and the belly-fins have many rays. There are 29 species, of which the most remarkable are,

1. The salar, or common salmon, is a northern fish, being unknown in the Mediterranean sea and other warm climates: it is found in France in some of the rivers that empty themselves into the ocean, and north as far as Greenland; they are also very common in Newfoundland, and the northern parts of North America. Salmons are taken in the rivers of Kamtschatka; but whether they are of the same species with the European kind, is not very certain. They are in several countries a great article of commerce, being cured different ways, by salting, pickling, and drying: there are stationary fisheries in Iceland, Norway, and the Baltic; but we believe nowhere greater than those at Colraine in Ireland; and in Great Britain, at Berwick and in some of the rivers of Scotland. The salmon was known to the Romans, but not to the Greeks. Pliny speaks of it as a fish found in the rivers of Aquitaine: Ausonius enumerates it among those of the Mosel. The salmon is a fish that lives both in the salt and fresh waters; quitting the sea at certain seasons for the sake of depositing its spawn in security, in the gravelly beds of rivers remote from their mouths. There are scarce any difficulties but what they will overcome, in order to arrive at places fit for their purpose: they will ascend rivers hundreds of miles, force themselves against the most rapid streams, and spring with amazing agility over cataracts of several feet in height. Salmon are frequently taken in the Rhine as high up as Basil; they gain the sources of the Lapland rivers in spite of their torrent-like currents, and surpass the perpendicular falls of Leixslip, Kennerth, and Pont Aberglastyn. It may here be proper to contradict the vulgar error of their taking their tail in their mouth when they attempt to leap; such as Mr Pennant saw, sprung up quite straight, and with a strong tremulous motion.

The salmon is a fish so generally known, that a very brief description will serve. The largest we ever heard of weighed 74 pounds. The colour of the back and sides are grey, sometimes spotted with black, sometimes plain: the covers of the gills are subject to the same variety; the belly silvery; the nose sharp-pointed; the end of the under jaw in the males often turns up in the form of a hook; sometimes this curvature is very considerable: it is said that they lose this hook when they return to the sea. The teeth are lodged in the jaws and on the tongue, and are slender, but very sharp; the tail is a little forked.

2. The trutta, or sea-trout, migrates like the true salmon up several of our rivers; spawns, and returns to the sea. That described by Mr Pennant was taken in the Tweed below Berwick, June 1769. The shape was more thick than the common trout; the weight three pounds two ounces. The irides silver; they head thick, smooth, and dusky, with a gloss of blue and green; the back of the same colour, which grows fainter towards the side-line. The back is plain, but the sides as far as the lateral line are marked with large distinct irregularly-shaped spots of black: the lateral line straight; the sides beneath the line, and the belly, are white. Tail broad, and even at the end. The dorsal fin had 12 rays; the pectoral 14; the ventral 9; the anal 10. The flesh when boiled is of a pale red, but well-flavoured.

3. The fario, or trout; the colours of which vary greatly in different waters, and in different seasons. Trouts differ also in size. One taken in Llynallet, Denbighshire, which is famous for an excellent kind, measured 17 inches, its depth three and three quarters, its

Salmo.

Salmo. its weight one pound ten ounces; the head thick; the nose rather sharp; the upper jaw a little longer than the lower; both jaws, as well as the head, were of a pale brown, blotched with black; the teeth sharp and strong, disposed in the jaws, roof of the mouth, and tongue. The back was dusky; the sides tinged with a purplish bloom, marked with deep purple spots, mixed with black above and below the side-line which was straight; the belly white. The first dorsal fin was spotted; the spurious fin brown, tipped with red; the pectoral, ventral, and anal fins, of a pale brown; the edges of the anal fin white; the tail very little forked when extended.—The stomachs of the common trouts are uncommonly thick and muscular. They feed on the shell-fish of lakes and rivers, as well as on small fish. They likewise take into their stomachs gravel or small stones, to assist in comminuting the testaceous parts of their food. The trouts of certain lakes in Ireland, such as those of the province of Galway and some others, are remarkable for the great thickness of their stomachs, which, from some slight resemblance to the organs of digestion in birds, have been called *gizzards;* the Irish name the species that has them, *gillaroo trouts*. These stomachs are sometimes served up to table under the former appellation. Trouts are most voracious fish, and afford excellent diversion to the angler. The passion for the sport of angling is so great in the neighbourhood of London, that the liberty of fishing in some of the streams in the adjacent counties is purchased at the rate of 10 l. *per* annum. These fish shift their quarters to spawn; and like salmon, make up towards the heads of rivers to deposit their roes. The under jaw of the trout is subject, at certain times, to the same curvature as that of the salmon.

4. The species, called from its colour the *white*, migrates out of the sea into the river Esk in Cumberland, from July to September. When dressed, their flesh is red, and most delicious eating. They have, on their first appearance from the salt water, the *lernæa salmonea*, or salmon louse, adhering to them. They have both milt and spawn; but no fry has as yet been observed. This is the fish called by the Scots *phinocs*. They never exceed a foot in length. The upper jaw is a little longer than the lower; in the first are two rows of teeth, in the last one: on the tongue are six teeth. The back is straight; the whole body of an elegant form: the lateral line is straight; colour, between that and the top of the back, dusky and silvery intermixed; beneath the line, of an exquisite whiteness; first dorsal fin spotted with black: tail black, and much forked.

5. The samlet is the least of the trout kind; is frequent in the Wye, in the upper part of the Severn, and the rivers that run into it, in the north of England, and in Wales. It is by several imagined to be the fry of the salmon; but Mr Pennant dissents from that opinion. See his *Brit. Zool.* III. 303.

This species has a general resemblance to the trout, therefore must be described comparatively. *1st*, The head is proportionably narrower, and the mouth less than that of the trout. *2dly*, Their body is deeper. *3dly*, They seldom exceed six or seven inches in length; at most, eight and a half. *4thly*, The pectoral fins have generally but one large black spot, though sometimes a single small one attends it; whereas the pectoral fins of the trout are more numerously marked. *5thly*, The spurious or fat fin on the back is never tipped with red; nor is the edge of the anal fin white. *6thly*, The spots on the body are fewer, and not so bright: it is also marked from the back to the sides with six or seven large bluish bars; but this is not a certain character, as the same is sometimes found in young trouts. *7thly*, The tail of the samlet is much more forked than that of the trout. These fish are very frequent in the rivers of Scotland, where they are called *pars*. They are also common in the Wye, where they are known by the name of *skirlings*, or *lasprings*. Salmo.

6. The alpinus, or charr, is an inhabitant of the lakes of the north, and of those of the mountainous parts of Europe. It affects clear and pure waters, and is very rarely known to wander into running streams, except into such whose bottom is similar to the neighbouring lake. It is found in vast abundance in the cold lakes on the summits of the Lapland Alps, and is almost the only fish that is met with in any plenty in those regions; where it would be wonderful how they subsisted, had not Providence supplied them with innumerable larvæ of the gnat kind: these are food to the fish, who in their turn are a support to the migratory Laplanders in their summer-voyages to the distant lakes. In such excursions those vacant people find a luxurious and ready repast in these fish, which they dress and eat without the addition of sauces; for exercise and temperance render useless the inventions of epicurism. There are but few lakes in our island that produce this fish; and even those not in any abundance. It is found in Winander Mere in Westmoreland; in Llyn Quellyn, near the foot of Snowdon; and, before the discovery of the copper-mines, in those of Llynberris; but the mineral streams have entirely destroyed the fish in the last lakes. In Scotland it is found in Loch Inch, and other neigbouring lakes, and is said to go into the Spey to spawn.

"The largest and most beautiful we ever received (says Mr Pennant) were taken in Winender Mere, and were communicated by the Rev. Mr Farrish of Carlisle, with an account of their natural history. He sent five specimens; two under the name of the *case charr*, male and female; another he called the *gelt charr*, i. e. a charr which had not spawned the preceding season, and on that account is reckoned to be in the greatest perfection. The two others were inscribed, the *red charr*, the *silver* or *gilt charr*, the *carpia lacus benaci*, Raii *Syn. pisc.* 66. which last are in Westmoreland distinguished by the epithet *red*, by reason of the flesh assuming a higher colour than the other when dressed.

"The umbla minor, or case charr, spawns about Michaelmas, and chiefly in the river Brathy, which uniting with another called the *Rowthay*, about a quarter of a mile above the lake, they both fall into it together. The Brathy has a black, rocky bottom; the bottom of the Rowthay is a bright sand, and into this the charr are never observed to enter. Some of them, however, spawn in the lake; but always in such parts of it which are stony, and resemble the channel of the Brathy. They are supposed to be in the highest perfection about May, and continue so all the summer; yet are rarely caught after April. When they are spawning

ſpawning in the river they will take a bait, but at no other time; being commonly taken, as well as the other ſpecies, in what they call *breaſt-nets*, which are in lengh about 24 fathoms, and about 5 where broadeſt.—The ſeaſon which the other ſpecies ſpawn in is from the beginning of January to the end of March. They are never known to aſcend the rivers, but always in thoſe parts of the lake which are ſpringy, where the bottom is ſmooth and ſandy, and the water warmeſt. The fiſhermen judge of this warmth, by obſerving that the water ſeldom freezes in the places where they ſpawn except in intenſe froſts, and then the ice is thinner than in other parts of the lake. They are taken in greateſt plenty from the end of September to the end of November; at other times they are hardly to be met with. This ſpecies is much more eſteemed for the table than the other, and is very delicate when potted. The length of the red charr to the diviſion in its tail, was 12 inches; its biggeſt circumference almoſt 7. The firſt dorſal fin was five inches and three quarters from the tip of its noſe, and conſiſted of 12 branched rays, the firſt of which was ſhort, the fifth the longeſt; the fat fin was very ſmall. Each of the five fiſh had double noſtrils, and ſmall teeth in the jaws, roof of the mouth, and on the tongue.—The jaws of the caſe-charr are perfectly even; on the contrary, thoſe of the red-charr were unequal, the upper jaw being the broadeſt, and the teeth hung over the lower, as might be perceived on paſſing the finger over them.—The gelt or barren charr, was rather more ſlender than the others, as being without ſpawn. The back was of a gloſſy duſky blue; the ſides ſilvery, mixed with blue, ſpotted with pale red; the ſides of the belly were of a pale red, the bottom white. The tails of each bifurcated."

7. The thymallus, or grayling, haunts clear and rapid ſtreams, and particularly thoſe that flow through mountainous countries. It is found in the rivers of Derbyſhire; in ſome of thoſe of the north; in the Tame near Ludlow; in the Lug, and other ſtreams near Leominſter; and in the river near Chriſtchurch, Hampſhire. It is alſo very common in Lapland: the inhabitants make uſe of the guts of this fiſh inſtead of rennet, to make the cheeſe which they get from the milk of the rein deer. It is a voracious fiſh, riſes freely to the fly, and will very eagerly take a bait. It is a very ſwift ſwimmer, and diſappears like the tranſient paſſage of a ſhadow, from whence we believe it derived the name of *umbra*.

Effugienſque oculos celeri levis umbra *natatu.* AUSON.

The *umbra* ſwift eſcapes the quickeſt eye.

Thymalus and *thymus*, are names beſtowed on it on account of the imaginary ſcent, compared by ſome to that of thyme; but we never could perceive any particular ſmell. It is a fiſh of an elegant form; leſs deep than that of a trout: the largeſt we ever heard of was taken near Ludlow, which was about half a yard long, and weighed four pounds ſix ounces; but this was a very rare inſtance. The irides are ſilvery, tinged with yellow: the teeth very minute, ſeated in the jaws and the roof of the mouth, but none on the tongue: the head is duſky; the covers of the gills of a gloſſy green: the back and ſides of a fine ſilvery grey; but when the fiſh is juſt taken, varied ſlightly with blue and gold: the ſide-line is ſtraight: the ſcales are large, and the lower edges duſky, forming ſtraight rows from head to tail: the tail is much forked.

8. The eperlanus, or ſmelt, inhabits the ſeas of the northern parts of Europe, and probably never is found as far ſouth as the Mediterranean: the Seine is one of the French rivers which receive it; but whether it is found ſouth of that, we have not at preſent authority to ſay. If we can depend on the obſervations of navigators, who generally have too much to think of to attend to the minutiæ of natural hiſtory, theſe fiſh are taken in the ſtraits of Magellan, and of a moſt ſurpriſing ſize, ſome meaſuring 20 inches in length, and 8 in circumference. They inhabit the ſeas that waſh theſe iſlands the whole year, and never go very remote from ſhore, except when they aſcend the rivers. It is remarked in certain rivers, that they appear a long time before they ſpawn, being taken in great abundance in November, December, and January, in the Thames and Dee, but in others not till February; and in March and April they ſpawn; after which they all return to the ſalt water, and are not ſeen in the rivers till the next ſeaſon. It has been obſerved, that they never come into the Merſey as long as there is any ſnow-water in the river. Theſe fiſh vary greatly in ſize; but the largeſt we ever heard of was 13 inches long, and weighed half a pound. They have a very particular ſcent, from whence is derived one of their Engliſh names, *ſmelt*, i. e. ſmell it. That of *ſparling*, which is uſed in Wales and the north of England, is taken from the French *ſperlan*. There is a wonderful diſagreement in the opinion of people in reſpect to the ſcent of this fiſh: ſome aſſert it flavours of the violet; the Germans, for a very different reaſon, diſtinguiſh it by the elegant title of *ſtinckfiſch*.—Smelts are often ſold in the ſtreets of London ſplit and dried. They are called *dried ſparlings*; and are recommended as a reliſh to a glaſs of wine in the morning. It is a fiſh of a very beautiful form and colour; the head is tranſparent, and the ſkin in general ſo thin, that with a good microſcope the blood may be obſerved to circulate. The irides are ſilvery; the pupil of a full black; the under jaw is the longeſt: in the front of the upper jaw are four large teeth; thoſe in the ſides of both are ſmall; in the roof of the mouth are two rows of teeth; on the tongue two others of large teeth. The ſcales are ſmall, and readily drop off: the tail conſiſts of 19 rays, and is forked. The colour of the back is whitiſh, with a caſt of green, beneath which it is varied with blue, and then ſucceeds a beautiful gloſs of a ſilvery hue.

9. The lavaretus, or gwiniad, is an inhabitant of ſeveral of the lakes of the alpine parts of Europe. It is found in thoſe of Switzerland, Savoy, and Italy; of Norway, Sweden, Lapland, and Scotland; in thoſe of Ireland, and of Cumberland; and in Wales, in that of Llyntegid, near Bala, in Merionethſhire. It is the ſame with the ſerra of the lake of Geneva; the ſchelly of Hulſe-water; the pollen of Lough Neagh; and the vangis and juvengis of Loch Mabon. The Scots have a tradition, that it was firſt introduced there by the beauteous queen, their unhappy Mary Stuart; and as in her time the Scots court was much Frenchified, it ſeems likely that the name was derived from the French *vendoiſe*, a "dace;" to which a ſlight obſerver might be tempted to compare it, from the

Salmon || Salses.

the whiteness of its scales. The British name *gwiniad*, or *whiting*, was bestowed upon it for the same reason. It is a gregarious fish, and approaches the shores in vast shoals in spring and in summer; which proves in many places a blessed relief to the poor of inland countries, in the same degree as the annual return of the herring is to those who inhabit the coasts. Between 7000 and 8000 have been taken at one draught. The gwiniad is a fish of an insipid taste, and must be eaten soon, for it will not keep long; those that choose to preserve them do it with salt. They die very soon after they are taken. Their spawning season in Llyntegid is in December. The largest gwiniad we ever heard of weighed between three and four pounds: the head is small, smooth, and of a dusky hue: the eyes very large; the pupil of a deep blue: the nose blunt at the end; the jaws of equal length: the mouth small and toothless: the branchiostegous rays nine: the covers of the gills silvery, powdered with black. The back is a little arched, and slightly carinated: the colour, as far as the lateral line, is glossed with deep blue and purple; but towards the lines assumes a silvery cast, tinged with gold; beneath which those colours entirely prevail. The tail is very much forked: the scales are large, and adhere close to the body.

SALMON, in ichthyology. See SALMO, n° 1.

SALMON-*Fishery*. See FISHERY.

SALON, or SALOON, in architecture, a lofty, spacious sort of hall, vaulted at top, and usually comprehending two stories, with two ranges of windows.

The salon is a grand room in the middle of a building, or at the head of a gallery, &c. Its faces, or sides, are all to have a symmetry with each other; and as it usually takes up the height of two stories, its ceiling, Daviler observes, should be with a moderate sweep.

The salon is a state-room much used in the palaces in Italy; and from thence the mode came to us. Ambassadors, and other great visitors, are usually received in the salon.

It is sometimes built square, sometimes round or oval, sometimes octogonal, as at Marly, and sometimes in other forms.

SALONICHI, formerly called *Thessalonica*, a seaport town of Turkey in Europe, and capital of Macedonia, with an archbishop's see. It is ancient, large, populous, and rich, being about 10 miles in circumference. It is a place of great trade, carried on principally by the Greek Christians and Jews, the former of which have 30 churches, and the latter as many synagogues; the Turks also have a few mosques. It is surrounded with walls, flanked with towers, and defended on the land-side by a citadel, and near the harbour with three forts. It was taken from the Venetians by the Turks in 1431. The principal merchandize is silk. It is seated at the bottom of a gulph of the same name, partly on the top, and partly on the side of a hill, near the river Vardar. E. Long. 23. 13. N. Lat. 40. 41.

SALSES, a very strong castle of France, in Roussillon, on the confines of Languedoc. It was taken from the Spaniards by the French in 1642; and is seated on a lake of the same name, among mountains, 10 miles north of Perignan. E. Long. 3. 0. N. Lat. 43. 35.

SALSETTA, an island of Asia, in the East-Indian ocean, near the peninsula on this side the Ganges, and on the coast of the kingdom of Decan. It is 25 miles in length, and 12 in breadth; and is very fertile in rice, fruit, and sugar-canes. It belongs to the Portuguese, and the Jesuits possess the best part of it. It has a great many villages and churches; but no town, except an old one called *Cora*, hewn out of the side of a rock, which is extremely ancient. It is near a mile in length, and has many antique figures and columns, curiously carved in the rock; at present it has no inhabitants but wild beasts and birds of prey. They have no trade, except in dried fish, because it is so near Bombay, being only separated from it by a channel half a mile over, which is fordable at low water. E. Long. 72. 15. N. Lat. 19. 0.

Salsola, Salsola.

SALSOLA, GLASS-WORT; a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants.

The species are, 1. The kali, which grows naturally in the salt marshes in divers parts of England. It is an annual plant, which rises above five or six inches high, sending out many side branches, which spread on every side, garnished with short awl-shaped leaves; which are fleshy, and terminate in acute spines. The flowers are produced from the side of the branches, to which they sit close, and are encompassed by short prickly leaves; they are small, and of an herbaceous colour. The seeds are wrapped up in the empalement of the flower, and ripen in autumn; soon after which, the plant decays. 2. The tragus grows naturally on the sandy shores of the south of France, Spain, and Italy. This is also an annual plant, which sends out many diffused stalks, garnished with linear leaves an inch long, ending with sharp spines. The flowers come out from the side of the stalks in the same manner as those of the former; their empalements are blunt, and not so closely encompassed with leaves as those of the other. 3. The soda, rises with herbaceous stalks near three feet high, spreading wide. The leaves on the principal stalk, and those on the lower part of the branches, are long, slender, and have no spines; those on the upper part of the stalk and branches are slender, short, and crooked. At the base of the leaves are produced the flowers, which are small, and hardly perceptible; the empalement of the flower afterwards encompasses the capsule, which contains one cochleated seed. 4. The verminculata grows naturally in Spain. This hath shrubby perennial stalks, which rise three or four feet high, sending out many side-branches, garnished with fleshy, oval, acute-pointed leaves, coming out in clusters from the side of the branches; they are hoary, and have stiff prickles. The flowers are produced from between the leaves toward the ends of the branches; they are so small as scarce to be discerned, unless they are closely viewed. The seeds are like those of the other kinds. 5. The rosacea grows naturally in Tartary. This is an annual plant, whose stalks are herbaceous, and seldom rise more than five or six inches high. The leaves are awl-shaped, ending in acute points; the empalements of the flowers spread open; the flowers are small, and of a rose colour, but soon fade: the seeds are like those of the other sorts.

All the sorts of glass-wort are sometimes promiscuously

cuously used for making the sal alkali, but it is the third sort which is esteemed best for this purpose. The manner of making it is as follows: Having dug a trench near the sea, they place laths across it, on which they lay the herb in heaps, and, having made a fire below, the liquor, which runs out of the herbs, drops to the bottom, which at length thickening becomes sal alkali, which is partly of a black, and partly of an ash-colour, very sharp and corrosive, and of a saltish taste. This, when thoroughly hardened, becomes like a stone, and is then called *soude* or *sode*. It is transported from thence to different countries for making of glass.

SALT, one of the great divisions of natural bodies, but which has never yet been accurately defined. The characteristic marks of salt have usually been reckoned its power of affecting the organs of taste, and being soluble in water. But this will not distinguish salt from quicklime, which also affects the sense of taste, and dissolves in water; yet quicklime has been universally reckoned an earth, and not a salt. The only distinguishing property of salts, therefore, is their crystallization in water: however, this does not belong to all salts; for the nitrous and marine acids, though allowed on all hands to be salts, are yet incapable of crystallization, at least by any method hitherto known. Several of the imperfect neutral salts also, such as combinations of the nitrous, muriatic, and vegetable acids, with some kinds of earths, crystallize with very great difficulty. However, by the addition of spirit of wine, or some other substances which absorb part of the water, keeping the liquor in a warm place, &c. all of them may be reduced to crystals of one kind or other. Salt, therefore, may be defined a substance affecting the organs of taste, soluble in water, and capable of crystallization, either by itself or in conjunction with some other body; and, universally, every salt capable of being reduced into a solid form, is also capable of crystallization *per se*. Thus the class of saline bodies will be sufficiently distinguished from all others: for quicklime, though soluble in water, cannot be crystallized without addition either of fixed air or some other acid; yet it is most commonly found in a solid state. The precious stones, basalts, &c. tho' supposed to be formed by crystallization, are nevertheless distinguished from salts by their insipidity and insolubility in water.

The ancient chemists asserted that salt was one of the component principles of metals, and indeed of every thing else; a doctrine which is attempted to be revived by Dr Price of Guildford, now famous on account of his discovery of the transmutation of metals *. This gentleman thinks it probable that the basis of all imperfect metals is saline, because Mr Scheele has lately extracted a real acid from arsenic, which, by the addition of a proper quantity of phlogiston, becomes a semimetal. But here the argument will hold only with regard to the semimetals, all of which are volatile in the fire, and therefore may possibly have a volatile basis, such as all acids are in some degree: but some of the imperfect metals, as tin and copper, may be reduced to a calx equally refractory with quicklime itself; and even zinc, though volatile in close vessels, is yet capable of being reduced to an exceedingly refractory calx called *flowers of zinc*; and it is to be observed, that the regulus of arsenic, even in its most perfect metalline form, cannot be calcined like other metals. The common opinion that metals have an earthy, rather than a saline basis, seems to be well founded.

* See *Philosopher's* STONE.

The origin of salts is very much, or rather totally unknown. Some eminent chemists, particularly Stahl, have supposed that the number of substances truly and essentially saline is very small; nay, that there is but one saline principle in nature. This principle they suppose to be the vitriolic acid, as being the most simple and indestructible of them all. Stahl delivers his opinion on this subject in the following words: "That he considers the vitriolic acid as the only substance essentially saline; as the only saline principle, which by uniting more or less intimately with other substances that are not saline, is capable of forming an innumerable multitude of other saline matters, which nature and art shew us; and secondly, that this saline principle is a secondary principle, composed only by the intimate union of two primary principles, water and earth."

In support of this theory Mr Macquer argues in the following manner: "Every true chemist will easily discover that this grand idea is capable of comprehending by its generality, and of connecting together, all the phenomena exhibited by saline substances. But we must at the same time acknowledge, that when we examine the proofs upon which it is founded, although it has a great appearance of truth by its consistency with the principles of chemistry, and with many phenomena, yet it is not supported by a sufficient number of facts and experiments to ascertain its truth. We might here examine what degree of probability ought to be granted to this theory of salts; but this could not be properly accomplished without entering into long details, and penetrating into the depths of chemistry. We are therefore obliged to relate only what is most essential to be known concerning this grand hypothesis. We may perceive at once, that the former of those propositions, upon which is founded the theory which we mentioned, cannot be demonstrated, unless it be previously proved that every saline matter, excepting pure vitriolic acid, is nothing but this same acid differently modified, the primary properties of which are more or less altered or disguised by the union contracted with other substances. But we confess, that chemists are not capable of proving decisively this opinion; which, however, will appear very probable from the following reflections.

"First, Of all saline matters known, none is so strong, so unalterable, so eminently possessed of saline properties, as vitriolic acid.

"Secondly, Amongst the other saline substances those which appear most active and most simple, as nitrous and marine acids, are at the same time those whose properties most resemble the properties of vitriolic acid.

"Thirdly, We may give to vitriolic acid many of the characteristic properties of nitrous acid, by combining it in a certain manner with the inflammable principle, as we see in the volatile sulphureous acid; and even, according to an experiment of Mr Piech, related in a memoir concerning the origin of nitre, which

Salt. which gained the prize of the academy of Berlin, vitriolic acid, mixed with vegetable and animal matters susceptible of fermentation, is really transformed into a nitrous acid by the putrefaction of these matters. [See CHEMISTRY, n° 170.]

"Fourthly, The marine acid, although its principles are less known than those of the nitrous acid, may be approximated to the character of vitriolic and nitrous acids by certain methods. This acid, after it has been treated with tin and other metallic matters, is capable of forming either with spirit of wine, as vitriolic acid does, which it cannot do in its natural state; and when iron is dissolved in it, it seems to be approximated to the nature of nitrous acid. Reciprocally, the approximation of vitriolic acid to the character of marine acid seems not impossible. Having once distilled very pure vitriolic acid upon a considerable quantity of white arsenic, I was struck with a strong smell like that of marine acid, which was not either that of arsenic or of vitriolic acid; for this has no smell when it is pure.

"Fifthly, Oily vegetable acids become so much stronger, and more similar to vitriolic acid, as they are more perfectly deprived of their oily principle, by combining them with alkalis, earths, or metals; and afterwards by separating them from these substances, by distillation, and especially by frequently repeating these operations. They might perhaps be reduced to a pure vitriolic acid, by continuing sufficiently this method: and reciprocally, vitriolic and nitrous acids, weakened by water, and treated with much oily matters, or still better with spirit of wine, acquire the characters of vegetable acids. We may see a remarkable instance of this in Mr Pott's dissertation *De acido nitri vinoso*. [The most remarkable experiment in which is related under the article CHEMISTRY, n° 222.]

"Sixthly, The properties of fixed alkalis seems to be very different from those of acids in general, and consequently of vitriolic acid. Yet if we consider that a large quantity of earth enters their composition; that much of it may be separated by repeated solutions and calcinations; and also, that by depriving these saline substances of their earthy principles, they become less fixed, more deliquescent, and, in a word, more similar to vitriolic acid in this respect; we shall not think it improbable, that fixed alkalis owe their saline properties to a saline principle, of the nature of vitriolic acid, but much disguised by the quantity of earth, and probably of inflammable principle, to which it is united in these combinations. The properties of volatile alkalis, and the transformation of fixed alkali, or of its materials, into volatile alkali in putrefaction and in several distillations, seem to show sufficiently that they are matters essentially saline, as fixed alkalis are, and that their volatility which distinguishes them proceeds from their containing a less quantity of earth, but more attenuated, and a portion of very subtile and volatile oil, which enters their composition. [For some other particulars relating to the transmutation of salts, see CHEMISTRY, n° 225.]

"Besides these principal facts, there are many others, too numerous to be even slightly mentioned here: they may be found scattered in the works of chemists, particularly of Stahl. But persons who would collect and compare all the experiments relating to this subject, ought to know, that many of them are not sufficiently ascertained; and that perhaps a greater number of them have not been sufficiently prosecuted, and are, properly speaking, only begun. We must even acknowledge, that many of those experiments which we have mentioned have not been sufficiently prosecuted.

"The second fundamental proposition of the theory of salts, namely, 'That the vitriolic acid is compounded of only the aqueous and earthy principles,' is, like the first, supported by many facts which give it a degree of probability, but which do not amount to a complete demonstration. This proposition may be supported by the following considerations.

"First, Experience constantly shows, that the properties of compound bodies are always the result of those of the component parts of these bodies, or rather they are the properties of these component bodies modified by one another.

"Thus, if a body be composed of two principles, one of which is fixed and the other volatile, it will have a less degree of fixity than the former, and a less volatility than the latter. If it be composed of two principles, one of which is specifically heavier than the other, its specific gravity will be greater than that of one of them, and less than that of the other. The same observation is applicable to all the other essential properties, excepting those which destroy each other; as, for instance, the tendency to combination, or the dissolving power; for these latter properties are weakened so much more in the compounds, as their principles are more strongly united, and in more just proportion.

"We observe nevertheless, that the properties of compound bodies are not always exactly intermediate betwixt the properties of the component bodies; for, to produce this mean, the quantities of each of the component parts must be equal, which is the case in few or no compounds.

"Besides, some particular circumstances in the manner in which the principles unite with one another, contribute more or less to alter the result of the combined properties: for instance, experience shows, that when several bodies, particularly metals, are united together, the specific gravities of which are well known, the allay formed by such union has not the precise specific gravity which ought to result from the proportion of the allayed substances; but that in some allays it is greater, and in others less. But we are certain, on the other side, that these differences are too inconsiderable to prevent our distinguishing the properties of the principles in the compounds which they form, especially when they have very different properties.

"These things being premised, when we examine well the properties of vitriolic acid, we shall easily find that they partake of the properties of the aqueous and of the earthy principles.

"First, When this acid is as pure as we can have it, it is like the purest water and the purest vitrifiable earths, free from colour or smell, and perfectly transparent.

"Secondly, Although we cannot deprive the vitriolic acid of all the water superabundant to its saline essence, and therefore its precise specific gravity has not

Salt. not been determined, we know that when it is well concentrated, it is more than twice as heavy as pure water, and much less heavy than any earthly substance.

"Thirdly, This acid is much less fixed than any pure earth, since, however well it may be concentrated, it may always be entirely distilled; for which purpose, a much stronger degree of heat is requisite than for the distillation of pure water.

"Fourthly, We do not know the degree of solidity of vitriolic acid, or the adhesion of aggregation which its integrant parts have one to another, because for this purpose the vitriolic acid ought to be deprived of all superabundant water: but if we judge of it by the solid consistence of this acid when highly concentrated, as we see from the vitriolic acid called *glacial*, the integrant parts of this acid seem susceptible of a much stronger adhesion than those of pure water; but much less than those of earth, as we see from the instance of hard stones.

"Fifthly, The union which this acid contracts with water and with earths, shows that these substances enter into its composition; for we know, that in general compounds are disposed to unite superabundantly with the principles which compose them. All these properties of vitriolic acid, which so sensibly partake, and much more than any other acid, of the properties of earth and of water, are sufficient to induce us to believe that it is composed of these two principles; but it has one very eminent property, which is common with it to neither water nor pure earth, which is, its violent and corrosive taste. This property is sufficient to raise doubts, if we could not explain it from principles, which seem certain and general, relating to the combination of bodies.

"We observe then concerning the property now in question, that is, of taste in general, that it can only be considered as an irritation made upon the organs of taste by sapid bodies: and if we reflect attentively upon it, we shall be convinced, that no substance that is not impressed by some impulse, can irritate or agitate our sensible organs, but by a peculiar force of its integrant parts, or by their tendency to combination; that is, by their dissolving power. According to this notion, the taste of bodies, or the impression made upon our sensible organs by their tendency to combination, or by their dissolving power, are the same property: and we see accordingly, that every solvent has a taste, which is so much more strong as its dissolving power is greater; that those whose taste is so violent that it amounts to acrimony, corrosion, and causticity, when applied to any other of the sensible parts of our body besides the organs of taste, excite in them itching and pain.

"This being premised, the question is, How earth, in which we perceive no taste nor dissolving power, and water, which has but a very weak dissolving power, and little or no taste, should form by their combination a substance, such as the vitriolic acid is, powerfully corrosive and solvent?

"To conceive this, let us consider first, that every part of matter has a power by which it combines, or tends to combine, with other parts of matter. Secondly, that this force, the effects of which are perceptible, in chemical operations, only among the very small molecules, or the integrant and constituent parts of bodies, seems proportionable to the density or specific gravity of these parts. Thirdly, that this same force is limited in every integrant molecule of matter: that if we consider this force as not satisfied, and consequently as a simple tendency to combination, it is the greatest possible in an integrant molecule of matter perfectly insulated, or attached to nothing; and is the smallest possible, or none, when it is satisfied by its intimate combination with other parts capable of exhausting all its action; its tendency is then changed into adhesion.

"Hence we may infer, that the integrant parts of the earthy principle have essentially, and like all the other parts of matter, a force of tendency to union, or of cohesion in union, according to their condition; that as this earthy principle has a much more considerable density or specific gravity than all other simple bodies that we know, we may probably presume that its primary integrant molecules have a more considerable force of tendency to union, in the same proportion, than the integrant parts of other principles; that consequently when they cohere together, and form an aggregate, their aggregation must also be stronger and firmer than that of any other body. Accordingly we see, that the purest earthy substances, whose parts are united and form masses, such as, for instance, the stones called *vitrifiable*, are the hardest bodies in nature. We are no less certain, that as the tendency of the parts of matter to unite is so much less evident as it is more exhausted and satisfied in the aggregation, the parts of the earthy principle being capable of exhausting mutually all their tendency to union, we may thence infer, that every sensible mass of pure earthy matter must appear deprived of any dissolving power; of taste; in a word, of tendency to union from the firmness of its aggregation. But we may also infer, that when these primary integrant parts of the earthy principle are not united together in aggregation, then, resuming all the activity and tendency to union which are essential to them, they must be the strongest and most powerful of all solvents.

"These being premised, if we suppose again, with Stahl and the best chemists, that, in the combination of the saline principle or of vitriolic acid, the parts of the earthy principle are united, not with each other, as in the earthy aggregation, but with the primary parts of the aqueous principle, each to each, we may then easily conceive, that the primary integrant parts of the water, having essentially much less tendency to combination than those of earth, the tendency of these latter to union will not be exhausted, but satisfied only partly, by their combination with the former; and that consequently a compound must result, the integrant parts of which will have a strong dissolving power, as vitriolic acid is.

"We may see from hence how much mistaken chemists are, who, considering earth only in its aggregation, or rather not attending to this state, and not distinguishing it from that state in which the parts of this same earth are so separated from each other by the interposition of another body, that they cannot touch or cohere together, have considered the earthy principle as a substance without force or action, and have

very

Salt. very improperly called that a *passive principle*, which of all others is the strongest, most active, and most powerful.

"However this general theory of salts may conform with the most important phenomena of chemistry, we must acknowledge, that it can only be proposed as a systematical opinion, till it be evidently demonstrated by the decisive means employed in chemical demonstrations, namely, by decomposition and recomposition: thus, if we could reduce vitriolic acid to earth and water, and make that acid by combining together these two principles, this theory would cease to be a system, and would become a demonstrated truth. But we must confess, that this theory is less supported by experiment than by argument, from the many difficulties that are inevitable in such inquiries. For on one side, we know that the simpler bodies are, the more difficult is their decomposition; and on the other side, the stronger the aggregation is, the greater is the difficulty of making it enter into a new combination. Thus, as vitriolic acid is very simple, since it is a compound of the first order, it ought strongly to resist decomposition; and as the aggregation of pure earth is the firmest that we know, it cannot easily be made to enter as a principle into a new combination with water to form a saline matter. The following are the principal experiments which have been made relative to the subject.

"First, We seem to be certain, from many proofs, that all saline substances, comprehending those that contain vitriolic acid, as vitriolated tartar, Glauber's salt, and other vitriolated salts which are sufficiently fixed to support a perfect drying, or rather calcination, being alternately dissolved, dried, and calcined a number of times, are more and more diminished in quantity, and that earth and water are separated from them each operation. But alkaline salts appear to be still more susceptible than any other saline matter of this kind of decomposition.

"Secondly, When nitre is burnt in close vessels, so that we may retain not only all that remains fixed after this burning, but also what exhales in vapours, as in the experiment of the clyssus of nitre, we have a proof which seems decisive, that the mineral acid of this salt, which is not very far from the simplicity of vitriolic acid, is totally decomposed and reduced into earth and water. For if we examine the fixed residuum in the retort, we find that it is only the alkali that was contained in the nitre, charged with a superabundant earth, which is separable from it by solution and filtration. And if the liquor in the receiver, formed by the vapours condensed there, be examined, which ought to be nitrous acid, if this acid had not been destroyed, we find, that, so far from being acid, it is only pure water, sometimes even charged with a little fixed alkali, which had been raised by the force of the detonation. Thus nitrous acid is made to disappear in this experiment, and in its place we find only earth and water.

"Thirdly, The phenomena of limestone, which by calcination and extinction in water acquires saline properties that it had not before, its attenuation by fire, and its combination with water; and also the experiment of Beecher, who asserts, that if a vitrifiable stone be alternately made red-hot, and extinguished in water a number of times, it may be so attenuated, that it shall be like a saline gelatinous matter; these, I say, show that saline matters are actually formed by the intimate combination of the very attenuated parts of earth with those of water. We find in the writings of Beecher and Stahl, and particularly in the *Specimen Beccherianum* of the latter author, many other observations and experiments tending to prove the same proposition; but we must confess, that none of the experiments we have mentioned, excepting that of the decomposition of nitrous acid by burning, are absolutely decisive; principally because they have not been sufficiently repeated or prosecuted, nor carefully enough examined in all their circumstances."

On this theory it is obvious to remark, that our author has omitted to mention the most active part of the composition of salts, namely elementary fire. Of this both acids and alkalis undoubtedly contain a great quantity in a very active state, as is evident from their performing the effects of fire when applied to certain substances; nay, from their actually bursting into flame when mixed with some kinds of oils; for an explanation of the reason of which, see HEAT, and the various detached articles relative to that subject. Whatever doubts we may have of the power of mere water combined with mere earth to affect the organs of taste, we can have none that the element of fire is capable of so doing; and from the very tasting of these substances, we may be assured, that whatever gives that peculiar sensation to the tongue which we call *acid* or *alkaline*, gives also the other properties of the salt, whatever they may be. In alkalis, no doubt the greatest part of the composition is earth; but from what has been said on QUICKLIME, it appears, that mere earth, by the artificial action of fire alone, acquires all the properties of salt, that of crystallizing *per se* excepted: it seems probable therefore, that, in the more perfect operations of nature, the same materials are used; only the proportions are such, that the substance is more soluble, and its causticity greater, than even quicklime itself. With regard to acids, the earthy parts seem to be fewer; and in all probability the most considerable ingredient in their composition is water: but in what manner this element is united to that of fire so as to produce the peculiar phenomena of acids, cannot be explained.

Common SALT, or *Sea-Salt*, the name of that salt extracted from the waters of the ocean, which is used in great quantities for preserving provisions, &c.

Of this most useful commodity there are ample stores on land as well as in the ocean. There are few countries which do not afford vast quantities of rock or fossil salt. Mines (A) of it have long been discovered and wrought in England, Spain, Italy, Germany, Hungary, Poland, and other countries of Europe. In several parts of the world, there are huge mountains which wholly consist of fossil salt. Of this kind are two mountains in Russia, nigh Astracan; several in the kingdoms of Tunis

(A) Amongst the salt mines of chief note are those of Nortwich in Cheshire, Altemonte in Calabria, Hall in Tyrol, Cardona in Catalonia: also those stupendous mines at Wilikza in Poland, and Soowar in Upper Hungary; of which see accounts in Phil. Trans. No 61 and 413.

Salt. Tunis and Algiers, in Africa; and ſeveral alſo in Aſia; and the whole iſland of Ormus in the Perſian gulf almoſt entirely conſiſts of foſſil ſalt. The new world alſo is ſtored with treaſures of this uſeful mineral, as well as with all other kinds of ſubterranean productions. Moreover, the ſea affords ſuch vaſt plenty of common ſalt, that all mankind might thence be ſupplied with quantities ſufficient for their occaſions. There are alſo innumerable ſprings, ponds, lakes, and rivers, impregnated with common ſalt, from which the inhabitants of many countries are plentifully ſupplied therewith. In ſome countries which are remote from the ſea, and have little commerce, and which are not bleſſed with mines of ſalt or ſalt waters, the neceſſities of the inhabitants have forced them to invent a method of extracting their common ſalt from the aſhes of vegetables. The muriatic ſalt of vegetables was deſcribed by Dr Grew under the title of *lixiviated marine ſalt*. Leewenhoeck obtained cubical cryſtals of this ſalt from a lixivium of ſoda or kelp, and alſo from a ſolution of the lixivial ſalt of carduus benedictus; of which he hath given figures in a letter to the royal ſociety, publiſhed in N° 173. of their Tranſactions. Dr Dagner, in *Act. Acad. N. C.* vol. v. obſ. 150. takes notice of great quantities of it which he found mixed in potaſhes. And the ingenious Dr Fothergill extracted plenty of it from the aſhes of fern: See *Medical Eſſays*, vol. v. article 13.

The muriatic ſalt which the excellent Mr Boyle extracted from ſandiver, and ſuppoſed to be produced from the materials uſed in making glaſs, was doubtleſs ſeparated from the kelp made uſe of in that proceſs. Kunkel alſo informs us, that he took an alkaline ſalt; and after calcining it with a moderate fire, diſſolved it in pure water, and placing the ſolution in a cool cellar, obtained from it many cryſtals of a neutral ſalt. He ſuppoſes, that the alkaline ſalt was by the proceſs converted into this neutral ſalt. But it is more reaſonable to believe, that the alkaline ſalt which he applied was not pure, but mixed with the muriatic ſalt of vegetables, which by this proceſs was only ſeparated from it.

It is doubtleſs chiefly this muriatic ſalt, which, in ſome of the inland parts of Aſia, they extract from the aſhes of duck-weed and of Adam's fig-tree, and uſe for their common ſalt.

That they are able in thoſe countries to make common ſalt to profit from vegetables, ought not to be wondered at, ſince in Dehli and Agra, capitals of Indoſtan, ſalt is ſo ſcarce as uſually to be ſold for half-a-crown a pound. We may therefore give ſome credit to Marco Polo, when he informs us, that in the inner parts of the ſame quarter of the world, in the province of Caindu, lying weſt of Tebeth, the natives uſed ſalt inſtead of money, it being firſt made up in cakes and ſealed with the ſtamp of their prince; and that they made great profit of this money by exchanging it with the neighbouring nations for gold and muſk. We are alſo told by Ludolfus, in his *Hiſtoria Æthiopica*, that in the country of the Abyſſines there are mountains of ſalt, the which when dug out is ſoft, but ſoon grows hard; and that this ſalt ſerves them inſtead of money to buy all things. The ſame is confirmed by Ramuſio.

Mr Boyle diſcovered common ſalt in human blood and urine. "I have obſerved it, (ſays Mr Brownrigg) not only in human urine, but alſo in that of dogs, horſes, and black cattle. It may eaſily be diſcovered in theſe, and many other liquids impregnated with it, by certain very regular and beautiful ſtarry figures which appear in their ſurfaces after congelation. Theſe figures I firſt obſerved in the great froſt in the year 1739. The dung of ſuch animals as feed upon graſs or grain, doth alſo contain plenty of common ſalt."

Naturaliſts, obſerving the great variety of forms under which this ſalt appears, have thought fit to rank the ſeveral kinds of it under certain general claſſes; diſtinguiſhing it, moſt uſually, into rock or foſſil ſalt, ſea-ſalt, and brine or fountain ſalt. To which claſſes, others might be added, of thoſe muriatic ſalts which are found in vegetable and animal ſubſtances. Theſe ſeveral kinds of common ſalt often differ from each other in their outward form and appearance, or in ſuch accidental properties as they derive from the heterogeneous ſubſtances with which they are mixed. But when perfectly pure, they have all the ſame qualities; ſo that chemiſts, by the exacteſt inquiries, have not been able to diſcover any eſſential difference between them; for which reaſon we ſhall diſtinguiſh common ſalt after a different manner, into the three following kinds, *viz.* into rock or native ſalt, bay ſalt, and white ſalt.

By *rock ſalt*, or *native ſalt*, is underſtood all ſalt dug out of the earth, which hath not undergone any artificial preparation. Under the title of *bay ſalt* may be ranked all kinds of common ſalt extracted from the water wherein it is diſſolved, by means of the ſun's heat, and the operation of the air; whether the water from which it is extracted be ſea-water, or natural brine drawn from wells and ſprings, or ſalt water ſtagnating in ponds and lakes. Under the title of *white ſalt*, or *boiled ſalt*, may be included all kinds of common ſalt extracted by coction from the water wherein it is diſſolved; whether this water be ſea water, or the ſalt water of wells, fountains, lakes, or rivers; or water of any ſort impregnated with rock-ſalt, or other kinds of common ſalt.

The firſt of theſe kinds of ſalt is in ſeveral countries found ſo pure, that it ſerves for moſt domeſtic uſes, without any previous preparation, (triture excepted). But the Engliſh foſſil ſalt is unfit for the uſes of the kitchen, until by ſolution and coction it is freed from ſeveral impurities, and reduced into white ſalt. The Britiſh white ſalt alſo is not ſo proper as ſeveral kinds of bay ſalt for curing fiſh and ſuch fleſh-meats as are intended for ſea proviſions, or for exportation into hot countries. So that for theſe purpoſes we are obliged, either wholly or in part, to uſe bay ſalt, which we purchaſe in France, Spain, and other foreign countries.

However it does not appear that there is any other thing requiſite in the formation of bay ſalt than to evaporate the ſea-water with an exceedingly gentle heat; and is is even very probable, that our common ſea-ſalt by a ſecond ſolution and cryſtallization might attain the requiſite degree of purity. Without entering into any particular detail of the proceſſes uſed for the preparation of bay-ſalt in different parts of the world, we ſhall content ourſelves with giving a brief account of the beſt methods of preparing common ſalt.

At

Salt.

At some convenient place near the sea-shore is erected the saltern. This is a long, low building, consisting of two parts; one of which is called the *fore-house*, and the other the *pan-house*, or *boiling-house*. The fore-house serves to receive the fuel, and cover the workmen; and in the boiling-house are placed the furnace, and pan in which the salt is made. Sometimes they have two pans, one at each end of the saltern; and the part appropriated for the fuel and workmen is in the middle.

Brownrigg on the art of preparing Salt, p. 50.

The furnace opens into the fore-house by two mouths, beneath each of which is a mouth to the ash-pits. To the mouths of the furnace, doors are fitted; and over them a wall is carried up to the roof, which divides the fore-house from the boiling-house, and prevents the dust of the coal and the ashes and smoke of the furnace from falling into the salt pan. The fore-house communicates with the boiling-house by a door, placed in the wall which divides them.

The body of the furnace consists of two chambers, divided from each other by a brick partition called the *mid-feather*; which from a broad base terminates in a narrow edge nigh the top of the furnace; and by means of short pillars of cast iron erected upon it, supports the bottom of the salt pan; it also fills up a considerable part of the furnace, which otherwise would be too large, and would consume more coals than, by the help of this contrivance, are required. To each chamber of the furnace is fitted a grate, through which the ashes fall into the ash pits. The grates are made of long bars of iron, supported underneath by strong cross bars of the same metal. They are not continued to the farthest part of the furnace, it being unnecessary to throw in the fuel so far: for the flame is driven from the fire on the grate to the farthest part of the furnace; and from thence passes together with the smoke, through two flues into the chimney; and thus the bottom of the salt pan is every where equally heated.

The salt pans are made of an oblong form, flat at the bottom, with the sides erected at right angles; the length of some of these pans is 15 feet, the breadth 12 feet, and the depth 16 inches; but at different works they are of different dimensions. They are commonly made of plates of iron, joined together with nails, and the joints are filled with a strong cement. Within the pan five or six strong beams of iron are fixed to its opposite sides, at equal distances, parallel to each other and to the bottom of the pan, from which they are distant about eight inches. From these beams hang down strong iron hooks, which are linked to other hooks or clasps of iron firmly nailed to the bottom of the pan; and thus the bottom of the pan is supported and prevented from bending down or changing its figure. The plates most commonly used are of malleable iron, about four feet and a half long, a foot broad, and the third of an inch in thickness. The Scots prefer smaller plates, 14 or 15 inches square. Several make the sides of the pan, where they are not exposed to the fire, of lead; those parts, when made of iron, being found to consume fast in rust from the steam of the pan. Some have used plates of cast iron, five or six feet square, and an inch in thickness; but they are very subject to break when unequally heated, and shaken (as they frequently are) by the violent boiling of the liquor. The cement most commonly used to fill the joints, is plaster made of lime.

The pan, thus formed, is placed over the furnace, being supported at the four corners by brick work; but along the middle, and at the sides and ends, by round pillars of cast iron called *taplins*, which are placed at three feet distance from each other, being about eight inches high, and at the top, where smallest, four inches in diameter. By means of these pillars the heat of the fire penetrates equally to all parts of the bottom of the pan, its four corners only excepted. Care is also taken to prevent the smoke of the furnace from passing into the boiling-house, by bricks and strong cement, which are closely applied to every side of the salt pan. In some places, as at Blyth in Northumberland, besides the common salt pans here described, they have a preparing pan placed between two salt pans, in the middle part of the building, which in other works is the fore-house. The sea water being received into this preparing pan, is there heated and in part evaporated by the flame and heat conveyed under it through flues from the two furnaces of the salt pans. And the hot water, as occasion requires, is conveyed through troughs from the preparing pan into the salt pans. Various other contrivances have been invented to lessen the expence of fuel, and several patents have been obtained for that purpose; but the salt-boilers have found their old methods the most convenient.

Between the sides of the pan and walls of the boiling-house, there runs a walk five or six feet broad, where the workmen stand when they draw the salt, or have any other business in the boiling-house. The same walk is continued at the end of the pan, next to the chimney; but the pan is placed close to the wall at the end adjoining to the fore-house.

The roof of the boiling-house is covered with boards fastened on with nails of wood, iron nails quickly mouldering into rust. In the roof are several openings, to convey off the watery vapours; and on each side of it, a window or two, which the workmen open when they look into the pan whilst it is boiling.

Not far distant from the saltern, on the sea-shore, between full sea and low-water marks, they also make a little pond in the rocks, or with stones on the sand, which they call their *sump*. From this pond they lay a pipe, through which, when the tide is in, the sea-water runs into a well adjoining to the saltern; and from this well they pump it into troughs, by which it is conveyed into their ship or cistern, where it is stored up until they have occasion to use it.

The cistern is built close to the saltern, and may be placed most conveniently between the two boiling-houses, on the back side of the fore-house; it is made either of wood, or brick and clay; it sometimes wants a cover, but ought to be covered with a shed, that the salt-water contained therein may not be weakened by rains, nor mixed with soot and other impurities. It should be placed so high, that the water may conveniently run out of it, through a trough, into the salt-pans.

Besides the buildings already mentioned, several others are required; as store-houses for the salt, cisterns for the bittern, an office for his majesty's salt-officers, and a dwelling-house for the salt-boilers.

All things being thus prepared, and the sea-water having stood in the cistern till the mud and sand are settled

Salt. settled to the bottom, it is drawn off into the falt-pan. And at the four corners of the falt-pan, where the flame does not touch its bottom, are placed four fmall lead pans called *fcratch-pans*, which, for a falt-pan of the fize abovementioned, are ufually about a foot and an half long, a foot broad, and three inches deep; and have a bow or circular handle of iron, by which they may be drawn out with a hook, when the liquor in the pan is boiling.

The falt-pan being filled with fea-water, a ftrong fire of pit-coal is lighted in the furnace; and then, for a pan which contains about 1400 gallons, the falt-boiler takes the whites of three eggs, and incorporates them well with two or three gallons of fea-water, which he pours into the falt-pan while the water contained therein is only lukewarm; and immediately ftirs it about with a rake, that the whites of eggs may every where be equally mixed with the falt-water.

Inftead of whites of eggs, at many falterns, as at moft of thofe nigh Newcaftle, they ufe blood from the butchers, either of fheep or black cattle, to clarify the fea-water: And at many of the Scotch falterns they do not give themfelves the trouble of clarifying it.

As the water grows hot, the whites of eggs feparate from it a black frothy fcum, which arifes to the furface of the water, and covers it all over. As foon as the pan begins to boil, this fcum is all rifen, and it is then time to fkim it off.

The moft convenient inftruments for this purpofe are fkimmers of thin afh boards, fix or eight inches broad, and fo long that they may reach above half-way over the falt-pan. Thefe fkimmers have handles fitted to them; and the falt-boiler and his affiftant, each holding one of them on the oppofite fides of the pan, apply them fo to each other that they overlap in the middle, and beginning at one end of the pan, carry them gently forward together, along the furface of the boiling liquor, to the other end; and thus, without breaking the fcum, collect it all to one end of the pan, from whence they eafily take it out.

After the water is fkimmed, it appears perfectly clear and tranfparent; and they continue boiling it briftly, till fo much of the frefh or aqueous part is evaporated, that what remains in the pan is a ftrong brine almoft fully faturated with falt, fo that fmall faline cryftals begin to form on its furface; which operation, in a pan filled 15 inches deep with water, is ufually performed in five hours.

The pan is then filled up a fecond time with clear fea-water drawn from the ciftern; and about the time when it is half filled, the fcratch-pans are taken out, and being emptied of the fcratch found in them, are again placed in the corners of the falt-pan. The fcratch taken out of thefe pans is a fine white calcareous earth found in the form of powder, which feparates from the fea-water during its coction, before the falt begins to form into grains. This fubtile powder is violently agitated by the boiling liquor, until it is driven to the corners of the pan, where the motion of the liquor being more gentle, it fubfides into the fcratch-pans placed there to receive it, and in them it remains undifturbed, and thus the greateft part of it is feparated from the brine.

After the pan hath again been filled up with fea-water, three whites of eggs are mixed with the liquor, by which it is clarified a fecond time, in the manner before defcribed; and it is afterwards boiled down to a ftrong brine as at firft; which fecond boiling may take up about four hours.

The pan is then filled up a third time with clear fea-water; and after that, a fourth time; the liquor being each time clarified and boiled down to a ftrong brine, as before related; and the fcratch-pans being taken out and emptied every time that the pan is filled up.

Then, at the fourth boiling, as foon as the cryftals begin to form on the furface of the brine, they flacken the fire, and only fuffer the brine to fimmer, or boil very gently. In this heat they conftantly endeavour to keep it all the time that the falt corns or granulates, which may be nine or ten hours. The falt is faid to granulate, when its minute cryftals cohere together into little maffes or grains, which fink down in the brine and lie at the bottom of the falt-pan.

When moft of the liquor is evaporated, and the falt thus lies in the pan almoft dry on its furface, it is then time to draw it out. This part of the procefs is performed by raking the falt to one fide of the pan into a long heap, where it drains a while from the brine, and is then filled out into barrows or other proper veffels, and carried into the ftore-houfe, and delivered into the cuftody of his majefty's officers. And in this manner the whole procefs is performed in 24 hours; the falt being ufually drawn every morning.

In the ftore-houfe the falt is put hot into drabs, which are partitions like ftalls for horfes, lined on three fides and at the bottom with boards, and having a fliding-board on the fore-fide to put in or draw out as occafion requires. The bottoms are made fhelving, being higheft at the back-fide, and gradually inclining forwards; by which means the faline liquor, which remains mixed with the falt, eafily drains from it; and the falt, in three or four days, becomes fufficiently dry; and is then taken out of the drabs, and laid up in large heaps, where it is ready for fale.

The faline liquor which drains from the falt is not a pure brine of common falt, but hath a fharp and bitter tafte, and is therefore called *bittern;* this liquor, at fome works, they fave for particular ufes, at others throw away. A confiderable quantity of this bittern is left at the bottom of the pan, after the procefs is finifhed; which, as it contains much falt, they fuffer to remain in the pan, when it is filled up with fea-water. But at each procefs this liquor becomes more fharp and bitter, and alfo increafes in quantity: fo that, after the third or fourth procefs is finifhed, they are obliged to take it out of the pan; otherwife it mixes in fuch quantities with the falt, as to give it a bitter tafte, and difpofes it to grow foft and run in the open air, and renders it unfit for domeftic ufes.

After each procefs there alfo adheres to the bottom and fides of the pan, a white ftony cruft, of the fame calcareous fubftance with that before collected from the boiling liquor. This the operators call *ftone-fcratch*, diftinguifhing the other found in the lead-pans by the name of *powder-fcratch*. Once in eight or ten days they feparate the ftone-fcratch from their pans with iron picks, and in feveral places find it a quarter of an inch

inch in thickness. If this stony crust is suffered to adhere to the pan much longer, it grows so thick that the pan is burnt by the fire, and quickly wears away.

Duty on SALT, is a distinct branch of his Majesty's extraordinary revenue, and consists in an excise of 3 s. 4 d. per bushel imposed upon all salt, by several statutes of king William and other subsequent reigns. This is not generally called an excise, because under the management of different commissioners: but the commissioners of the salt-duties have by statute 1 Ann, c. 21. the same powers, and must observe the same regulations, as those of other excises. This tax had usually been only temporary; but by statute 26 Geo. II. c. 3. was made perpetual.

SALT-*Springs*. Of these there are great numbers in different parts of the world, which undoubtedly have their origin from some of the large collections of fossile salt mentioned under the article *Common* SALT. See that article, and likewise SPRING.

SALTIER, one of the honourable ordinaries defined p. 3595, and represented in Plate CXLVII. This says G. Leigh, in his Accedence of Armp. 70. was anciently made of the height of a man, and driven full of pins, the use of which was to scall walls, &c. Upton says it was an instrument to catch wild beasts, whence he derives this word from *saltus*, i. e. "a forest." The French call this ordinary *sautoir*, from *sauter* "to leap;" because it may have been used by soldiers to leap over walls of towns, which in former times were but low: but some modern authors think it is borne in imitation of St Andrew's cross.

SALTPETRE. See NITRE.

SALTSBURG, an archbishopric of Germany, in the circle of Bavaria, bounded on the east by Stiria and the Upper Austria, on the west by the county of Tyrol, on the north by the duchy of Bavaria, and on the south by the duchy of Carinthia and the bishopric of Brixen. It is said to be about 100 miles from east to west, and upwards of 60 from north to south. With respect to the soil, it is very mountainous; yielding, however, excellent pasturage, and, in consequence of that, abounding in cattle, and horses remarkable for their mettle and hardiness. This country is particularly noted for the great quantities of salt it produces, and its strong passes and castles. Here are also considerable mines of gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, and lapis calaminaris, with quarries of marble, and a natural hot-bath. The principal rivers are the Salza, the Inn, the Ens, and Muer; which, as well as the lakes, and other streams, are well stored with fish. The peasants here are all allowed the use of arms, and trained to military duty. There are no nobles in the country, and most of the lands belong to the clergy. The states consist of the prelates, the cities, and towns. Notwithstanding this country is under the power of a Popish ecclesiastic, and the violent, arbitrary, and oppressive manner in which the Protestants have always been treated, great numbers of them still remained in it till the year 1732, when no less than 30,000 of them withdrew from it, dispersing themselves in the several Protestant states of Europe, and some of them were even sent from Great Britain to the American colonies. Besides brass and steel wares, and all sorts of arms and artillery, there are manufactures of coarse cloth and linen here. The archbishop has many and great prerogatives: he is a prince of the empire, and perpetual legate of the holy see in Germany, of which he is also primate. He has the first voice in the diet of this circle, and next to the electors in that of the empire, in the college of princes, in which he and the archduke of Austria preside by turns. No appeal lies from him, either in civil or ecclesiastical causes, but to the pope alone; and he is entitled to wear the habit of a cardinal. He has also the nomination to several bishoprics; and the canonicates that fall vacant in the months in which the popes, by virtue of the concordat, are allowed to nominate, are all in his gift. His suffragans are the bishops of Freysingen, Ratisbon, Brixen, Gurk, Chiemsee, Seckau, and Lavant; and of these, the four last are nominated, and even confirmed by him, and not by the pope. At the diet of the empire, his envoy takes place of all the princes that are present, under the degree of an elector. His revenue is said to amount to near 200,000 l. a-year, a great part of it arising from the salt-works. He is able to raise 25,000 men; but keeps in constant pay, besides his guards, only one regiment, consisting of 1000 men. His court is very magnificent; and he has his hereditary great officers, and high colleges. The chapter consists of 24 canons, who must be all noble, but are obliged only to four months residence. At his accession to the see, the archbishop must pay 100,000 crowns to Rome for the pall. There is an order of knighthood here, instituted in 1711, in honour of St Rupert, who was the first bishop of Saltsburg about the beginning of the eighth century.

SALTSBURGH, the capital of a German archbishopric of the same name, and which takes its own from the river Salza, on which it stands, and over which it has a bridge. It is well fortified, and the residence of the archbishop. The castle here is very strong, and as strongly garrisoned, and well provided with provisions and warlike stores. The archbishop's palace is magnificent; and in the area before it is a fountain, esteemed the largest and grandest in Germany. The stables are very lofty; and the number of the horses usually kept by the archbishop, is said to be upwards of 200. The city, of which one part stands on a steep rock, is well built, but the streets are narrow and badly paved. Besides the abovementioned, there are two other stately palaces belonging to the archbishop, one of which is called the *Neuebau*, and the other *Mirabella*. The latter of these has a very beautiful garden; and the number of trees in the orangery is so great, that Mr Keysler tells us, 20,000 oranges have been gathered from them in one year. The river Salza runs close by the walls of this garden. There are a great many other fine structures in the city, public and private, such as palaces, monasteries, hospitals, and churches. In the cathedral dedicated to St Rupert, (the apostle of Bavaria, and a Scotsman by birth,) all the altars are of marble of different kinds, and one of the organs has above 3200 pipes. The winter and summer riding-schools here are noble structures. The university was founded in 1620, and committed to the care

Salvage || Salvia.

care of the Benedictines. Besides it, there are two colleges, in which the young noblemen are educated. E. Long. 33. 0. N. Lat. 47. 45.

SALVAGE MONEY, a reward allowed by the civil and statute law, for the saving of ships or goods from the danger of the sea, pirates, or enemies.—— Where any ship is in danger of being stranded, or driven on shore, justices of the peace are to command the constables to assemble as many persons as are necessary to preserve it; and, on its being preserved by their means, the persons assisting therein shall, in 30 days after, be paid a reasonable reward for their salvage; otherwise the ship or goods shall remain in the custody of the officers of the customs as a security for the same.

SALVATOR ROSA. See ROSA.

SALVIA, SAGE; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the diandria class of plants. The most remarkable species are,

1. The officinalis, or common large sage, which is cultivated in gardens, of which there are the following varieties: 1. The common green sage. 2. The wormwood sage. 3. The green sage, with a variegated leaf. 4. The red sage. 5. The red sage with a variegated leaf; these are accidental variations, and therefore are not enumerated as species. The common sage grows naturally in the southern parts of Europe, but is here cultivated in gardens for use; but that variety with red or blackish leaves, is the most common in the British gardens; and the wormwood sage is in greater plenty here than the common green-leaved sage, which is but in few gardens.

2. The tomentosa, generally titled *balsamic sage* by the gardeners. The stalks of this do not grow so upright as those of the common sage; they are very hairy, and divide into several branches, which are garnished with broad heart-shaped woolly leaves standing upon long foot-stalks; they are sawed on their edges, and their upper surfaces are rough: the leaves, which are upon the flower-stalks, are oblong and oval, standing upon shorter foot-stalks, and are very slightly sawed on their edges; they grow in whorled spikes toward the top of the branches; the whorls are pretty far distant, but few flowers in each; they are of a pale blue, about the size of those of the common sort. This sage is perferred to all the others for making tea.

3. The auriculata, common sage of virtue, which is also well known in the gardens and markets. The leaves of this is narrower than those of the common sort; they are hoary, and some of them are indented on their edges towards the base, which indentures have the appearance of ears. The spikes of flowers are longer than those of the two former sorts, and the whorls are generally naked, having no leaves between them. The flowers are smaller, and of a deeper blue than those of common red sage.

4. The pomifera, with spear-shaped oval entire leaves, grow naturally in Crete. This hath a shrubby stalk, which rises four or five feet high, dividing into several branches. The flowers grow in spikes at the end of the branches; they are of a pale blue colour, and have obtuse empalements. The branches of this sage have often punctures made in them by insects, at which places grow large proturberances as big as apples, in the same manner as the galls upon an oak, and the rough balls on the briar.

Salvianus || Salute.

All the sorts of sage may be propagated by seeds, if they can be procured; but, as some of them do not perfect their seeds in this country, and most of the sorts, but especially the common kinds for use, are easily propagated by slips, it is not worth while to raise them from seeds.

SALVIANUS, an ancient father of the Christian church, who flourished in the 5th century, and was well skilled in the sciences. It is said he lived in continence with his wife Palladia, as if she had been his sister; and that he was so afflicted at the wickedness of that age, that he was called the *Jeremiah of the 5th century*. He acquired such reputation for his piety and learning, that he was named the *master of the bishops*. He wrote a Treatise on Providence; another on Avarice; and some epistles, of which Baluze has given an excellent edition; that of Conrad Rittershusius, in 2 vols octavo, is also esteemed.

SALUTATION, the act of saluting, greeting, or paying respect and reverence to any one.

There is a great variety in the forms of salutation. The Orientals salute by uncovering their feet, laying their hands on their breasts, &c. In Britain we salute by uncovering the head, bending the body, &c. The pope makes no reverence to any mortal except the emperor, to whom he stoops a very little when he permits him to kiss his lips.

SALUTE, in military matters, a discharge of artillery, or small arms, or both, in honour of some person of extraordinary quality. The *colours* likewise salute royal persons, and generals commanding in chief; which is done by lowering the point to the ground. In the field, when a regiment is to be reviewed by the king, or his general, the drums beat a march as he passes along the line, and the officers salute one after another, bowing their half-pikes or swords to the ground; then recover and take off their hats. The ensigns salute all together, by lowering their colours.

SALUTE, in the navy, a testimony of deference or homage rendered by the ships of one nation to another, or by ships of the same nation to a superior or equal.

This ceremony is variously performed, according to the circumstances, rank, or situation, of the parties. It consists in firing a certain number of cannon, or volleys of small arms; in striking the colours or topsails; or in one or more general shouts of the whole ship's crew, mounted on the masts or rigging for that purpose.

The principal regulations with regard to salutes in in the royal navy are as follow:

"When a flag-officer salutes the admiral and commander in chief of the fleet, he is to give him fifteen guns; but when captains salute him, they are to give him seventeen guns. The admiral and commander in chief of the fleet is to return two guns less to flag-officers, and four less to captains. Flag-officers saluting their superior or senior officer, are to give him thirteen guns. Flag-officers are to return an equal number of guns to flag-officers bearing their flags on the same mast, and two guns less to the rest, as also to captains.

"When

Salute.

"When a captain ſalutes an admiral of the white or blue, he is to give him fifteen guns; but to vice and rear admirals, thirteen guns. When a flag-officer is ſaluted by two or more of his majeſty's ſhips, he is not to return the ſalute till all have finiſhed, and then to do it with ſuch a reaſonable number of guns as he ſhall judge proper.

"In caſe of the meeting of two ſquadrons, the two chiefs only are to exchange ſalutes. And if ſingle ſhips meet a ſquadron conſiſting of more than one flag, the principal flag only is to be ſaluted. No ſalutes ſhall be repeated by the ſame ſhips, unleſs there has been a ſeparation of ſix months at leaſt.

"None of his majeſty's ſhips of war, commanded only by captains, ſhall give or receive ſalutes from one another, in whatſoever part of the world they meet.

"A flag-officer commanding in chief ſhall be ſaluted, upon his firſt hoiſting his flag, by all the ſhips preſent, with ſuch a number of guns as is allowed by the firſt, third, or fifth articles.

"When any of his majeſty's ſhips ſhall meet with any ſhip or ſhips belonging to any foreign prince or ſtate, within his majeſty's ſeas (which extend to Cape Finiſterre), it is expected, that the ſaid foreign ſhips do ſtrike their top-ſail, and take in their flag, in acknowledgement of his majeſty's ſovereignty in thoſe ſeas: and if any ſhall refuſe or offer to reſiſt, it is enjoined to all flag-officers and commanders to uſe their utmoſt endeavours to compel them thereto, and not ſuffer any diſhonour to be done to his majeſty. and if any of his majeſty's ſubjects ſhall ſo much forget their duty, as to omit ſtriking their top-ſail in paſſing by his majeſty's ſhips, the name of the ſhip and maſter, and from whence, and whither bound, together with affidavits of the fact, are to be ſent up to the ſecretary of the admiralty, in order to their being proceeded againſt in the admiralty court. And it is to be obſerved, that in his majeſty's ſeas, his majeſty's ſhips are in no ways to ſtrike to any; and that in other parts, no ſhip of his majeſty's is to ſtrike her flag or topſail to any foreigner, unleſs ſuch foreign ſhip ſhall have firſt ſtruck, or at the ſame time ſtrike her flag or topſail to his majeſty's ſhip.

"The flag-officers and commanders of his majeſty's ſhips are to be careful to maintain his majeſty's honour upon all occaſions, giving protection to his ſubjects, and endeavouring, what in them lies, to ſecure and encourage them in their lawful commerce; and they are not to injure, in any manner, the ſubjects of his majeſty's friends and allies.

"If a foreign admiral meets with any of his majeſty's ſhips, and ſalutes them, he ſhall receive gun for gun. If he be a vice-admiral, the admiral ſhall anſwer with two guns leſs. If a rear-admiral, the admiral and vice-admiral ſhall return two leſs. But if the ſhip be commanded by a captain only, the flag-officer ſhall give two guns leſs, and captains an equal number.

"When any of his majeſty's ſhips come to an anchor in a foreign port or road, within cannon-ſhot of its forts, the captain may ſalute the place with ſuch a number of guns as have been cuſtomary, upon good aſſurance of having the like number returned, but not otherwiſe. But if the ſhip bears a flag, the flag-officer ſhall firſt carefully inform himſelf how flags of like rank, belonging to other crowned heads, have given or returned ſalutes, and to inſiſt upon the ſame terms of reſpect.

Salute || Samaria.

"It is allowed to the commanders of his majeſty's ſhips in foreign parts, to ſalute the perſons of any admirals commanders in chief, or captains of ſhips of war of foreign nations, and foreign noblemen or ſtrangers of quality, as alſo the factories of the king's ſubjects, coming on board to viſit the ſhip; and the number of guns is left to the commander, as ſhall be ſuitable to the occaſion and the quality of the perſons viſiting; but he is neverthelefs to remain accountable for any exceſſes in the abuſe of this liberty. If the ſhip viſited be in company with other ſhips of war, the captain is not to make uſe of the civilites allowed in the preceding articles but with leave and conſent of the commander in chief or the ſenior captain.

"Merchant-ſhips, whether foreigners or belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects, ſaluting the admiral of the fleet, ſhall be anſwered by ſix guns leſs; when they ſalute any other flag-ſhips, they ſhall be anſwered by four guns leſs; and if they ſalute men of war commanded by captains, they ſhall be anſwered by two guns leſs. If ſeveral merchant-ſhips ſalute in company, no return is to be made, till all have finiſhed, and then by ſuch a number of guns as ſhall be thought proper; but though the merchant-ſhips ſhould anſwer, there ſhall be no ſecond return.——

"None of his majeſty's ſhips of war ſhall ſalute any of his majeſty's forts or caſtles in Great Britain or Ireland, on any pretence whatſoever."

SALUZZO, called by the French *Saluces*, a town and caſtle of Italy, in Piedmont, and capital of a marquiſate of the ſame name, with a biſhop's ſee. It is ſituated on an eminence at the foot of the Alps near the river Po, in E. Long. 18. 27. N. Lat. 44. 35. It is ſubject to the king of Sardinia.

SALUZZO, the marquiſate of, a province of Piedmont in Italy, bounded on the north by Dauphiny and the province of the four valleys, on the eaſt by thoſe of Saviglano and Foſſano, on the ſouth by that of Cona and the county of Nice, and on the weſt by Barcelonetta. It was ceded to the duke of Savoy in 1601.

SAMARCAND, or SARMACAND, an ancient and famous town of Aſia, capital of the kingdom of the ſame name in the country of the Uſbeck Tartars, with a caſtle and a famous univerſity. The houſes are built with ſtones, and it carries on a trade in excellent fruits. It is pleaſantly ſeated near the river Sogde, a branch of the Amu, E. Long. 69. 0. N. Lat. 39. 50. This town was the capital of the kingdom of Sogdia in the time of Alexander the Great, when it was called *Maracanda*. It was afterwards the capital of the empire of Tamerlane the Great. In the time of Jenhiz Khan it was forced to yield to the arms of that cruel conqueror; by whom the garriſon, amounting to 30,000 men, were butchered; 30,000 of the inhabitants, with their wives and children, were preſented to his generals; the reſt were permitted to live in the city, on paying a tribute of 300,000 dinars or crowns of gold.

SAMARIA, (anc. geogr.) one of three larger Ciſjordan diſtricts, ſituated in the middle between Galilee to the north and Judea to the ſouth, beginning at

at the village Ginæa, in the Campus Magnus, and ending at the toparchy called *Acrobatena*, (Josephus). Its soil differing in nothing from that of Judæa; both equally hilly and champain, both equally fertile in corn and fruit, (id.) Called the *kingdom of Samaria and Ephraim*, (Bible); comprising the ten tribes, and consequently all the country to the north of Judea and east and west of Jordan.

SAMARIA, capital of the kingdom or country of that name; anciently called *Schomron*, from Semer, the owner of the hill; the royal residence of the kings of Israel, from Omri, who built the city, down to its destruction, and the Assyrian captivity, under Hosea the last king, (Micah, Sulp. Severus.) It soon after rose from its ruins, being restored by the Cutheans, who thence took the name of *Samaritans*; said to be a very strong city under the Maccabees, but entirely destroyed by John Hyrcanus, (Josephus), and again restored by Gabinius, prefect of Syria; till at length it was enlarged and adorned by Herod, and called *Sebaste*, that is, *Augusta*, in compass twenty stadia, (Josephus).

SAMARITANS, an ancient sect among the Jews, still subsisting in some parts of the Levant, under the same name.

Its origin was in the time of Rehoboam, under whose reign the people of Israel were divided into two distinct kingdoms, that of Judah and that of Israel; when the capital of the latter being Samaria, the Israelites obtained the name of *Samaritans*.

They were anciently guilty of idolatry, and the Rabbins pretend, that they worshipped the figure of a dove on mount Gerizim; but the present Samaritans, who are but few in number, are far from being idolaters. They celebrate the passover every year, on the fourteenth day of the first month, on Mount Gerizim, and begin that feast with the sacrifice appointed for that purpose in Exodus: they keep the Sabbath with all the rigour with which it is enjoined in the book of Exodus, none of them stirred of doors but to the synagogue. They sacrifice nowhere but on mount Gerizim: they observe the feasts of expiation, tabernacles, harvest, &c. and never defer circumcision beyond the eighth day: they never marry their nieces as the Jews do; have but one wife; and in fine, do nothing but what is commanded in the law.

SAMBUCUS, ELDER; a genus of the trigynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. The most remarkable species are, 1. The nigra, or common black elder-tree, rises with a tree stem, branching numerously into a large spreading head, twenty or thirty feet high; pinnated leaves, of two or three pair of oval lobes and an odd one; and large, five-parted umbels of white flowers towards the ends of the branches, succeeded by bunches of black and other different coloured berries, in the varieties, which are—Common black-berried elder-tree—White-berried elder—Green-berried elder—Laciniated, or parsley-leaved elder, having the the foliole much laciniated, so as to resemble parsley-leaves—Gold-striped-leaved elder—Silver-striped elder—Silver-dusted elder. 2. The racemosa, racemose red-berried elder, rises with a tree-like stem, branching ten or twelve feet high, having reddish-brown branches and buds; pinnated leaves of six or seven oval deeply-sawed lobes; and compound, oval, racemous clusters of whitish-green flowers, succeeded by oval clusters of red-berries. This is a resident of the mountainous parts of the south of Europe, and is retained in our gardens as a flowering shrub, having a peculiar singularity in its oval clustered flowers and berries. 3. The Canadensis, or Canada shrubby elder, rises with a shrubby stem, branching eight or ten feet high, having reddish shoots; somewhat bipinnated leaves, often ternate below, the other composed of five, seven, or nine oval lobes; and towards the ends of the branches, cymose quinquepartite umbels of flowers, succeeded by blackish-red berries. All the sorts of elder are of the deciduous tribe, very hardy, and grow freely any where; are generally free shooters, but particularly the common elder and varieties, which make remarkably strong, jointed shoots, of several feet in ength, in one season; and they flower mostly in summer, except the racemose elder, which generally begins flowering in April; and the branches being large, spreading, and very abundant, are exceedingly conspicuous; but they emit a most disagreeable odour. The flowers are succeeded in the most of the sorts, by large bunches of ripe berries in autumn, which, altho' very unpalatable to eat, are in high estimation for making that well known cordial liquor called *elder wine*, particularly the common black-berried elder. The merit of the elder in gardening may be both for use and ornament, especially in large grounds.

SAMOGITIA, a province of Poland, bounded on the north by Courland, on the east by Lithuania, on the west by the Baltic Sea, and on the south by Regal Prussia, being about 175 miles in length and 125 in breadth. It is full of forests and very high mountains, which feed a great number of cattle, and produce a large quantity of honey. There are also very active horses, in high esteem. The inhabitants are clownish, but honest; and they will not allow a young woman to go out in the night, without a candle in her hand, and two bells at her girdle. Rossenna and Wormia are the principal places.

SAMOIEDA, a country of the Russian empire, between Asiatic Tartary and Archangel, lying along the sea-coast as far as Siberia. The inhabitants are so rude a people, that they can hardly pretend to humanity, except in their face and figure: they have little understanding; and in many things resemble brutes, for they will eat carrion of every kind. They travel on the snow on sledges, drawn with an animal like a rein-deer, but with the horns of a stag. Those who have seen them affirm, that no people on the earth make such shocking figures: their stature is short; their shoulders and faces are broad, with flat broad noses, great blubber hanging lips, and staring eyes; their complexion is dark, their hair long and as black as pitch, and they have very little beards; and it is said that all the Samoied women have black nipples. If they have any religion at all, it is idolatry, though there has been some attempts of late to convert them. Their huts are made of birch bark sewed together, which is laid upon stakes set in the ground, and at the top is a hole to let out the smoke; the fire is made in the middle, and both men and women lie naked round them all night. They have little regard to the

Samos & Samuel.

the nearness of kin, and take as many wives as they can keep; their only employment is hunting and fishing.

SAMOS, (anc. geog.), an island at no great distance from the promontory Mycale, on the continent of the Hither Asia, and opposite to Ephesus; the distance only seven stadia, (Strabo); a free island, in compass eighty-seven miles, (Pliny); or one hundred, (Isidorus): with a cognominal town, (Ptolemy, Horace); famous for the worship and a temple of Juno, with a noted asylum, (Virgil, Strabo, Tacitus); and hence their coin exhibited a peacock, (Athenæus): The country of Pythagoras, who, to avoid the oppression of tyrants, retired to Italy, the land of freedom. Samos, tho' not so happy in producing wine, which Strabo wonders at, all the adjoining islands yielding a generous sort, yet abounding in all the necessaries of life. The *Vasa Samia*, among earthen ware, were held in high repute. *Samii*, the people, (Ovid).—The island is now in the hands of the Turks. It is about 32 miles in length, and 22 in breadth, and extremely fertile. The inhabitants live at their ease, their taxation by the Turks being moderate. The women are very nasty and ugly, and they never shift above once a-month. They are clothed in the Turkish manner, except a red coif, and their hair hanging down their backs, with plates of silver or block-tin fastened to the ends. They have abundance of melons, lentils, kidney-beans, and excellent muskadine grapes. They have white figs, four times as big as the common sort, but not so well tasted. Their silk is very fine, and their honey and wax admirable; besides which, their poultry are excellent: they have iron mines, and most of the soil is of a rusty colour: they have also emery stone, and all the mountains are of white marble. The inhabitants are about 12,000, who are almost all Greeks; and the monks and priests occupy most part of the island. They have a bishop who resides at Cora.

SAMIAN EARTH, in the materia medica, the name of two species of marl used in medicine, *viz.* 1. The white kind, called by the ancients *collyrium samium*, being astringent, and therefore good in diarrhæas, dysenteries, and hæmorrhagies; they also used it externally in inflammations of all kinds. 2. The brownish-white kind, called *aster samius*, by Dioscorides; this also stands recommended as an astringent.

SAMSON, one of the judges of Israel, memorable for his supernatural strength, his victories over the Philistines, and his tragical end, as related in the book of *Judges*.

SAMSON'S *Post*, a sort of pillar erected in a ship's hold, between the lower deck and the kelson, under the edge of a hatchway, and furnished with several notches that serve as steps to mount or descend, as occasion requires. This post, being firmly driven into its place, not only serves to support the beam and fortify the vessel in that place, but also to prevent the cargo or materials contained in the hold, from shifting to the opposite side, by the rolling of the ship in a turbulent and heavy sea.

BOOKS *of* SAMUEL, two canonical books of the Old Testament, as being usually ascribed to the prophet Samuel.

Sanchoniathon & Sanctification.

The books of Samuel, and the books of Kings, are a continued history of the reigns of the kings of Israel and Judah; for which reason the books of Samuel are likewise styled *the first and second books of Kings*. Since the first 24 chapters contain all that relates to the History of Samuel, and the latter part of the first book and all the second include the relation of events that happened after the death of that prophet, it has been supposed that Samuel was author only of the first 24 chapters, and that the prophets Gad and Nathan finished the work. The first book of Samuel comprehends the transactions under the government of Eli and Samuel, and under Saul the first king; and also the acts of David while he lived under Saul; and is supposed to contain the space of 101 years. The second book contains the history of about 40 years, and is wholly spent in relating the transactions of David's reign.

SANCHONIATHON, a Phœnician historiographer, cotemporary with Gideon the Israelitish judge, who wrote nine books of the ancient theology and history of Phœnicia; we have some fragments of it in Porphyry *de Abstinentia*, and in Eusebius. Mr Dodwell thinks it all counterfeit.

SANCROFT (William), archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Fresingfield in Suffolk, in 1616; and admitted into Emanuel college, Cambridge, in 1633. In 1642, he was elected a fellow; and, for refusing to take the covenant, was ejected from his fellowship. In 1660, he was chosen one of the university preachers; and in 1663, was nominated to the deanery of York. In 1664, he was installed dean of St Paul's. In this station he set himself with unwearied diligence to repair the cathedral, till the fire of London in 1666 employed his thoughts on the more noble undertaking of rebuilding it, toward which he gave 1400l. He also rebuilt the deanry, and improved the revenue of it. In 1668, he was admitted archdeacon of Canterbury, on the king's presentation. In 1677, being now prolocutor of the convocation, he was unexpectedly advanced to the archbishopric of Canterbury. In 1678, he was committed to the tower, with six other bishops, for presenting a petition to the king against reading the declaration of indulgence. Upon king James II.'s withdrawing himself, he concurred with the lords in a declaration to the prince of Orange for a free parliament, and due indulgence to the protestant dissenters. But when that prince and his consort were declared king and queen, his grace refusing to take the oaths to their majesties, he was suspended and deprived. He lived in a very private manner, till he died in 1693. His learning, integrity, and piety, made him an exalted ornament of the church. He published a volume in 12mo, intitled *Modern Politics*, taken from Machiavel, Borgia, and other choice authors; Familiar Letters to Mr North, an 8vo pamphlet; and three of his sermons were printed together after his death.

SANCTIFICATION, the act of sanctifying, or rendering a thing holy. The reformed divines define sanctification to be an act of God's grace, by which a person's desires and affections are alienated from the world; and by which he is made to die to sin, and to live to righteousness; or in other words, to feel an ab-

horrence of all vice, and a love of religion and virtue.

SANCTION, the authority given to a judicial act, by which it becomes legal and authentic.

SANCTORIUS, a moſt ingenious and learned phyſician, profeſſor in the univerſity of Padua, in the beginning of the 17th century. He contrived a kind of ſtatical chair, by means of which, after eſtimating the aliments received, and the ſenſible diſcharges, he was enabled to determine with great exactneſs, the quantity of victuals and drink increaſed or diminiſhed it. On theſe experiments he erected a curious ſyſtem, which he publiſhed under the title of *De medicina ſtatica;* of which we have an Engliſh tranſlation by Dr Quincy. Sanctorius publiſhed ſeveral other treatiſes, which ſhewed great abilities and learning.

SANCTUARY, among the Jews, alſo called *Sanctum ſanctorum*, or *Holy of holies*, was the holieſt and moſt retired part of the temple of Jeruſalem, in which the ark of the covenant was preſerved, and into which none but the high-prieſt was allowed to enter, and that only once a-year, to intercede for the people.

Some diſtinguiſh the ſanctuary from the ſanctum ſanctorum, and maintain that the whole temple was called the *ſanctuary*.

To try and examine any thing by the weight of the ſanctuary, is to examine it by a juſt and equal ſcale; becauſe, among the Jews, it was the cuſtom of the prieſts to keep ſtone weights, to ſerve as ſtandards for regulating all weights by, though theſe were not at all different from the royal or profane weights.

SANCTUARY, in the Romiſh church, is alſo uſed for that part of the church in which the altar is placed, encompaſſed with a rail or balluſtrade.

SANCTUARY, in our ancient cuſtoms, the ſame with ASYLUM.

SAND, in natural hiſtory, a genus of foſſils, the characters of which are, that they are found in minute concretions; forming together a kind of powder, the genuine particles of which are all of a tendency to one determinate ſhape, and appear regular though more or leſs complete concretions; not to be diſſolved or diſunited by water, or formed into a coherent maſs by means of it, but retaining their figure in it; tranſparent, vitrifiable by extreme heat, and not diſſoluble in nor effervesceng with acids. Sands are ſubject to be variouſly blended, both with homogene and heterogene ſubſtances, as that of talcs, &c. and hence, as well as from their various colours, are ſubdivided into, 1. White ſands, whether pure or mixed with other arenaceous or heterogeneous particles; of all which there are ſeveral ſpecies, differing no leſs in the fineneſs of their particles, than in the different degrees of colour, from a bright and ſhining white, to a browniſh, yellowiſh, greeniſh, &c. white. 2. The red and reddiſh ſands, both pure and impure. 3. The yellow ſands, whether pure or mixed, are alſo very numerous. 4. The brown ſands, diſtinguiſhed in the ſame manner. 5. The black ſands, whereof there are only two ſpecies, viz. a fine ſhining greyiſh-black ſand, and another of a fine ſhining reddiſh-black colour. 6. The green kind; of which there is only one known ſpecies, viz. a coarſe variegated duſky green ſand, common in Virginia.

Sand is of great uſe in the glaſs-manufacture; the white writing ſand being employed for making of the white glaſs, and a coarſe greeniſh-looking ſand for the green glaſs.

In agriculture, it ſeems to be the office of ſand to make unctuous earths fertile, and fit to ſupport vegetables, &c. For earth alone, we find, is liable to coaleſce, and gather into a hard coherent maſs, as appears in clay; and being thus embodied, and as it were glued together, is no way diſpoſed to nouriſh vegetables. But if ſuch earth be mixed with ſand, its pores are thereby kept open, and the earth itſelf looſe, ſo as thus to give room for the juices to aſcend, and for plants to be nouriſhed thereby. A vegetable planted only in ſand, or in a fat glebe, or in earth, receives little growth or increaſe; but a mixture of both renders the maſs fertile. In effect, earth is in ſome meaſure made organical by means of ſand; pores and ſpaces, ſomething analogous to veſſels, being thereby maintained, by which the juices may be conveyed, prepared, digeſted, circulated, and at length diſcharged. Common ſand is, therefore, a very good addition, by way of manure, to all ſorts of clay-lands; it warms them, and makes them more open and looſe.

SAND-*Bags*, in the art of war, are bags filled with earth or ſand, holding each about a cubic foot; their uſe is to raiſe parapets in haſte, or to repair what is beaten down.

SAND-*Eel*, in ichthyology. See AMMODYTES.

SAND-*Piper*, in ornithology. See TRINGA.

SANDAL, in antiquity, a rich kind of ſlipper worn on the feet by the Greek and Roman ladies, made of gold, ſilk, or other precious ſtuff; conſiſting of a ſole, with an hollow at one extreme to embrace the ancle, but leaving the upper part of the foot bare.

SANDAL, is alſo uſed for a ſhoe or ſlipper worn by the pope and other Romiſh prelates when they officiate. It is alſo the name of a ſort of ſlipper worn by ſeveral congregations of reformed monks. This laſt conſiſts of no more than a mere leathern ſole, faſtened with latches or buckles, all the reſt of the foot being left bare. The capuchins wear ſandals; the recollects, clogs; the former are of leather, and the latter of wood.

SANDARACH, in natural hiſtory, a very beautiful native foſſil, though too often confounded with the common factitious red arſenic, and with the red matter formed by melting the common yellow orpiment.

It is a pure ſubſtance, of a very even and regular ſtructure, is throughout of that colour which our dyers term an *orange-ſcarlet*, and is conſiderably tranſparent even in the thickeſt pieces. But though, with reſpect to colour, it has the advantage of cinnabar while in the maſs, it is vaſtly inferior to it when both are reduced to powder. It is moderately hard, and remarkably heavy; and, when expoſed to a moderate heat, melts and flows like oil: if ſet on fire, it burns very briſkly.

It is found in Saxony and Bohemia, in the copper and ſilver mines; and is ſold to the painters, who find it a very fine and valuable red: but its virtues or qualities in medicine, are no more aſcertained at this time than thoſe of the yellow orpiment.

Gum-SANDARACH, is a dry and hard reſin, uſually met with in looſe granules, of the bigneſs of a pea, a horſe-

Sanders || Sandys.

horſe-bean, or larger; of a pale whitiſh yellow colour, tranſparent, and of a reſinous ſmell, brittle, very inflammable, of an acrid and aromatic taſte, and diffuſing a very pleaſant ſmell when burning. It is produced from a ſpecies of the juniper.

It flows only from theſe trees in hot countries; but the natives promote its diſcharge by making incifions in the bark.

Sandarach is eſteemed good in diarrhœas, and in hæmorrhagies.

The varniſh-makers make a kind of varniſh of it, by diſſolving it in oil of turpentine or linſeed, or in ſpirit of wine.

SANDERS. See SAUNDERS.

SANDIVER, a whitiſh ſalt, continually caſt up from the *metal*, as it is called, whereof glaſs is made; and, ſwimming on its ſurface, is ſkimmed of.

Sandiver is alſo plentifully thrown out in the eruptions of volcanos; ſome is of a fine white, and others tinged bluiſh or yellowiſh.

Sandiver is ſaid to be detergent, and good for foulneſſes of the ſkin. It is alſo uſed by gilders of iron.

SANDIX, a kind of minium, or red-lead, made of ceruſe, but much inferior to the true minium.

SANDWICH, a town of Kent, one of the cinque ports, and which has the title of an earldom. It conſiſts of about 1500 houſes, moſt of them old, and built with wood, though there are a few new ones built with brick and flints. It has three long narrow ſtreets paved, and thirty croſs-ſtreet or alleys, with about 6000 inhabitants, but no particular manufactory. The town is walled round, and alſo fortified with ditches and ramparts; but the walls are much decayed, on account of the harbour being ſo choaked up with ſand that a ſhip of 100 tons burthen cannot get in. E. Long. 1. 20. N. Lat 51. 20.

SANDWICH *Iſland*, one of thoſe lately diſcovered in the South Sea, lying near New Ireland. No particulars concerning it are known, but that it is inhabited by woolly-headed negroes.

SANDYS (Sir Edwin), ſecond ſon of Dr Edwin Sandys archbiſhop of York, was born about 1561, and educated at Oxford under Mr Richard Hooker, author of the Eccleſiaſtical Polity. In 1581 he was collated to a prebend in the cathedral of York. He travelled into foreign countries; and, upon his return, grew famous for learning, prudence, and virtue. While he was at Paris, he drew up a tract, publiſhed under the title of *Europæ Speculum*. In 1602, he reſigned his prebend; and, the year following, was knighted by king James I. who employed him in ſeveral important affairs. He was dextrous in any great employment, and a good patriot. However, oppoſing the court with vigour in the parliament held in 1621, he, with Mr Selden, was committed to cuſtody for a month. He died in 1629, having bequeathed 1500 l. to the univerſity of Oxford, for the endowment of a metaphyſical lecture.

SANDYS (George), brother of the foregoing Sir Edwin, and youngeſt ſon of archbiſhop Sandys, was born in 1577. He was a moſt accompliſhed gentleman; travelled over ſeveral parts of Europe and the Eaſt; and publiſhed a relation of his journey in folio, in 1615. He made an elegant tranſlation of Ovid's Metamorphoſes; and compoſed ſome poetical pieces of his own, that were greatly admired in the times of their being written. He alſo paraphraſed the Pſalms; and has left behind him a Tranſlation, with Notes, of one Sacred Drama written originally by Grotius, under the title of *Chriſtus Patiens*; on which, and *Adamus Exul*, and Maſenius, is founded Lauder's impudent charge of plagiariſm againſt our immortal Milton. Our author became one of the privy chamber to Charles I. and died in 1643.

Sanguification || Sanhedrim.

SANGUIFICATION, in the animal œconomy, the converſion of the chyle into true blood. See BLOOD.

SANGUINARIA, BLOOD-WORT; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the polyandria claſs of plants. There is only one ſpecies, viz. the canadenſis, a native of the northern parts of America, where it grows plentifully in the woods; and in the ſpring, before the leaves of the trees come out, the ſurface of the ground is in many places covered with the flowers, which have ſome reſemblance to our wood anemone; but they have ſhort naked pedicles, each ſupporting one flower at top. Some of theſe flowers will have 10 or 12 petals, ſo that they appear to have a double range of leaves, which has occaſioned their being termed *double flowers*; but this is only accidental, the ſame roots in different years producing different flowers. The plant can bear the open air in this country, but ſhould be placed in a looſe ſoil and ſheltered ſituation, not too much expoſed to the ſun. It is propagated by the roots; which may be taken up and parted, in September, every other year. The Indians paint themſelves yellow with the juice of theſe plants.

SANGUISORBA, GREATER WILD BURNET; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the tetrandria claſs of plants. The moſt remarkable ſpecies is the officinalis, with oval ſpikes. This grows naturally in moiſt meadows in many parts of Britain. The ſtalks riſe from two to three feet high, branching towards the top; and are terminated by thick oval ſpikes of flowers of a greyiſh brown colour, which are divided into four ſegments almoſt to the bottom. Theſe are ſucceeded by four oblong cornered ſeeds. The leaves of this ſort are compoſed of five or ſix pair of lobes placed along a midrib, terminated by an odd one. Theſe are heart-ſhaped, deeply ſawed on their edges, and a little downy on their under-ſides. The cultivation of this plant has been greatly recommended as food to cattle. See AGRICULTURE, n° 47—49.

SANHEDRIM, or SANHEDRIN, among the Jews, the great council of the nation, conſiſting of 70 ſenators, taken partly from among the prieſts and levites, and partly out of the inferior judges, who formed what was called the *leſſer ſanhedrim*. The room they met in was a rotunda, half of which was built without the temple, and half within. The naſi, or preſident of the ſanhedrim, ſat upon a throne, with his deputy on his right-hand, his ſub-deputy on his left, and the other ſenators ranged in order on each ſide.

The authority of this council was very extenſive: for they decided ſuch cauſes as were brought before them by way of appeal from the inferior courts; and the king, the high prieſt, and prophets, were under the juriſdiction of this tribunal. They had the right of judging in capital caſes, and ſentence of death might not be pronounced in any other place; for which

Sanicula || Santaren.

which reason the Jews were forced to quit this hall, when the power of life and death was taken out of their hands, 40 years before the destruction of the temple, and three years before the death of Christ.

There were several inferior sanhedrims in Palestine, each of which consisted of 23 persons; all these depended on the great sanhedrim of Jerusalem.

SANICULA, SANICLE, or *Self heal;* a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. There is but one species, viz. the europæa, found in many parts both of Scotland and England. This plant was long celebrated for its healing virtues, both internally and externally; but is now totally disregarded.

SANIDIUM, in natural history, the name of a genus of fossils of the class of selenitæ, but neither of the rhomboidal nor columnar kinds, nor any other way distinguishable by its external figure; being made up of several plain flat plates.

SANIES, in medicine, a serous putrid matter, issuing from wounds. It differs from pus, which is thicker and whiter.

SANNAZARIUS (James), in Latin *Actius Cincentis Sannazarius*, a celebrated Latin and Italian poet, born at Naples in 1458. He by his wit ingratiated himself into the favour of king Frederic; and, when that prince was dethroned, attended him into France, where he staid with him till his death, which happened in 1504. Sannazarius then returned into Italy, where he applied himself to polite literature, and particularly to Latin and Italian poetry. His gay and facetious humour made him sought for by all companies; but he was so afflicted at the news that Philibert prince of Orange, general of the emperor's army, had demolished his country-house, that it threw him into an illness, of which he died in 1530. It is said, that being informed a few days before his death, that the prince of Orange was killed in battle, he cried out, "I shall die contented, since Mars has punished this barbarous enemy of the Muses." He wrote a great number of Italian and Latin poems: among those in Latin, his *De Partu Virginis*, and Ecclogues, are chiefly esteemed; and the most celebrated of his Italian pieces is his *Arcadia*.

SANTA CRUZ, a town of Africa, on the coast of Barbary, and in the province of Suez and kingdom of Morocco, with a harbour and a fort. The Moors took it from the Portuguese in 1536. It is seated at the extremity of Mount Atlas, on the Cape Aguer. W. Long. 9. 55. N. Lat. 36. 30.

SANTA *Cruz de la Sierra*, a town of South America, and capital of a province of that name in Peru, and in the audience of Los-Charcas, with a bishop's see. It is seated at the foot of a mountain, in a country abounding in good fruits, on the river Guapy. W. Long. 59. 35. S. Lat. 20. 40.

SANTA *Fe de Bogota*, a town of South America, and capital of New Granada, with an archbishop's see, a supreme court of justice, and an university. It is seated on the river Magdalena, in a plentiful country, abounding in corn, cattle, and fruit, with mines of silver in the mountains, 360 miles south of Carthagena. W. Long. 60. 5. N. Lat. 3. 58.

SANTAREN, a handsome town of Portugal, in Estremadura, seated on a mountain near the river Tajo, in a country very fertile in wheat, wine, and oil. They get in their harvest here two months after they have fown their corn. It was taken from the Moors in 1447. W. Long. 7. 45. N. Lat. 39. 12.

Santen || Santeuil.

SANTEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, and in the duchy of Cleves. It has a handsome church belonging to the Roman Catholics, wherein is an image of the Virgin Mary, which they pretend performs a great many miracles. Here the fine walks begin that run as far as Wesel, from which it is five miles distant to the north-west. E. Long. 6. 33. N. Lat. 51. 38.

SANTERRE, a small territory of France, in Picardy; bounded on the north by Cambresis, on the east by Vermandois, on the west by Amienois, and on the south by the river Somme. It is very fertile, and the capital town is Peronne.

SANTEUIL, or rather SANTEUL, (John Baptist de), in Latin *Santelius Victorinus*, an excellent Latin poet, was born at Paris in 1630. Having finished his studies in Lewis the Great's college, he applied himself entirely to poetry, and celebrated in his verse the praises of several great men; by which he acquired universal applause. He enriched Paris with a great number of inscriptions, which are to be seen on the public fountains, and the monuments consecrated to posterity. At length, some new hymns being to be composed for the Breviary of Paris, Claude Santeuil his brother, and M. Bossuet, persuaded him to undertake that work; and he succeeded in it with the greatest applause. On which the order of Clugny desiring him to compose some for their Breviary, he complied with their request; and that order, out of gratitude, granted him letters of filiation, with an annual pension. Santeuil was caressed by all the learned men of his time; and had for his admirers the two princes of Condé, the father and son, from whom he frequently received favours. Lewis XIV. also gave him a proof of his esteem, by bestowing a pension upon him. He attended the duke of Bourbon to Dijon, when that prince went thither in order to hold the states of Burgundy; and died there in 1697, as he was preparing to return to Paris. Besides his Latin hymns, he wrote a great number of Latin poems, which have all the fire and marks of genius discoverable in the works of great poets.

To Santeuil we are indebted for many fine church-hymns, as abovementioned. Santeuil read the verses he made for the inhabitants of heaven with all the agitations of a demoniac. Despreaux said he was the devil whom God compelled to praise saints. He was among the number of poets whose genius was as impetuous as his muse was decent.

La Bruyere has painted the character of this singular and truly original poet in the most lively colours. "Image a man of great facility of temper, complaisant and docile, in an instant violent, choleric, passionate, and capricious. A man simple, credulous, playful, volatile, puerile; in a word, a child in grey hairs: but let him collect himself, or rather call forth his interior genius, I venture to say, without his knowledge or privacy, what fallies! what elevation! what images! what latinity! Do you speak of one and the same person, you will ask? Yes, of the same; of Theodas, and of him alone. He shrieks, he jumps, he rolls upon the

the ground, he roars, he ſtorms; and in the midſt of this tempeſt, a flame iſſues that ſhines, that rejoices. Without a figure, he rattles like a fool, and thinks like a wiſe man. He utters truths in a ridiculous way; and, in an idiotic manner, rational and ſenſible things. It is aſtoniſhing to find good ſenſe diſcloſe itſelf from the boſom of buffoonery, accompanied with grimaces and contortions. What ſhall I ſay more? He does and he ſays better than he knows. Theſe are like two ſouls that are unacquainted with each other, which have each their turn and ſeparate functions. A feature would be wanting in this extraordinary portrait, if I omitted ſaying, that he has at once an inſatiable thirſt for praiſe, ready to throw himſelf at the mercy of the critics, and at the bottom ſo docile as to profit by their cenſure. I begin to perſuade myſelf, that I have been drawing the portraits of two different perſons: it would not be impoſſible to find a third in Theodas; for he is a good man, a pleaſant man, an excellent man."

This poet ought not to be confounded with *Claude de Santeuil*, his brother, a learned eccleſiaſtic, who alſo wrote ſeveral hymns in the Paris Breviary under the name of *Santolius Maglioranus*, a name given him from his having lived a long time in the ſeminary of St Magliore at Paris, in quality of ſecular eccleſiaſtic. He was eſteemed not only for his poetical abilities, but alſo for his profound erudition and his exemplary piety. He died at Paris in 1684, aged 57. He wrote ſeveral other pieces of poetry, beſides his hymns, which are printed with his brother's works.

SANTILLANE, a ſea-port town of Spain, in the province of Aſturias, of which it is the capital. It is ſeated on the ſea-coaſt, 55 miles eaſt of Oviedo, and 200 north-weſt of Madrid. W. Long. 4. 33. N. Lat. 43. 30.

SANTOLINA, LAVENDER-COTTON; a genus of the order of polygamia æqualis, belonging to the ſyngeneſia claſs of plants. The moſt remarkable ſpecies are, 1. The chamæcypariſſus, or common Lavender-cotton, which has been long known in the Engliſh gardens; it was formerly titled *abrotanum fœmina*, or *female ſouthernwood*, and by the corruption of words was called *brotany* by the market-people: it grows naturally in Spain, Italy, and the warm parts of Europe. This hath a ligneous ſtalk, dividing into many branches, garniſhed with ſlender hoary leaves, that are four ways indented, and have a rank ſtrong odour when handled. The branches are terminated by a ſingle flower, compoſed of many hermaphrodite florets, which are fiſtular, cut into five parts at the top, of a ſulphur colour, and are included in one common ſcaly empalement, having no borders or rays. Theſe are ſucceeded by ſmall, oblong, ſtriated ſeeds, which are ſeparated by ſcaly chaff, and ripen in the empalement; the plants love a dry ſoil and a ſheltered ſituation. 2. The villoſa, with woolly leaves, has a ſhrubby ſtalk, which branches out like the former, but the plants ſeldom grow ſo tall. The branches are garniſhed very cloſely below with leaves ſhaped like thoſe of the other ſort, but ſhorter, thicker, and whiter; the flowers are much larger, and the brims of the florets are more reflexed; they are of a deeper ſulphur colour than the other. It grows naturally in Spain. 3. The decumbens, with linear leaves, is of lower ſtature than either of the former, ſeldom riſing more than 15 or 16 inches high. The branches ſpread horizontally near the ground, and are garniſhed with ſhorter leaves than either of the former, which are hoary and finely indented; the ſtalks are terminated by ſingle flowers, of a bright yellow colour, which are larger than thoſe of the firſt ſort. 4. The virens, with very long linear leaves, riſes higher than either of the former. The branches are more diffuſed; they are ſlender, ſmooth, and garniſhed with very narrow long leaves, which are of a deep green colour, but two ways indented; the ſtalks are ſlender, naked towards the top, and terminated by ſingle flowers of a gold colour. 5. The roſmarinifolia, with linear entire leaves, hath ſhrubby ſtalks, which riſe about three feet high, ſending out long ſlender branches, garniſhed with ſingle linear leaves of a pale-green colour. The ſtalks are terminated by large, ſingle, globular flowers, of a pale ſulphur colour. 6. The minor, with linear obtuſe leaves, is ſomewhat like the fifth; but the branches are ſhorter, thicker, and cloſer garniſhed with leaves, which come out in cluſters. The flower-ſtalks are ſparſedly diſpoſed, and have leaves to their top; the flowers are ſmall, and of a yellow colour. 7. The chamæmelifolia, with obtuſe woolly leaves, hath ſhrubby ſtalks, which riſe three feet high, garniſhed with broader leaves than either of the former, whoſe indentures are looſer, but double; they are hoary, and when bruiſed have an odour like chamomile. The leaves are placed pretty far aſunder, and the ſtalks are garniſhed with them to the top. The ſtalks are divided likewiſe at the top into two or three foot-ſtalks, each ſuſtaining one pretty large ſulphur-coloured flower.

All theſe plants may be cultivated ſo as to become ornaments to a garden, particularly in ſmall boſquets of ever-green ſhrubs, where, if they are artfully intermixed with other plants of the ſame growth, and placed in the front line, they will make an agreeable variety; eſpecially if care be taken to trim them twice in a ſummer to keep them within bounds, otherwiſe their branches are apt to ſtraggle, and in wet weather to be borne down and diſplaced, which renders them unſightly; but when they are kept in order, their hoary and different-coloured leaves will have a pretty effect in ſuch plantations.—They may be propagated by planting ſlips or cuttings during the ſpring, in a border of light freſh earth, but muſt be watered and ſhaded in hot dry weather until they have taken root; after which they will require no farther care but to keep them clean from weeds till autumn, when they ſhould be tranſplanted where they are deſigned to remain: but if the ground is not ready by that time to receive them, it will be proper to let them remain in the border until ſpring; for if they are tranſplanted late in autumn, they are liable to be deſtroyed by cold in winter.

SANTORINI, an iſland of the Archipelago, to the north of Candia, and to the ſouth-weſt of Nanphio. It is eight miles in length, and near as much in breadth, and almoſt covered with pumice-ſtone, whence the ſoil in general muſt be dry and barren; it is, however, greatly improved by the labour and induſtry

Sa-
Sapindus.

dustry of the inhabitants, who have turned it into a garden. It affords a great deal of barley, plenty of cotton, and large quantities of wine. Fruit is scarce, except figs; and they have neither oil nor wood. The inhabitants are all Greeks, and are about 10,000 in number. Pyrgos is the capital town, and there are several little towns and villages. They have but one spring in the island, for which reason they preserve the rain-water in cisterns. Though subject to the Turks, they choose their own magistrates. E. Long. 25. 5. N. Lat. 39. 10.

SAO, a territory, called a kingdom, of Africa, on the gold-coast of Guinea, hardly two miles in length along the shore. It produces abundance of Indian corn, yams, potatoes, palm-wine, and oil. The inhabitants are very treacherous, and there is no dealing with them without a great deal of caution. It contains several villages, of which Sabo is the principal; and the Dutch have a fort here called *Nassau*.

SAONE, a considerable river of France, which has its source in mount Vosgue, near Darney; runs thro' the Franche Comte, Burgundy, Beaujolois; and falls into the Rhone at Lyons. It passes by Gray, Chalons, and Mascon.

SAP, a juice furnished by the earth, and changed into the substance of plants. See the article PLANT.

SAP, in sieges, is a trench, or an approach made under cover of 10 or 12 feet broad, when the besiegers come near the place, and the fire from the garrison grows so dangerous that they are not able to approach uncovered.—There are several sorts of saps; the single, which has only a single parapet; the double, having one on each side; and the flying, made with gabions, &c. In all saps, traverses are left to cover the men.

SAPPERS, are soldiers belonging to the royal artillery, whose business it is to work at the saps, and for which they have an extraordinary pay. A brigade of sappers generally consists of eight men, divided equally into two parties; and whilst one of these parties is advancing the sap, the other is furnishing the gabions, fascines, and other necessary implements, who relieve each other alternately.

Plate CXLVII.

SAPINDUS, the SOAP-BERRY TREE; a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the octandria class of plants. The species are, 1. The saponaria with winged leaves, grows naturally in the islands of the West Indies, where it rises with a woody stalk from 20 to 30 feet high, sending out many branches garnished with winged leaves composed of several pair of spear-shaped lobes. The midrib has a membranaceous or leafy border, running on each side from one pair of lobes to the other, which is broadest in the middle between the lobes; the flowers are produced in loose spikes, at the end of the branches; they are small and white, so make no great appearance. These are succeeded by oval berries as large as middling cherries, sometimes single, at others, two, three, or four are joined together; these have a saponaceous skin or cover, which incloses a very smooth roundish nut of the same form, of a shining black when ripe. The skin or pulp which surrounds the nuts, is used in America to wash linen; but it is very apt to burn and destroy it if often used, being of a very acrid nature. 2. The rigidus, with rigid acute-winged leaves, grows in India. This hath a strong woody stalk, which rises about 20 feet high, sending out many strong ligneous branches, covered with a smooth grey bark, and garnished with winged leaves, composed of many spear-shaped lobes; they are of a pale green, and sit close to the midrib, which has no border or wing like the other. The end of the branches are divided into two or three foot-stalks, each sustaining a loose spike of flowers like those of the other sort; these are succeeded by roundish berries like those of the former.

Saponaria
Sapphire.

These plants are propagated by seeds; they must be put into small pots, and plunged into a hot-bed of tanner's bark. In five or six weeks the plants will appear, when the glasses of the hot-bed should be raised every day in warm weather, to admit fresh air to the plants. In three weeks or a month after the plants appear, they will be fit to transplant, when they must be shaken out of the pots, and carefully parted, so as not to injure their roots, and each planted into a separate small pot, and plunged into the hot-bed again, observing to shade them from the sun until they have taken new root; after which time they must have free air admitted to them every day when the weather is warm, and will require to be frequently watered.

SAPONARIA, SOPEWORT; a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the decandria class of plants. The most remarkable species is the officinalis, or common sopewort, which grows naturally in many parts of this country. It has a creeping root, so that in a short time it would fill a large space of ground. The stalks are about two feet high, and of a purplish colour. The footstalks of the flowers arise from the wings of the leaves opposite; they sustain four, five, or more purple flowers each; which have generally two small leaves placed under them. The stalk is also terminated by a loose bunch of flowers growing in form of an umbel; they have each a large swelling cylindrical empalement, and five broad obtuse petals, which spread open, of a purple colour. These are succeeded by oval capsules with one cell filled with small seeds.—The decoction of this plant is used to cleanse and scour woollen cloths: the poor people in some countries use it instead of soap for washing; from whence it had its name.

SAPOR, TASTE. See TASTE; and ANATOMY, n° 403.

SAPPHIRE, a pellucid gem, which, in its finest state, is extremely beautiful and valuable, and second only to the diamond in lustre, hardness, and price. Its proper colour is a pure blue; in the finest specimens it is of the deepest azure, and in others varies into paleness in shades of all degrees between that and a pure crystal brightness and water, without the least tinge of colour, but with a lustre much superior to the crystal. They are distinguished into four sorts, viz. the blue sapphire, the white sapphire, the water sapphire, and the milk sapphire.

The gum known to us by this name is extremely different from the sapphire of the ancients, which was only a semi-opake stone, of a deep blue, veined with white, and spotted with small gold-coloured spangles, in the form of stars, and was only a more beautiful kind

Sappho. kind of the lapis lazuli; but our sapphire they have described under the name of *beryllus aeroides*, or the *sky-blue beryl*.

The finest sapphires in the world are brought from the kingdom of Pegu, in the East-Indies; where some are found perfectly colourless, and others of all the shades of blue; these are all found in the pebble-form. We have very fine sapphires also, partly pebble, partly crystal-shaped, from Bisnagar, Conanor, Calicut, and the island of Ceylon: these also are of all the shades of blue. And in Ceylon there are sometimes found a sort of bastard gems, of a mixed nature between the sapphire and ruby. The occidental are from Silesia, Bohemia, and many other parts of Europe; but though these are often very beautiful stones, they are greatly inferior, both in lustre and hardness, to the oriental.

SAPPHO, a famous poetess of antiquity, who for her excellence in her art has been called the *Tenth Muse*, was born at Mitylene in the isle of Lesbos, about 610 years before Christ. She was contemporary with Stesichorus and Alcæus; which last was her countryman, and as some think her suitor. A verse of this poet, in which he insinuates to her his passion, is preserved in Aristotle, *Rhet. lib. i. cap.* 9. together with the fair damsel's answer.

ALCÆUS. I fain to Sappho would a wish impart,
But fear locks up the secret in my heart.
SAPPHO. Thy downcast looks, respect, and timid air,
Too plain the nature of thy wish declare;
If lawless, wild, inordinate desire,
Did not with thoughts impure thy bosom fire,
Thy tongue and eyes, by innocence made bold,
Ere now the secret of thy soul had told.

M. la Fevre observes, that Sappho was not in her usual good-humour when she gave so cold an answer to a request, for which, at another time, perhaps she would not have waited.—It has been thought too, that Anacreon was one of her lovers, and his editor Barnes has taken some pains to prove it: but chronology will not admit this; since, upon inquiry, it will be found that Sappho was probably dead before Anacreon was born. Of the numerous poems this lady wrote, there is nothing remaining but some small fragments, which the ancient scholiasts have cited; a hymn to Venus, preserved by Dionysius of Halicarnassus; and an ode to one of her mistresses †; which last piece confirms a tradition delivered down from antiquity, that her amorous passion extended even to persons of her own sex, and that she was willing to have her mistresses as well as her gallants.

See POETRY, n. 6300, sect. 2.

Ovid introduces her making a sacrifice to Phaon one of her male paramours: from which we learn, that Sappho's love for her own sex did not keep her from loving ours. She fell desperately in love with Phaon, and did all she could to win him; but in vain: upon which she threw herself headlong from a rock, and died. It is said, that Sappho could not forbear following Phaon into Sicily, whither he retired that he might not see her; and that during her stay in that island, she probably composed the hymn to Venus, still extant, in which she begs so ardently the assistance of that goddess. Her prayers, however, proved ineffectual: Phaon was cruel to the last degree. The unfortunate Sappho was forced to take the dreadful leap; she went to the promontory Leucas, and threw herself into the sea. The cruelty of Phaon will not surprise us so much, if we reflect, that she was a widow; (for she had been married to a rich man in the isle of Andros, by whom she had a daughter, named *Cleis*); that she had never been handsome; that she had observed no measure in her passion to both sexes; and that Phaon had long known all her charms. She was, however, a very great wit, and for that alone deserves to be remembered. The Mitylenians had her merit in such high esteem, that they paid her sovereign honours after her death, and stamped their money with her image. The Romans afterwards erected a noble statue of Porphyry to her; and in short, ancients as well as moderns have done honour to her memory. Vossius says, that none of the Greek poets excelled Sappho for sweetness of verse; and that she made Archilochus the model of her style, but at the same time took care to soften the severity of his expression. It must be granted, says Rapin, from what is left us of Sappho, that Longinus had great reason to extol the admirable genius of this woman: for there is in what remains of her something delicate, harmonious, and impassioned to the last degree.

Saraband || Saragossa.

SARABAND, a musical composition in the triple time, the motions of which are slow and serious.

Saraband is also a dance to the same measure, which usually terminates when the hand that beats the time falls; and is otherwise much the same as the minuet.

The faraband is said to be originally derived from the Saracens, and is usually danced to the sound of the guitar or castanettes.

SARACENS, the inhabitants of Arabia; so called from the word *sara*, which signifies a desart, as the greatest part of Arabia is: and this being the country of Mahomet, his disciples were called *Saracens*.

SARAGOSSA, a city of Spain, in the kingdom Arragon, with an archbishop's see, an university, and a court of inquisition. It is said to have been built by the Phenicians; and the Romans sent a colony here in the reign of the emperor Augustus, whence it had the name of *Cæsar Augustus*, which by corruption has been changed into Saragossa. It is a large, handsome, and well-built town. The streets are long, broad, well paved, and very clean, and the houses from three to six stories high. It is adorned with many magnificent buildings; and they reckon 17 large churches, and 14 handsome monasteries, not to mention others less considerable. The river Ebro runs cross the place, dividing into two; and on its banks is a handsome quay, which serves for a public walk. The Holy-street is the largest, and so broad that it may be taken for a square; and here they have their bull-fights: in this street there are several noblemens families, particularly that of the viceroy. The convents are handsome and richly adorned, as well as the churches. The cathedral church is a spacious building, after the Gothic taste; but the finest church is that of Nuestra Signora del Pilar, seated on the side of the Ebro, and is a place of the greatest devotion in Spain. They tell us the virgin appeared to St James, who was preaching the gospel, and left him her image, with a handsome pillar of jasper; it is still in this church, which they pretend is the first in the world built to her honour.

Sarcasm || Sarcophagus.

This image ſtands on a marble pillar, with a little Jeſus in her arms; but the place is ſo dark, that it cannot be ſeen without the aſſiſtance of lamps, which are 50 in number, and all of ſilver. There are alſo chandeliers and baluſtrades of maſſy ſilver. The ornaments of this image are the richeſt that can be imagined, her crown being full of precious ſtones of an ineſtimable price; in ſhort, there is ſcarce any thing to be ſeen but gold and jewels, and a vaſt number of people come in pilgrimage hither. The town-houſe is a ſumptuous ſtructure, adorned with fine columns: in the hall are the pictures of all the kings of Arragon; and in a corner of it St George on horſeback, with a dragon of white marble under him. It is ſeated in a very large plain, where the Ebro receives two other rivers; and over it are two bridges, one of ſtone and the other of wood, which laſt has been thought the moſt beautiful in Europe. A victory was obtained here over the French and Spaniards in 1710, but it was abandoned by the allies ſoon after. It is 97 miles weſt by north of Tarragona, 137 weſt of Barcelona, and 150 north-eaſt of Madrid. W. Long. 0. 48. N. Lat. 41. 47.

SARCASM, in rhetoric, a keen bitter expreſſion which has the true point of ſatire, by which the orator ſcoffs and inſults his enemy: ſuch as that of the Jews to our Saviour; "He ſaved others, himſelf he cannot ſave."

SARCOCELE, in ſurgery, a ſpurious rupture, or hernia, wherein the teſticle is conſiderably tumefied or indurated, like a ſcirrhous, or much enlarged by a fleſhy excreſcence, which is frequently attended with acute pains, ſo as to degenerate at laſt into a cancerous diſpoſition. See SURGERY.

SARCOCOLLA, a concrete juice, brought from Perſia and Arabia, in ſmall whitiſh-yellow grains, with a few of a reddiſh and ſometimes of a deep red colour mixed with them; the whiteſt tears are preferred, as being the freſheſt: its taſte is bitter, accompanied with a dull kind of ſweetneſs. This drug diſſolves in watery liquors, and appears chiefly to be of the gummy kind, with a ſmall admixture of reſinous matter. It is principally celebrated for coglutinating wounds and ulcers; (whence its name σαρκοκολλα, fleſh-glue), a quality which neither this nor any other drug has any juſt title to.

SARCOLOGY, is that part of anatomy which treats of the ſoft parts, viz. the muſcles, inteſtines, arteries, veins, nerves, and fat.

SARCOMA, in ſurgery, denotes any fleſhy excreſcence.

SARCOPHAGUS, in antiquity, a ſort of ſtone coffin or grave, wherein the ancients laid thoſe they had not a mind to burn.

The word, as derived from the Greek, literally ſignifies, *fleſh-eater*; becauſe at firſt they uſed a ſort of ſtone for the making of tombs, which quickly conſumed the bodies. See the following article.

SARCOPHAGUS, or *Lapis Aſſius*, in the natural hiſtory of the ancients; a ſtone much uſed among the Greeks in their ſepultures, and is recorded to have always perfectly conſumed the fleſh of human bodies, buried in it, in forty days. This property it was much famed for, and all the ancient naturaliſts mention it. There was another very ſingular quality alſo in it, but whether in all, or only in ſome peculiar pieces of it, is not known; that is, its turning into ſtone any thing that was put into veſſels made of it. This is recorded only by Mutianus and Theophraſtus, except that Pliny had copied it from theſe authors, and ſome of the later writers on theſe ſubjects from him. The account Mutianus gives of it is, that it converted into ſtone the ſhoes of perſons buried in it, as alſo the utenſils which it was in ſome places cuſtomary to bury with the dead, particularly thoſe which the perſon, while living, moſt delighted in. The utenſils this author mentions, are ſuch as muſt have been made of very different materials; and hence it appears that this ſtone had a power of conſuming only fleſh, but that its petrifying quality extended to ſubſtances of very different kinds. Whether ever it really poſſeſſed this laſt quality, has been much doubted; and many, from the ſeeming improbability of it, have been afraid to record it. What has much encouraged the general diſbelief of it is, Mutianus's account of its taking place on ſubſtances of very different kinds and textures; but this is no real objection, and the whole account has probably truth in it. Petrifactions in thoſe early days might not be diſtinguiſhed from incruſtations of ſparry and ſtony mauter on the ſurfaces of bodies only, as we find they are not with the generality of the world even to this day; the incruſtations of ſpar on moſſes and other ſubſtances in ſome of our ſprings, being at this time called by many *petrified moſs*, &c. and incruſtations like theſe might eaſily be formed on ſubſtances encloſed in veſſels made of this ſtone, by water paſſing through its pores, diſlodging from the common maſs of the ſtone, and carrying with it particles of ſuch ſpar as it contained; and afterwards falling in repeated drops on whatever lay in its way, it might again depoſit them on ſuch ſubſtances in form of incruſtations. By this means, things made of ever ſo different matter, which happened to be incloſed, and in the way of the paſſage of the water, would be equally incruſted with and in appearance turned into ſtone, without regard to the different configuration of their pores and parts.

The place from whence the ancients tell us they had this ſtone was Aſſos, a city in Lycia, in the neighbourhood of which it was dug; and De Boot informs us, that in that country, and in ſome parts of the Eaſt, there are alſo ſtones of this kind, which, if tied to the bodies of living perſons, would in the ſame manner conſume their fleſh. *Hill's Notes on Theophraſtus*, p. 14.

SARCOTICS, in ſurgery, medicines which are ſuppoſed to generate fleſh in wounds.

Sarcophagus || Sardanapalus.

SARDANAPALUS, the laſt king of Aſſyria, whoſe character is one of the moſt infamous in hiſtory. He is ſaid to have ſunk ſo far in depravity, that, as far as he could, he changed his very ſex and nature. He cloathed himſelf as a woman, and ſpun amidſt companies of his concubines. He painted his face, and behaved in a more lewd manner than the moſt laſcivious harlot. In ſhort, he buried himſelf in the moſt unbounded ſenſuality, quite regardleſs of ſex, and the dictates of nature. Having grown odious to all his ſubjects, a rebellion was formed againſt him by Arbaces the Mede and Beleſis the Babylonian. They were attended, however, with very bad ſucceſs at firſt, being.

ing defeated with great slaughter in three pitched battles. With great difficulty Belesis prevailed upon his men to keep the field only five days longer; when they were joined by the Bactrians, who had come to the assistance of Sardanapalus, but had been prevailed upon to renounce their allegiance to him. With this reinforcement they twice defeated the troops of Sardanapalus, who shut himself up in Nineveh the capital of his empire. The city held out for three years; at the end of which, Sardanapalus finding himself unable to hold out any longer, and dreading to fall into the hands of an enraged enemy, retired into his palace, in a court of which he caused a vast pile of wood to be raised; and heaping upon it all his gold and silver and royal apparel, and at the same time inclosing his eunuchs and concubines in an apartment within the pile, he set fire to it, and so destroyed himself and all together.

SARDINIA, an island of the Mediterranean, bounded by the streight which divides it from Corsica, on the north; by the Tuscan sea, which flows between this island and Italy, on the east; and by other parts of the Mediterranean sea on the south and west. It is about 140 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. There is a pleasing variety of hills and valleys, and the soil is generally fruitful, and would produce corn, wine, and oil in abundance, if it was manured; but the inhabitants are a slothful generation, and cultivate but a little part of it. On the coast there is a fishery of anchovies and coral, of which they send large quantities to Genoa and Leghorn. The beeves and sheep are very common, as well as horses. This island was under the dominion of Spain till the year 1708; when Sir John Leake, the English admiral, reduced it to the obedience of the late emperor Charles VI. It was afterwards allotted to the duke of Savoy as an equivalent for Sicily, with the title of king of Sardinia; under whose dominion it still remains. This island is divided into two parts; the one, called *Capo-di Cagliari*, lies to the south; and the other *Capo-di-Lugary*, which is seated to the north. The principal towns are Cagliari the capital, Oristagno, and Sassari.

SARDONIUS RISUS, Sardonian laughter. A convulsive involuntary laughter; thus named from the herba sardonia, which is a species of ranunculus, and is said to produce such convulsive motions in the cheeks as resemble those motions which are observed in the face during a fit of laughter. This complaint is sometimes speedily fatal. If the ranunculus happens to be the cause, the cure must be attempted by means of a vomit, and frequent draughts of hydromel with milk.

SARDIS, now called *Sardo*, is an ancient town of Natolia in Asia, and is seated forty miles east of Smyrna. This town was formerly the seat of king Crœsus; but is now reduced to a poor village, containing nothing but wretched huts. However, there is a large caravansary, where travellers may commodiously lodge. The inhabitants are generally shepherds, who lead their sheep into the fine pastures of the neighbouring plain. The Turks have a mosque here, which was a Christian church, at the gate of which there are several columns of polished marble. There are a few Christians, who are employed in gardening. E. Long. 28. 5. N. Lat. 37. 51.

SARDONYX, in natural history, a genus of semipellucid gems, of the onyx structure, zoned or tabulated, and composed of the matter of the onyx variegated with that of the red or yellow Carnelian. See CARNELIAN and ONYX.

SARGUS, in ichthyology. See SPARUS.

SARMENTOSÆ, (from *sarmentum*, a long shoot like that of a vine); the name of the 11th class in Linnæus's Fragments of a Natural method, consisting of plants which have climbing stems and branches, that like the vine, attach themselves to the bodies in their neighbourhood for the purpose of support. See BOTANY, p. 1306.

SARSAPARILLA, in botany. See SIMILAX.

SARTORIUS, in anatomy. See there, *Table of the Muscles*.

SASHES, in military dress, are badges of distinction worn by the officers of most nations, either round their waist, or over their shoulders. Those for the British army are made of crimson silk; for the Imperial army, crimson and gold; for the Prussian army, black silk and silver; the Hanoverians, yellow silk; the Portuguese, crimson silk with blue tassels.

SASINE, or SEASINE. See LAW, N° clxiv. 15, &c.

SASAFRAS. See LAURUS.

SATELLITE, in astronomy, the same with a secondary planet or moon.

SATRAPA, or SATRAPES, in Persian antiquity, denotes an admiral; but more commonly the governor of a province.

SATTIN, a glossy kind of silk stuff, the warp of which is very fine, and stands so as to cover the coarser woof.

SATTINET, a slight thin kind of sattin, commonly striped, and ordinarily used by the ladies for summer night-gowns.

SATURANTS, in astronomy, the same with ABSORBENTS.

SATURATION, in chemistry, is the impregnating an acid with an alkali, or *vice versa*, till either will receive no more, and the mixture will then become neutral.

SATURDAY, the seventh and last day of the week, so called from the idol Seater, worshipped on this day by the ancient Saxons, and thought to be the same as the Saturn of the Latines.

SATUREIA, savory; a genus of the gymnospermia order, belonging to the didynamia class of plants.

Species. 1. The hortensis, or summer savory, is an annual plant, which grows naturally in the south of France and Italy, but is cultivated in this country both for the kitchen and medicinal use. 2. The montana, or winter savory, is a perennial plant growing naturally in the south of France and Italy, but is cultivated in gardens both for culinary and medicinal purposes.

Culture. Both kinds are propagated by seeds. Those of the first kind should be sown in the beginning of April upon a bed of light earth, either where they are to remain, or for transplanting. If the plants are to stand unremoved, they should be sown thinly; but if they are to be transplanted, they may be sown closer. The second species may be sown upon a poor dry soil, where the plants

Saturn || Saturnine.

will endure the severest winters, though they are often killed by the frost when planted in good ground. The plants will continue several years; but when they are old, the shoots will be shot and not so well furnished with leaves: it will therefore be proper to raise a supply of young plants every year.

Uses. Summer savory is a very warm pungent aromatic; and affords in distillation with water a subtile essential oil, of a penetrating smell, and very hot acrid taste. It yields little of its virtues by infusion to aqueous liquors; rectified spirit extracts the whole of its taste and smell, and elevates nothing in distillation.

SATURN, in astronomy, one of the planets of our solar system revolving at the distance of more than 900 millions of miles from the sun. See ASTRONOMY *passim*.

SATURN, in chemistry, an appellation given to lead.

SATURN, in heraldry, denotes the black colour in bazoning the arms of sovereign princes.

SATURN, one of the principal of the Pagan deities, was the son of Cœlus and Terra, and the father of Jupiter. He deposed and castrated his father; and obliged his brother Titan to resign his crown to him, on condition of his bringing up none of his male issue, that the succession might at length devolve on him. For this purpose he devoured all the sons he had by his wife Rhea or Cybele: but she bringing forth at one time Jupiter and Juno, she presented the latter to her husband, and sent the boy to be nursed on mount Ida; when Saturn being informed of her having a son, demanded the child; but in his stead his wife gave him a stone swaddled up like an infant, which he instantly swallowed. Titan finding that Saturn had violated the contract he had made with him, put himself at the head of his children, and made war on his brother, and having made him and Cybele prisoners, confined them in Tartarus: but Jupiter being in the mean time grown up, raised an army in Crete, went to his father's assistance, defeated Titan, and restored Saturn to the throne. Some time after, Saturn being told that Jupiter intended to dethrone him, endeavoured to prevent it; but the latter being informed of his intention, deposed his father, and threw him into Tartarus. But Saturn escaping from thence, fled into Italy, where he was kindly received by Janus king of the country, who associated him to the government: whence Italy obtained the name of *Saturnia Tellus*; as also that of *Latium*, from *latio*, "to lie hid." There Saturn, by the wisdom and mildness of his government, it is said to have produced the golden age.

SATURNALIA, in Roman antiquity, a festival observed about the middle of December, in honour of the god Saturn, whom Lucan introduces giving an account of the ceremonies observed on this occasion, thus. "During my whole reign, which lasts but for one week, no public business is done; there is nothing but drinking, singing, playing, creating imaginary kings, placing servants with their masters at table, &c. There shall be no disputes, reproaches, &c. but the rich and poor, masters and slaves, shall be equal, &c."

On this festival the Romans sacrificed bare-headed, contrary to their custom at other sacrifices.

SATURNINE, an appellation given to persons of a melancholy disposition, as being supposed under the influence of the planet Saturn.

Satyr || Savage.

SATYR, or *Satire*, in matters of literature, a discourse or poem, exposing the vices and follies of mankind. See POETRY, n° 88.

The chief satirists among the ancients are, Horace, Juvenal, and Persius: those among the moderns, are, Regnier and Boileau, in French; and Dryden, Oldham, Rochester, Buckingham, Pope, Young, &c. among the English.

SATYRIASIS. See MEDICINE, n° 466.

SATYRS, in fabulous history, a part of Bacchus's retinue, represented with disagreeable faces, their heads armed with short horns, with hairy bodies, and with the feet and legs of goats. They are represented by the poets as having their usual residence in the woods and forests, and as being of a wanton and lustful disposition.

Some think the notion of these satyrs might have been derived from the monkeys known at present under the same name. See the article SIMIA.

SAVAGE (Richard), one of the most remarkable characters that is to be met with perhaps in all the records of biography, was the son of Anne countess of Macclesfield, by the earl of Rivers, according to her own confession; and was born in 1698. This confession of adultery was made in order to procure a separation from her husband the earl of Macclesfield: yet, having obtained this desired end, no sooner was her spurious offspring brought into the world, than, without the dread of shame or poverty to excuse her, she discovered the resolution of disowning him; and, as long as he lived, treated him with the most unnatural cruelty. She delivered him over to a poor woman to educate as her own; and prevented the earl of Rivers from leaving him a legacy of L. 6000, by declaring him dead. She endeavoured to send him secretly to to the plantations; but this plan being either laid aside or frustrated, she placed him apprentice with a shoemaker. In this situation, however, he did not long continue: for his nurse dying, he went to take care of the effects of his supposed mother; and found in her boxes some letters which discovered to young Savage of his birth, and the cause of its concealment.

From the moment of this discovery it was natural for him to become dissatisfied with his situation as a shoemaker. He now conceived that he had a right to share in the affluence of his real mother; and therefore he directly, and perhaps indiscreetly, applied to her, and made use of every art to awaken her tenderness and attract her regard. But in vain did he solicit this unnatural parent; she avoided him with the utmost precaution, and took measures to prevent his ever entering the house on any pretence whatever.

Savage was at this time so touched with the discovery of his birth, that he frequently made it his practice to walk before his mother's door in hopes of seeing her by accident; and often did he warmly solicit her to admit him to see her: but all to no purpose; he could neither soften her heart, nor open her hand.

Mean time, while he was assiduously endeavouring to rouse the affections of a mother in whom all natural affection was extinct, he was destitute of the means of support, and reduced to the miseries of want. We are not told by what means he got rid of his obligation

gation to the ſhoemaker, or whether he ever was actually bound to him; but we now find him very differently employed in order to procure a ſubſiſtence. In ſhort, the youth had parts, and a ſtrong inclination towards literary purſuits, eſpecially poetry. He wrote a poem; and afterwards two plays, *Woman's a Riddle* and *Love in a Veil*: but the author was allowed no part of the profits from the firſt; and from the ſecond he received no other advantage than the acquaintance of Sir Richard Steel and Mr Wilks, by whom he was pitied, careſſed, and relieved. However, the kindneſs of his friends not affording him a conſtant ſupply, he wrote the tragedy of *Sir Thomas Overbury*; which not only procured him the eſteem of many perſons of wit, but brought him in 200*l.* The celebrated Aaron Hill, Eſq; was of great ſervice to him in correcting and fitting this piece for the ſtage and the preſs; and extended his patronage ſtill farther. But Savage was, like many other wits, a bad manager, and was ever in diſtreſs. As faſt as his friends raiſed him out of one difficulty, he ſunk into another; and, when he found himſelf greatly involved, he would ramble about like a vagabond, with ſcarce a ſhirt on his back. He was in one of theſe ſituations all the time wherein he wrote his tragedy abovementioned; without a lodging, and often without a dinner: ſo that he uſed to ſcribble on ſcraps of paper picked up by accident, or begged in the ſhops, which he occaſionally ſtepped into, as thoughts occurred to him, craving the favour of pen and ink, as it were juſt to take a memorandum.

Mr Hill alſo earneſtly promoted a ſubſcription to a volume of *Miſcellanies*, by Savage; and likewiſe furniſhed part of the poems of which the volume was compoſed. To this miſcellany Savage wrote a preface, in which he gives an account of his mother's cruelty, in a very uncommon ſtrain of humour.

The profits of his Tragedy and his Miſcellanies together, had now, for a time, ſomewhat raiſed poor Savage both in circumſtances and credit; ſo that the world juſt began to behold him with a more favourable eye than formerly, when both his fame and life were endangered by a moſt unhappy event. A drunken frolic in which he one night engaged, ended in a fray, and Savage unfortunately killed a man, for which he was condemned to be hanged; his friends earneſtly ſolicited the mercy of the crown, while his mother as earneſtly exerted herſelf to prevent his receiving it. The counteſs of Hertford at length laid his whole caſe before queen Caroline, and Savage obtained a pardon.

Savage had now loſt that tenderneſs for his mother, which the whole ſeries of her cruelty had not been able wholly to repreſs; and conſidering her as an implacable enemy, whom nothing but his blood could ſatisfy, threatened to harraſs her with lampoons, and to publiſh a copious narrative of her conduct, unleſs ſhe conſented to allow him a penſion. This expedient proved ſucceſsful; and the lord Tyrconnel, upon his promiſe of laying aſide his deſign of expoſing his mother's cruelty, took him into his family, treated him as an equal, and engaged to allow him a penſion of 200*l.* a-year. This was the golden part of Savage's life. He was courted by all who endeavoured to be thought men of genius, and careſſed by all who valued themſelves upon a refined taſte. In this gay period of his life he publiſhed the *Temple of Health and Mirth*, on the recovery of lady Tyrconnel from a languiſhing illneſs; and *The Wanderer*, a moral poem, which he dedicated to lord Tyrconnel, in ſtrains of the higheſt panegyric: but theſe praiſes he in a ſhort time found himſelf inclined to retract, being diſcarded by the man on whom they were beſtowed. Of this quarrel lord Tyrconnel and Mr Savage aſſigned very different reaſons. Our author's known character pleads too ſtrongly againſt him; for his conduct was ever ſuch as made all his friends, ſooner or later, grow weary of him, and even forced moſt of them to become his enemies.

Being thus once more turned adrift upon the world, Savage, whoſe paſſions were very ſtrong, and whoſe gratitude was very ſmall, became extremely diligent in expoſing the faults of lord Tyrconnel. He, moreover, now thought himſelf at liberty to take revenge upon his mother.—Accordingly he wrote *The Baſtard*, a poem, remarkable for the vivacity in the beginning, (where he finely enumerates the imaginary advantages of baſe birth), and for the pathetic concluſion, wherein he recounts the real calamities which he ſuffered by the crime of his parents.—The reader will not be diſpleaſed with a tranſcript of ſome of the lines in the opening of the poem, as a ſpecimen of this writer's ſpirit and manner of verſification.

> Bleſt be the baſtard's birth! thro' wond'rous ways,
> He ſhines excentric like a comet's blaze.
> No ſickly fruit of faint compliance he;
> He! ſtamp'd in nature's mint with ecſtaſy!
> He lives to build, not boaſt a gen'rous race;
> No tenth tranſmitter of a fooliſh face.
> He, kindling from within, requires no flame,
> He glories in a baſtard's glowing name.
> —Nature's unbounded ſon, he ſtands alone,
> His heart unbias'd, and his mind his own.
> —O mother! yet no mother!—'tis to you
> My thanks for ſuch diſtinguiſh'd claims are due.

This poem had an extraordinary ſale; and its appearance happening at the time when his mother was at Bath, many perſons there took frequent opportunities of repeating paſſages from the Baſtard in her hearing. This was perhaps the firſt time that ever ſhe diſcovered a ſenſe of ſhame, and on this occaſion the power of wit was very conſpicuous: the wretch who had, without ſcruple, proclaimed herſelf an adultereſs, and who had firſt endeavoured to ſtarve her ſon, then to tranſport him, and afterwards to hang him, was not able to bear the repreſentation of her own conduct; but fled from reproach, though ſhe felt no pain from guilt; and left Bath with the utmoſt haſte, to ſhelter herſelf among the crowds of London.

Some time after this, Savage formed the reſolution of applying to the queen; who having once given him life, he hoped ſhe might farther extend her goodneſs to him by enabling him to ſupport it.—With this view, he publiſhed a poem on her birth-day, which he entitled *The Volunteer-Laureat*; for which ſhe was pleaſed to ſend him 50*l.* with an intimation that he might annually expect the ſame bounty. But this annual allowance was nothing to a man of his ſtrange and ſingular extravagance. His uſual cuſtom was, as ſoon as he had received his penſion, to diſappear with it, and ſecrete himſelf from his moſt intimate friends, till every ſhilling of the 50*l.* was ſpent; which done, he again appeared, pennyleſs as before: But he

Savage. he would never inform any perſon where he had been, nor in what manner his money had been diſſipated.—From the reports, however, of ſome who found means to penetrate his haunts, it would ſeem that he expended both his time and his caſh in the moſt ſordid and deſpicable ſenſuality; particularly in eating and drinking, in which he would indulge in the moſt unſocial manner, ſitting whole days and nights by himſelf, in obſcure houſes of entertainment, over his bottle and trencher, immerſed in filth and ſloth, with ſcarce decent apparel; generally wrapped up in a horſeman's great coat; and, on the whole, with his very homely countenance, and altogether, exhibiting an object the moſt diſguſting to the ſight, if not to ſome other of the ſenſes.

His wit and parts, however, ſtill raiſed him new friends, as faſt as his miſbehaviour loſt him his old ones. Yet ſuch was his conduct, that occaſional relief only furniſhed the means of occaſional exceſs; and he defeated all attempts made by his friends to fix him in a decent way. He was even reduced ſo low as to be deſtitute of a lodging; inſomuch that he often paſſed his nights in thoſe mean houſes that are ſet open for caſual wanderers; ſometimes in cellars amidſt the riot and filth of the moſt profligate of the rabble; and not ſeldom would he walk the ſtreets till he was weary, and then lie down, in ſummer, on a bulk, or, in winter, with his aſſociates among the aſhes of a glaſs-houſe.

Yet, amidſt all his penury and wretchedneſs, had this man ſo much pride, and ſo high an opinion of his own merit, that he ever kept up his ſpirits, and was always ready to repreſs, with ſcorn and contempt, the leaſt appearance of any ſlight or indignity towards himſelf, in the behaviour of his acquaintance; among whom he looked upon none as his ſuperior. He would be treated as an equal, even by perſons of the higheſt rank. We have an inſtance of this prepoſterous and inconſiſtent pride, in refuſing to wait upon a gentleman who was deſirous of relieving him when at the loweſt ebb of diſtreſs, only becauſe the meſſage ſignified the gentleman's deſire to ſee him at nine in the morning. Savage could not bear that any one ſhould preſume to preſcribe the hour of his attendance, and therefore he abſolutely rejected the proffered kindneſs. This life, unhappy as it may be already imagined, was yet rendered more unhappy, by the death of the queen, in 1738; which ſtroke deprived him of all hopes from the court. His penſion was diſcontinued, and the inſolent manner in which he demanded of Sir Robert Walpole to have it reſtored, for ever cut off this conſiderable ſupply; which poſſibly had been only delayed, and might have been recovered by proper application.

His diſtreſs now became ſo great, and ſo notorious, that a ſcheme was at length concerted for procuring him a permanent relief. It was propoſed that he ſhould retire into Wales, with an allowance of 50 l. *per annum*, on which he was to live privately, in a cheap place, for ever quitting his town-haunts, and reſigning all farther pretenſions to fame. This offer he ſeemed gladly to accept; but his intentions were only to deceive his friends, by retiring for a while, to write another tragedy, and then to return with it to London in order to bring it upon the ſtage.

In 1739, he ſet out for Swanſey, in the Briſtol ſtage-coach, and was furniſhed with 15 guineas to bear the expence of his journey. But, on the 14th day after his departure, his friends and benefactors, the principal of whom was no other than the great Mr Pope, who expected to hear of his arrival in Wales, were ſurpriſed with a letter from Savage, informing them that he was yet upon the road, and could not proceed for want of money. There was no other remedy than a remittance; which was ſent him, and by the help of which he was enabled to reach Briſtol, from whence he was to proceed to Swanſey by water. At Briſtol, however, he found an embargo laid upon the ſhipping; ſo that he could not immediately obtain a paſſage. Here, therefore, being obliged to ſtay for ſome time, he, with his uſual facility, ſo ingratiated himſelf with the principal inhabitants, that he was frequently invited to their houſes, diſtinguiſhed at their public entertainments, and treated with a regard that highly gratified his vanity, and therefore eaſily engaged his affections. At length, with great reluctance, he proceeded to Swanſey; where he lived about a year, very much diſſatisfied with the diminution of his ſalary; for he had, in his letters, treated his contributors ſo inſolently, that many of them withdrew their ſubſcriptions. Here he finiſhed his tragedy, and reſolved to return with it to London: which was ſtrenuouſly oppoſed by his great and conſtant friend Mr Pope; who propoſed that Savage ſhould put this play into the hands of Mr Thomſon and Mr Mallet in order that they might fit it for the ſtage, that his friends ſhould receive the profits it might bring in, and that the author ſhould receive the produce by way of annuity. This kind and prudent ſcheme was rejected by Savage, with the utmoſt contempt.—He declared he would not ſubmit his works to any one's correction; and that he would no longer be kept in leading-ſtrings. Accordingly he ſoon returned to Briſtol, in his way to London; but at Briſtol, meeting with a repetition of the ſame kind treatment he had before found there, he was tempted to make a ſecond ſtay in that opulent city, for ſome time. Here he was again not only careſſed and treated, but the ſum of 30 l. was raiſed for him, with which it had been happy if he had immediately departed for London: But he never conſidered that a frequent repetition of ſuch kindneſs was not to be expected, and that it was poſſible to tire out the generoſity of his Briſtol friends, as he had before tired his friends every where elſe. In ſhort, he remained here, till his company was no longer welcome. His viſits in every family were too often repeated; his wit had loſt its novelty, and his irregular behaviour grew troubleſome. Neceſſity came upon him before he was aware; his money was ſpent, his cloaths were worn out, his appearance was ſhabby, and his preſence was diſguſtful at every table. He now began to find every man from home, at whoſe houſe he called; and he found it difficult to obtain a dinner. Thus reduced, it would have been prudent in him to have withdrawn from the place; but prudence and Savage were never acquainted. He ſtaid, in the midſt of poverty, hunger, and contempt, till the miſtreſs of a coffee-houſe, to whom he owed about eight pounds, arreſted him for the debt. He remained for ſome time, at a great expence, in the houſe of the ſheriff's officer, in hopes of

of procuring bail; which expence he was enabled to defray, by a present of five guineas from Mr Nash at Bath. No bail, however, was to be found; so that poor Savage was at last lodged in Newgate, a prison so named in Bristol.

But it was the fortune of this extraordinary mortal, always to find more friends than he deserved. The keeper of the prison took compassion on him, and greatly softened the rigours of his confinement, by every kind of indulgence; he supported him at his own table, gave him a commodious room to himself, allowed him to stand at the door of the goal, and even frequently took him into the fields for the benefit of the air and exercise: so that, in reality, Savage endured fewer hardships in this place, than he had usually suffered during the greatest part of his life.

While he remained in this not intolerable prison, his ingratitude again broke out, in a bitter satire on the city of Bristol; to which he certainly owed great obligations, notwithstanding the circumstances of his arrest; which was but the act of an individual, and that attended with no circumstances of injustice or cruelty. This satire he entitled *London and Bristol Compared;* and in it he abused the inhabitants of the latter, with such a spirit of resentment, that the reader would imagine he had never received any other than the most injurious treatment in that city.

When Savage had remained about six months in this hospitable prison, he received a letter from Mr Pope, (who still continued to allow him 20l. a-year) containing a charge of very atrocious ingratitude. What were the particulars of this charge, we are not informed; but, from the notorious character of the man, there is reason to fear that Savage was but too justly accused. He, however, solemnly protested his innocence; but he was very unusually affected on this occasion. In a few days after, he was seized with a disorder, which at first was not suspected to be dangerous: but, growing daily more languid and dejected, at last a fever seized him; and he expired on the 1st of August 1743, in the 46th year of his age.

Thus lived, and thus died, Richard Savage, Esq; leaving behind him a character strangely chequered with vices and good qualities. Of the former we have seen a variety of instances in this abstract of his life; of the latter, his peculiar situation in the world gave him but few opportunities of making any considerable display. He was, however, undoubtedly a man of excellent parts; and, had he received the full benefits of a liberal education, and had his natural talents been cultivated to the best advantage, he might have made a respectable figure in life. He was happy in an agreeable temper and a lively flow of wit, which made his company much coveted; nor was his judgment both of writings and of men, inferior to his wit: but he was too much a slave to his passions, and his passions were too easily excited. He was warm in his friendships, but implacable in his enmity; and his greatest fault, which is indeed the greatest of all faults, was ingratitude. He seemed to think every thing due to his merit, and that he was little obliged to any one for those favours which he thought it their duty to confer on him: it is therefore the less to be wondered at, that he never rightly estimated the kindness of his many friends and benefactors, or preserved a grateful and due sense of their generosity towards him.

The works of this original writer, after having long lain dispersed in magazines and fugitive publications, have been lately collected and published in an elegant edition, in 2 vols 8vo; to which are prefixed, the admirable Memoirs of Savage, written by Dr Samuel Johnson.

SAVAGE *Island*, one of the small islands in the south sea, lying in S. Lat. 19. 1. W. Long. 169. 37. It is about seven leagues in circuit, of a good height, and has deep water close to its shores. Its interior parts are supposed to be barren, as there was no soil to be seen upon the coasts; the rocks alone supplying the trees with humidity. The inhabitants are exceedingly warlike and fierce, so that captain Cook could not have any intercourse with them,

SAVARY (James), an eminent French writer on the subject of trade, was born at Done in Anjou, in 1622. Being bred to merchandize, he continued in trade until 1658; when he left off the practice, to cultivate the theory. He had married in 1650; and in 1660, when the king declared a purpose of assigning privileges and persons to such of his subjects as had twelve children alive, Mr Savary was not too rich to put in his claim to the royal bounty. He was afterwards admitted of the council for the reformation of commerce; and the orders which passed in 1670 were drawn up by his instructions and advice. He wrote *Le Parfait Negociant*, 4to; and, *Avis et Conseils sur les plus importantes matieres du Commerce*, in 4to. He died in 1690; and out of 17 children whom he had by one wife, left 11. Two of his sons, James and Philemon Lewis, laboured jointly on a great work, *Dictionnaire Universelle du Commerce*, 2 vols folio: this work was begun by James, who was inspector-general of the manufactures at the custom-house, Paris; who called in the assistance of his brother Philemon Lewis, although a canon of the royal church of St Maur; and by his death left him to finish it. This work appeared in 1723, and Philemon afterwards added a third supplemental volume to the former. Postlethwayte's English Dictionary of Trade and Commerce is a translation, with considerable improvements, from Savary.

SAUCISSE, or SAUCISSON, in mining, is a long pipe or bag made of cloth well pitched, or sometimes of leather, of about an inch and an half diameter, filled with powder, going from the chamber of the mine to the entrance of the gallery. It is generally placed in a wooden pipe called an *auget*, to prevent its growing damp. It serves to give fire to mines, caffions, bomb-chests, &c.

SAUCISSON, is likewise a kind of fascine, longer than the common ones; they serve to raise batteries and to repair breaches. They are also used in making epaulments, in stopping passages, and in making traverses over a wet ditch, &c.

SAVANNAH, the capital of the country of Georgia in North America, situated in W. Long. 101. 20. N. Lat. 32. 0.

SAVE, a river of Germany, which has its source in Upper Carniola, on the frontiers of Carinthia. It runs through Carniola from west to east, afterwards separates Sclavonia from Croatia, Bosnia, and part of Servia, and then falls into the Danube at Belgrade.

SAVILE (Sir George), afterwards marquis of Halifax, and one of the greateſt ſtateſmen of his time, was born about the year 1630; and ſome time after his return from his travels, was created a peer, in conſideration of his own and his father's merits. He was a ſtrenuous oppoſer of the bill of excluſion; that propoſed ſuch limitations of the duke of York's authority, as ſhould diſable him from doing any harm either in church or ſtate, as the taking out of his hands all power in eccleſiaſtical matters, the diſpoſal of the public money, and the power of making peace and war; and lodging theſe in the two houſes of parliament. After that bill was rejected in the houſe of lords, he preſſed them, though without ſucceſs, to proceed to the limitation of the duke's power; and began with moving, that during the king's life he might be obliged to live five hundred miles out of England. In Auguſt 1682, he was created a marquis, and ſoon after made privy-ſeal. Upon king James's acceſſion, he was made preſident of the council; but on his refuſal to conſent to the repeal of the teſt, he was diſmiſſed from all public employments. In that aſſembly of the lords which met after king James's withdrawing himſelf the firſt time from Whitehall, the marquis was choſen their preſident; and upon the king's return from Feverſham, he was ſent, together with the earl of Shrewſbury and lord Delamere, from the prince of Orange, to order his majeſty to quit the palace at Whitehall. In the convention of parliament he was choſen ſpeaker of the houſe of lords, and ſtrenuouſly ſupported the motion for the vacancy of the throne, and the conjunctive ſovereignty of the prince and princeſs; upon whoſe acceſſion he was again made privy-ſeal. Yet, in 1683, he quitted the court; and became a zealous oppoſer of the meaſures of government till his death, which happened in April 1695. The rev. Mr Grainger obſerves, that "he was a perſon of unſettled principles, and of a lively imagination, which ſometimes got the better of his judgment. He would never loſe his jeſt, though it ſpoiled his argument, or brought his ſincerity or even his religion in queſtion. He was deſervedly celebrated for his parliamentary talents; and in the famous conteſt relating to the bill of excluſion, was thought to be a match for his uncle Shaftsbury. The pieces he has left us ſhow him to have been an ingenious, if not a maſterly writer; and his *Advice to a Daughter*, contains more good ſenſe in fewer words, than is, perhaps, to be found in any of his contemporary authors." His lordſhip alſo wrote, The Anatomy of an Equivalent; a Letter to a Diſſenter; a Rough Draught of a New Model at Sea; and Maxims of State; all which were printed together in one volume octavo. Since theſe, were alſo publiſhed under his name the Character of king Charles II. octavo; the Character of Biſhop Burnet; and Hiſtorical Obſervations upon the reigns of Edward I. II. III. and Richard II. with Remarks upon their faithful Counſellors and falſe Favourites.

SAVIN, in botany. See Juniperus.

SAVIOUR, an appellation peculiarly given to Jeſus Chriſt, as being the Meſſiah and Saviour of the world. See Jesus.

Order of St Saviour, a religious order of the Romiſh Church, founded by St Bridget, about the year 1345, and ſo called from its being pretended that our Saviour himſelf declared its conſtitution and rules to the foundreſs.—According to the conſtitutions, this is principally founded for religious women who pay a particular honour to the holy virgin; but there are ſome monks of the order, to adminiſter the ſacrament and ſpiritual aſſiſtance to the nuns.

SAUMUR, a conſiderable town of France, in Anjou, and capital of the Saumarois, with an ancient caſtle. Here is an important paſſage over the Loire, upon which there is a famous bridge. E. Long. 0. 2. N. Lat. 47. 15.

SAUNDERS, a kind of wood brought from the Eaſt Indies. There are three kinds of it; white, yellow, and red.—The white comes in billets about the thickneſs of a man's leg, of a pale whitiſh colour. It has been recommended for its medical virtues; but from its total want of ſmell or taſte, nothing in this way can be expected.—The yellow kind has a pleaſant ſmell, and a bitteriſh aromatic taſte accompanied with an agreeable pungency. This wood, according to Dr Lewis, though unnoticed in the preſent practice, might undoubtedly be applied to many valuable medical purpoſes. Diſtilled with water, it yields a fragrant eſſential oil, which thickens in the cold into the conſiſtence of a balſam. Digeſted in pure ſpirit, it imparts a rich yellow tincture; which being committed to diſtillation, the ſpirit ariſes without bringing over any thing conſiderable of the flavour of the ſaunders. The reſiduum contains the virtues of ſix times its weight of the wood. Hoffman looks upon the extract as a medicine of ſimilar virtues to ambergreaſe, and recommends it as an excellent reſtorative in great debilities.—The red kind is brought from the Eaſt Indies in large billets, of a compact texture, a dull red, almoſt blackiſh colour on the outſide, and a deep bright red within. This wood has no manifeſt ſmell, and little or no taſte: nevertheleſs it has been recommended as a mild aſtringent, and corroborant of the nervous ſyſtem; qualities which belong only to the yellow ſort. It is principally employed as a colouring drug; and communicates a deep red to rectified ſpirit, but ſcarce to any oil excepting that of lavender.—It is eaſily diſtinguiſhed from Brazil-wood, becauſe the latter readily communicates its colour to water, which ſaunders will not.

SAUDERSON (Dr Nicholas), an illuſtrious profeſſor of mathematics in the univerſity of Cambridge, and a fellow of the royal ſociety, was born at Thurleſton in Yorkſhire in 1682. When he was twelve months old, he loſt not only his eye-ſight, but his very eye-balls, by the ſmall-pox; ſo that he could retain no more ideas of viſion than if he had been born blind. His father, who was in the exciſe, inſtructed him in numbers; for which he diſcovered ſo uncommon a capacity, that with no more learning than he gained at a private academy, and his own induſtry, aſſiſted by a mere reader, it was reſolved to ſend him to Cambridge not as a ſcholar but as a maſter. He accordingly went thither in 1707, and his fame in a ſhort time filled the univerſity. The *Principia Mathematica*, *Optics*, and *Arithmetica Univerſalis*, of Sir Iſaac Newton, were the foundations of his lectures, and afforded him a noble field for the diſplay of his genius; and great numbers came to hear a blind man give lectures on optics, diſcourſe on the nature of light and colours, explain the theory of viſion, the effect of glaſſes

glasses, the phænomenon of the rainbow, and other objects of sight. See the article BLIND, n° 12. 37.

As he instructed youth in the principles of the Newtonian philosophy, he soon became acquainted with its incomparable author, who had several years before left the university; and frequently conversed with him on the most difficult parts of his works: he also lived in friendship with the other eminent mathematicians of the age, Hally, Cotes, De Moivre, &c. Upon Mr Whiston's removal from the professorship, Mr Saunderson's merit was thought so much superior to that of any other competitor, that an extraordinary step was taken to qualify him with a degree; and he was accordingly chosen Mr Whiston's successor in 1711. In 1723, he married the daughter of a clergyman, by whom he had a son and a daughter; and died in 1738. There was scarcely any part of the mathematics on which he had not composed something for the use of his pupils; but he discovered no intention of publishing any thing until by the persuasion of his friends he prepared his *Elements of Algebra* for the press, which were published by subscription in 2 vols 4to, 1740.

Mr Saunderson had much wit and vivacity in conversation, and was an excellent companion. He had a great regard to truth; and was such an enemy to disguise, that he thought it his duty to speak his thoughts at all times with unrestrained freedom. Hence his sentiments on men and opinions, his friendship or disregard, were expressed without reserve; but his sincerity raised him many enemies. He at first acquired most of his ideas by the sense of feeling; and this, as is commonly the case with the blind, he enjoyed in great perfection. Yet he could not, as some are said to have done, distinguish colours by that sense; for, after having made repeated trials, he used to say, it was pretending to impossibilities. But he could with great nicety and exactness observe the least degree of roughness or defect of polish in a surface. Thus in a set of Roman medals, he distinguished the genuine from the false, though they had been counterfeited with such exactness as to deceive a connoisseur who had judged by the eye. By the sense of feeling also, he distinguished the least variation in the atmosphere; and the author of his life says, that he has been seen in a garden, when observations have been making on the sun, to take notice of every cloud that interrupted the observation almost as justly as they who could see it. He could also tell when any thing was held near his face, or when he passed by a tree at no great distance, merely by the different impulse of the air on his face. His ear was also equally exact. He could readily distinguish the fifth part of a note. By the quickness of this sense he could judge of the size of a room, and of his distance from the wall; and if ever he walked over a pavement, in courts or piazzas which reflected a sound, and was afterwards conducted thither again, he could tell in what part of the walk he stood, merely by the note it sounded. He had naturally a strong healthy constitution; but too sedentary a life brought on a numbness of his limbs, which at last ended in the mortification of one of his feet, of which he died in the 57th year of his age.

SAVONA, a large, handsome, populous, and strong town of Italy, in the territory of Genoa, with two castles, and a bishop's see. It contains several handsome churches and well-built structures. It was taken by the king of Sardnia in 1746, at which time it had a capacious harbour; but the people of Genoa, being afraid that it would hurt their own trade, choaked it up. It is seated on the Mediterranean sea, in a well-cultivated country, abounding in silk and all kinds of good fruit. E. Long. 8. 14. N. Lat 44. 21.

SAURIN (James), a celebrated protestant minister, was born at Nismes in 1677. His father, who was a lawyer, retired after the repeal of the edict of Nantz to Geneva, at which place he died; and Saurin quitting his studies, in 1694 made a campaign under lord Galloway, and procured a pair of colours. But when the Duke of Savoy concluded a peace with France, he quitted a profession for which he was not calculated, and resumed his studies at Geneva. In 1700, he visited Holland and England; in which latter country he staid long enough to marry a wife in 1703, and returned to the Hague in 1705. Here he preached with extraordinary applause, and died in 1730. There are 10 vols of his sermons, besides other works, all greatly esteemed.

SAVORY, in botany. See SATUREIA.

SAVOUR. See TASTE.

SAVOY, a duchy lying between France and Italy, and which takes its name from the Latin Sabaadia, altered afterwards to Saboia, and Sobojia.

This country was anciently inhabited by the Celtes, whose descendants therein were subdivided into the Allobroges, Nantuates, Veragri, Seduni, Salassi, Centrones, Garocelli, and some others of inferior note. Of all these the Allobroges were the most considerable. The reduction of these tribes, in which Julius Cæsar had made a great progress, was completed under Augustus. Afterwards this country shared the fate of the rest of the western empire, and was over-run by the northern Barbarians. The Burgundians held it a considerable time; but when or how it first became a distinct earldom under the present family, is what historians are not agreed about; thus much, however, is certain, that Amadæus I. who lived in the twelfth century, was count of it. In 1416, Amadæus VIII. was created by the emperor Sigismund, duke of Savoy; and Victor Amadæus first took the title of king of Sicily, and afterwards of Sardinia. Savoy is bounded to the south by France and Piedmont; to the north, by the lake of Geneva, which separates it from Switzerland; to the west, by France; and to the east, by Piedmont, the Milanese, and Switzerland: its greatest length being about eighty-eight miles, and breadth about seventy-six.

As it lies among the Alps, it is full of lofty mountains, which in general are very barren: many of the highest of them are perpetually covered with ice and snow. The summit of those called *Montagnes Maudites*, "the cursed mountains," are said to be more than two English miles in perpendicular height above the level of the lake of Geneva, and the level itself is much higher than the Mediterranean. In some few of the valleys there is corn-land and pasture, and a good breed of cattle and mules; and along the lake of Geneva, and in two or three other places, a tolerable wine is produced. Mount Senis or Cenis, between Savoy and Piedmont, over which the high-way from Geneva to Turin lies, is as high, if not higher, than the *Montagnes Maudites*;

Savoy. *Maudites*; but of all the mountains of the Alps, the highest is mount Rochemelon, in Piedmont, between Fertiere and Novalese. The roads over these mountains are very tedious, disagreeable, and dangerous, especially as huge masses of snow, called by the Italians *avalanches*, and fragments of rocks, frequently roll down into them from the impending precipices. The way of travelling is either in sledges, chairs, or on the backs of mules: in some places the path on the brink of the precipices is so narrow, that there is but just room for a single person to pass. It begins to snow on these mountains commonly about the beginning of October. In summer, in the months of July, August, and September, many of them yield very fine grass, with a great variety of flowers and herbs; and others box-wood, walnuts, chesnuts, and pines. The height and different combinations of these mountains, their towering summits rising above one another, and covered with snow, the many cataracts or falls of water, the noise and rapidity of the river Arc, the froth and green tincture of its water, the echoes of its numerous streams tumbling from cliff to cliff, form altogether a very romantic scene. These mountainous tracts, notwithstanding their height, are not altogether free from thunder in summer, and are also much exposed to thick clouds, which sometimes settle unexpectedly on them, and continue several days. There are some wolves among the thickets; and they abound with hares, rupicapras or chamois, and marmottes. In the lower parts of Savoy, there are also bears, wild boars, deer, and rabbits; and among the desolate mountains are found great quantities of rock-crystal. In the glacieres or ice-valleys, between the high mountains, the air is extremely cold, even in the months of July and August. The surface of these ice-valleys looks like a sea or lake, which, after being agitated by fierce and contrary winds, has been frozen all at once, interspersed with hideous cracks and chasms. The noise of these cracks, when first made by the heat of the noon-day sun, and reverberated by the surrounding rocks and mountains, is astonishing. The height of the impending mountains is such, that the sun's rays seldom reach the ice-valleys, except a few hours in the middle of summer. The avalanches or snow-balls, which the least concussion of the air will occasion, tumble down the mountains with amazing rapidity, continually increasing, and carrying all before them. People have been taken out alive, after being buried several days under them.

The chief rivers are the Rhone, which, on the side of Geneva, separates Savoy from France; the Arve, which has some particles of gold in its sands; the Isere, the Seran, the Siers, and the Arc. There are also a great many lakes in this country, which yield plenty of fish, but none of them are very large, together with medicinal and reciprocrating springs and hot baths.

The language of the common people is a corrupt French; but the better sort, and those that live in the great cities, speak as good French as they do in Paris itself.

In their temper, however, and disposition, the Savoyards resemble the Germans more than the French, retaining still much of the old German honesty and simplicity of manners, which no doubt is partly owing to the poverty and barrenness of the country. To this also, joined to their longevity and the fruitfulness of their women, which are the effects of their cheerful disposition, healthy air, activity, temperance, and sobriety, it is owing that great numbers of them are obliged to go abroad in quest of a livelihood, which they earn, those at least who have no trades, by showing marmottes, cleaning shoes, sweeping chimneys, and the like. It is said, that there are generally about 18,000, of them, young and old, about Paris. In summer they lie in the streets, and in winter, forty, fifty, or sixty of them lodge together in a room: they are so honest that they may be trusted to any amount. The children are often carried abroad in baskets, before they are able to walk. In many villages of Savoy there is hardly a man to be seen throughout the year, excepting a month or two. Those that have families generally set out and return about the same season, when their wives commonly lie in, and they never fail to bring home some part of their small earnings. Some of them are such consummate masters of œconomy, that they set up shops and make fortunes, and others return home with a competency for the rest of their days. An old man is often dispatched with letters, little presents, and some money, from the younger sort, to their parents and relations, and brings back with him fresh colonies, letters, messages, and news. The cultivation of their grounds, and the reaping and gathering in of the harvest and vintage, are generally left to the women and children: but all this is to be understood of the mountainous parts of Savoy. Great numbers of the mountaineers of both sexes are said to be lame and deformed; and they are much subject to a kind of wens, which grow about their throats, and very much disfigure them, especially the women; but that is the only inconvenience they feel from them.

The nobility of Savoy, and the other dominions of the king of Sardinia, labour under great hardships and restrictions, unheard of in other countries, which we have not room here to particularize. A minute account of them will be found in Mr Keysler's Travels. In short, the king has left neither liberty, power, nor much property, to any but himself and the clergy, whose overgrown wealth he has also greatly curtailed.

No other religion is professed or tolerated in Savoy but that of the church of Rome. The decrees, however, of the council of Trent are not admitted; nor are the churches asylums for malefactors.

This duchy is divided into those of Chablais, Genevois, and Savoy Proper, the counties of Tarantaise and Maurienne, and the barony of Faucigny.

SAUVEUR (Joseph), an eminent French mathematician, born at La Fleche in 1653. He was absolutely dumb until he was seven years of age; and even then his organs of speech did not disengage themselves so freely, but that he was ever after obliged to speak with great deliberation. Mathematics were the only studies he had any relish for, and these he cultivated with extraordinary success; so that he commenced teacher at 20 years of age, and was so soon in vogue, that he had prince Eugene for his scholar. He was made mathematical professor in the royal college in 1686; and ten years after was admitted a member of the Academy of Sciences. He died in 1716; and his writings, which consist rather of detached papers than of connected treatises, are all inserted in the Memoirs

of the Academy of Sciences. He was twice married; and by the last wife had a son, who, like himself, was dumb for the first seven years of his life.

SAW, an instrument which serves to cut into pieces several solid matters; as wood, stone, ivory, &c.

The best saws are of tempered steel ground bright and smooth: those of iron are only hammer-hardened: hence the first, besides their being stiffer, are likewise found smoother than the last. They are known to be well hammered by the stiff bending of the blade; and to be well and evenly ground, by their bending equally in a bow.

Saw-*fish*. See Squalus.

SAXE (Maurice count de), natural Son of Frederic Augustus II. king of Poland, by Aurora countess of Konigsmare, was born at Dresden in 1696. He discovered an early genius for warlike exercises, neglecting every study but that of war. He cultivated no foreign language but French, as if he had foreseen that France would one day become his country, in which he would rise to the highest military honours. He accompanied the king his father in all his Polish campaigns, and began to serve in the allied army in the Netherlands in 1708, when he was no more than twelve years old, and gave pregnant proofs of an enterprising genius. He afterwards served in the war against the Swedes in Pomerania, and was made colonel of a regiment of horse. He entered into the imperial service in 1717, and made several campaigns in Hungary against the Turks; in which he behaved with the greatest bravery, and thereby attracted the regard of prince Eugene of Savoy, the most illustrious captain of his time. In 1720, he visited the court of France, where he obtained a brevet of camp-marshal from the duke of Orleans, then regent of that kingdom. Two years after, he purchased the colonelcy of the regiment of Spar; and gradually rose in military honours, from the rank of colonel to that of marshal-general.

While the count was residing in France, the states of Courland, foreseeing that their duchy would one day be without a head, duke Ferdinand, the last male of the family of Ketler, being valetudinary, and likely to die without issue, were prevailed on, by foreign influence, to choose the count to be their sovereign. The minute of election was signed by the states of Mittaw, the capital of Courland, on the 5th of July 1726. But this election having been vigorously opposed by the court of Russia, and also by the republic of Poland, upon both of which the duchy was dependent, he could never make good his pretensions; so that, upon the death of duke Ferdinand in 1736, count Biron, a gentleman of Danish extraction, in the service of Russia, was preferred before him. When a war broke out in Germany, upon the death of the late king of Poland, our count's father, he attended the duke of Berwick commander in chief of the French army sent into that country, and behaved with unparallelled bravery. When troubles broke out in the same quarter upon the death of the late emperor Charles VI. he was employed in the French army sent into the empire to support the pretensions of the elector of Bavaria; and had no inconsiderable hand in storming Prague: by means of which he acquired the confidence and esteem of that unfortunate prince. When an invasion of Great Britain was projected by the court of France in the beginning of 1744, in favour of Charles-Edward the pretender's eldest son, he was appointed to command the French troops to be employed on that occasion. Both the young pretender and the count had come to Dunkirk in order to proceed upon the intended expedition; but the design was frustrated by a furious storm and the vigilance of the British fleet. France having, soon after that event, declared war against Great Britain, he was appointed commander in chief of the French army in the Netherlands, and promoted to the rank of a marshal of France. In this high station he had full room to display his great abilities. Success crowned all his enterprises; and every town he invested was obliged to submit to his victorious arms. During the course of the war, he beat the allies in several battles, and made himself master of the whole Austrian Netherlands, with a good part of Dutch Brabant. Such eminent services procured him an act of naturalization by the king of France, in April 1746; in January following, he was raised to the rank of marshal-general, an office which had been vacant for many years; and in January 1748, he was constituted governor-general of the Netherlands, with a large revenue annexed.

After the treaty of peace at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, marshal Saxe, covered with glory and loaded with the king's bounties, retired to Chambord in France, where he spent his time in various employments and amusements. But being seized with a fever on the 21st of November 1750, he died on the 30th of that month. His corpse was interred on the 8th of February following, with great funeral pomp, in the church of St Thomas's at Strasburg. All France lamented his death. The king was at the charge of his funeral, and expressed the greatest concern for the loss of a man who had raised the glory of his arms to the highest pitch. By his will, which is dated at Paris, March 1. 1748, he directed that "his body should be buried in lime, if that could be done; that in a short time nothing more of him might remain in the world, but his memory among his friends." This direction, however, was not complied with: for his corpse was embalmed, and put into a leaden coffin, which was inclosed in another of copper, and this covered with one of wood bound about with iron. His heart was put into a silver-gilt box, and his entrails into another coffin. He was bred a Protestant of the Lutheran persuasion, under the eye of the countess his mother: and no worldly consideration could ever induce him to change his religion. He had unhappily, like his royal father, early engaged in a series of amorous adventures; and several natural children were the fruits of his vagrant amours. Though he had been prevailed on by his mother, to marry Victoria countess of Lobin, a lady of distinguished birth and beauty, by whom he had a child or two, who died in their infancy; yet, a coldness having a-sen between them, the marriage was dissolved, on account of adultery committed by the count, with a design to procure a divorce; and he never afterwards married. The marshal was a man of middling stature, but of a robust constitution and extraordinary strength. To an aspect noble, sweet, and martial, he joined the interior qualities of a most excellent heart. Affable, and affected with the misfortunes of others, he was great and generous, even more than his fortune

Saxifraga, Saxony. would permit. On his death-bed, he was very penitent for his lewd practices, and reviewed the errors of his life with extreme remorse.

His "Reveries, or Memoirs concerning the Art of War," together with other small pieces, were translated into English, and published at London in 1757.

SAXIFRAGA, Saxifrage; a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the decandria class of plants. There are 38 species; of which the most remarkable are, 1. The granulata, or white saxifrage, which grows naturally in the meadows in many parts of England. The roots of this plant are like grains of corn, of a reddish colour without; from which arise kidney-shaped hairy leaves, standing upon pretty long foot-stalks. The stalks are thick, a foot high, hairy, and furrowed: these branch out from the bottom, and have a few small leaves like those below, which sit close to the stalk: the flowers terminate the stalk, growing in small clusters; they have five white petals, inclosing ten stamina and the two styles. There is a variety of this with double flowers, which is very ornamental. 2. The pyramidata, with a pyramidal stalk, grows naturally on the mountains of Italy. The leaves are tongue-shaped, gathered into heads, rounded at their points, and have cartilaginous and sawed borders. The stalk rises two feet and a half high, branching out near the ground, forming a natural pyramid to the top. The flowers have five white wedge-shaped petals, and ten stamina, placed circularly the length of the tube, terminated by roundish purple summits. When these plants are strong, they produce very large pyramids of flowers, which make a fine appearance. 3. The punctata, commonly called *London-pride*, or *none-so-pretty*, grows naturally on the Alps, and also in great plenty on a mountain of Ireland called *Mangerton*, in the county of Kerry in that island. The roots of this are perennial; the leaves are oblong, oval, and placed circularly at bottom. They have broad, flat, furrowed foot-stalks, and are deeply crenated at their edges, which are white. The stalk rises a foot high, is of a purple colour, stiff, slender, and hairy. It sends out from the side on the upper part several short foot-stalks, which are terminated by white flowers spotted with red. 4. The oppositifolia, grows naturally on the Alps, Pyrenees, and Helvetian mountains; it is also found pretty plentifully growing upon Ingleborough hill in Yorkshire, Snowdon in Wales, and some other places. It is a perennial plant, with stalks trailing upon the ground, and are seldom more than two inches long, garnished with small oval leaves standing opposite, which lie over one another like the scales of fish; they are of a brown green colour, and have a resemblance of heath. The flowers are produced at the end of the branches, of a deep blue; so make a pretty appearance during their continuance, which is great part of March and the beginning of April. All these species are easily propagated by offsets, or by parting their roots.

SAXONY, the name of two circles of the German empire, an electorate, and a duchy of the same. The lower circle is bounded to the south by the circle of Upper Saxony, and a part of that of the Upper Rhine; to the north, by the duchy of Slesvick, belonging to the king of Denmark, and the Baltic; to the west, by the circle of Westphalia and the north sea; and to the east, by the circle of Upper Saxony. The states belonging to it are the dukes and princes of Magdeburg and Bremen, Zell, Grubenhagen, Calenburg, Wolfenbuttle, Halberstadt, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Gustro, Holstein-Gluckstadt, Holstein-Gottorf, Hildesheim, Saxe-Lauenburg; the archbishopric of Lubeck; the principalities of Schwerin, Ratzeburg, Blankenburg, Ranzau; the imperial cities of Lubeck, Gotzlar, Muhlhausen, Nordhausen, Hamburgh, and Bremen. The dukes of Bremen and Magdeburg are alternately directors and summoning princes; but, ever since the year 1682, the diets, which used generally to be held at Brunswick or Luneburg, have been discontinued. Towards the army of the empire, which, by a decree of the empire in 1681, was settled at 40,000 men, this circle was to furnish 1322 horsemen and 2707 foot; and of the 300,000 florins granted to the imperial chest in 1707, its quota was 31,271 florins; both which assessments are the same with those of Upper Saxony, Burgundy, Swabia, and Westphalia. This circle, at present, nominates only two assessors in the chamber-judicatory of the empire, of one of which the elector of Brunswick-Luneburg has the nomination, who must be a Lutheran, and is the ninth in rank. The inhabitants of this circle are almost all Lutherans. Saxony.

The circle of Upper Saxony is bounded by that of Franconia, the Upper Rhine, and Lower Saxony; and also by the Baltic sea, Prussia, Poland, Silesia, Lusatia, and Bohemia. It is of great extent, and contains the following states, viz. the electors of Saxony and Brandenburg, Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Eisenach, Saxe-Coburg, Saxe-Gotha, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Querfurt, the Hither and Farther Pomerania, Camin, Anhalt, Quidlenburg, Gernrode, Walkenried, Schwarzburg, Sondershausen, Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Mansfeld, Stolberg, Barby, the counts of Reussen, and the counts of Schonberg. No diets have been held in this circle since the year 1683. The elector of Saxony has always been the sole summoning prince and director of it. Most of the inhabitants profess the Protestant religion. When the whole empire furnishes 40,000 men, the quota of this circle is 1322 horse and 2707 foot. Of the 300,000 florins granted by the empire in 1707, it contributed only 31,271 florins, 28 kruitzers, being rated no higher than those of Westphalia, Lower Saxony, Swabia, and Burgundy, though it is much larger. Agreeable to a resolution and regulation in 1654, this circle nominates now only two assessors of the chamber-court.

The electorate consists of the duchy of Saxony, the greatest part of the margravate of Meissen, a part of the Vogtland, and the northern half of the landgravate of Thuringia. The Lusatias also, and a part of the country of Henneberg, belong to it, but are no part of this circle. The soil of the electoral dominions lying in this circle is in general exceeding rich and fruitful, yielding corn, fruits, and pulse in abundance, together with hops, flax, hemp, tobacco, aniseed, wild saffron, wood; and in some places woad, wine, coals, porcelain clay, terra sigillata, fullers-earth, fine shiver, various sorts of beautiful marble, serpentine stone, and almost all the different species of precious stones. Sulphur also, alum, vitriol, sand, and free-stone, salt-springs, amber, turf, cinnabar, quicksilver, antimony,

mony, bismuth, arsenic, cobalt, and other minerals, are found in it. This country, besides the above articles, contains likewise valuable mines of silver, copper, tin, lead, and iron; and abounds in many places with horned cattle, sheep, horses, and venison. The principal rivers by which it is watered, are the Elbe, the Schwerze-Elster, the Mulde, the Saale, the Unstrut, the Weisse-Elster, and the Pleisse. These rivers, as well as the lakes and rivulets, abound in fish; and in the White-Elster are found beautiful pearls. This electorate is extremely well cultivated and inhabited, and is said to include about 250 great and small towns, upwards of 5000 villages, 196 royal manors, and near as many royal castles, besides private estates and commanderies. The provincial diets here consist of three classes. The first is composed of the prelates, the counts, and lords, and the two universities of Leipsic and Wittenberg. To the second belong the nobility in general, immediate or mediate, that is, such as stand immediately under the fief-chancery or the aulic judicatories, and such as are immediately under the jurisdiction of the amtman. The third class is formed of the towns in general. The general provincial diets are ordinarily held every six years; but there are others, called *selection diets*, which are convened commonly every two years. We would here observe, that not only these diets, but those in most of the other states of Germany, are at present extremely insignificant and unimportant, retaining little more than the shadow of their former power and privileges; for even the petty princes, though they depend upon their more potent neighbours, and must be very careful not to give them any umbrage, are almost as absolute in their respective territories as the grand seignior himself. As to religion, it was in this country that the reformation took its rise in the 16th century, to which it hath ever since adhered, according to the doctrines of Luther. The two late electors, when they embraced Popery in order to qualify themselves to be elected kings of Poland, gave the most solemn assurances to their people, that they would inviolably maintain the established religion and its professors in the full and free enjoyment of all their ecclesiastical rights, privileges, and prerogatives whatsoever, in regard to churches, worship, ceremonies, usages, universities, schools, benefices, incomes, profits, jurisdictions, and immunities. The electoral families still continue Roman Catholics, though they have lost the crown of Poland, for which they at first embraced Popery. With respect to ecclesiastical matters, the country is divided into parishes, and these again into spiritual inspections and consistories, all subordinate to the ecclesiastical council and upper consistory of Dresden, in which city and Leipsic the Calvinists and Roman Catholics enjoy the free exercise of their religion. Learning flourishes in this electorate; in which, besides the free-schools and gymnasia in most of the chief towns, are the two celebrated universities of Wittenberg and Leipzig, in the last of which are also societies for the liberal arts and the German language, with booksellers and printers of the greatest eminence. A great variety of manufactures are also carried on in this country. The principal are those of fine and coarse linen, thread, fine lace, paper, fine glasses and mirrours; porcelain, equal, if not superior, to that of China; iron, brass, and steel wares; manufactures of gold and silver, cotton, wool, and silk; gloves, caps, hats, and tapestry; in which, and the natural productions mentioned above, together with dyeing, an important foreign commerce is carried on. A great addition has been made since the year 1718 to the electoral territories, by the extinction of the collateral branches of Zeitz, Merseburg, and Weissenfels, whose dominions devolved to the elder electoral branch, descended from the margraves of Meissen. The first of these, who was elector of Saxony, was Frederic the Warlike, about the beginning of the 15th century.

This elector stiles himself duke of Saxony, Juliers, Cleve, and Berg, as also of Engern and Westphalia, arch-marshal and elector of the Holy Roman empire, landgrave in Thuringia, margrave of Meissen, and of Upper and Lower Lusatia, burgrave of Magdeburg, princely count of Henneberg, count of La Mark, Ravensberg, Barby, and Hanau, and lord of Ravenstein. Among the electors he is reckoned the sixth, as great-marshal of the empire, of which he is also vicar, during an interregnum, in all places not subject to the vicariate of the count palatine of the Rhine. He is moreover sole director of the circle; and in the vacancy of the see of Mentz, claims the directorium at the diet of the empire. His matricular assessment, on account of the electorate, is 1984 florins, besides what he pays for other districts and territories. To the chamber-courts he contributes, each term, the sum of 1545 rix-dollars, together with 83 rix-dollars and 62 kruitzers on account of the county of Mansfield. In this electorate, subordinate to the privy-council, are various colleges for the departments of war, foreign affairs, the finances, fiefs, mines, police, and ecclesiastical affairs, together with high tribunals and courts of justice, to which appeals lie from the inferior. The revenues of this elector are as considerable as those of any prince in the empire, if we except those of the house of Austria. They arise from the ordinary and extraordinary subsidies of the states; his own demesnes, consisting of 72 bailiwics; the impost on beer, and the fine porcelain of the country; tenths of corn, fruit, wine, &c. his own silver mines, and the tenths of those that belong to particulars: all which, added together, bring in an yearly revenue of betwixt 700,000 l. and 800,000 l.; yet the electorate is at present deeply in debt. The regular troops commonly amount to 20,000 men, exclusive of the militia of the ban, the arriere-ban, and the body of miners and hunters, who are obliged in time of war to bear arms. The whole electorate is divided into circles.

The electoral circle, or the duchy of Saxony, is bounded by the circles of Meissen, Leipzig, and Thuringia, the principality of Anhalt, the mark of Brandenbury, and Lusatia. The principality of Anhalt lies across it, and divides it into two parts. Its greatest length and breadth is computed at about 40 miles; but tho' it is watered by the Elbe, the Black Elster, and the Mulde, it is not very fruitful, the soil for the most part consisting of sand. It contains 24 towns, three boroughs, betwixt 400 and 500 villages, 164 noblemens estates, 11 superintendencies, three inspections, under one consistory, and 11 prefectures or districts. The present duchy of Saxony is not to be confounded with the old; for the latter was of a much greater extent, and contained in it those large tracts anciently called

Saxony. called *Eastphalia*, *Engern*, and *Westphalia*, of which the electoral circle was no part, but was taken by Albert the Bear, margrave of Salzwedel, from the Venedi. Hiſon Bernard obtaining the dignity of duke of Saxony from the emperor Frederic I. the name of *duchy* was given to this country; and the electoral dignity having been afterwards annexed to the duchy, it acquired thereby alſo the name of the *electoral circle*.

The country of Saxony is remarkable for being the mother of the preſent Engliſh nation; but concerning the Saxons themſelves, previous to that period, we have very few particulars. The Saxons (ſays Mr Whitaker) have been derived by our hiſtorians from very different parts of the globe; India, the north of Aſia, and the foreſts of Germany. And their appellation has been equally referred to very different cauſes; the name of their Indian progenitor, the plundering diſpoſition of their Aſiatic fathers, and the ſhort hooked weapons of their warriors. But the real origin of the Saxons, and the genuine derivation of their name, ſeem clearly to be theſe.

In the earlier period of the Gallic hiſtory, the Celtæ of Gaul croſſed the Rhine in conſiderable numbers, and planted various colonies in the regions beyond it. Thus the Volcæ Tectoſages ſettled on one ſide of the Hercynian foreſt and about the banks of the Neckar, the Helvetii upon another and about the Rhine, and Maine, the Boii beyond both, and the Senones in the heart of Germany. Thus alſo we ſee the Trevirі, the Nervii, the Suevi, and the Marcomanni, the Quadi, the Venedi, and others, in that country; all plainly betrayed to be Gallic nations by the Gallic appellations which they bear, and all together poſſeſſing the greateſt part of it. And, even as late as the concluſion of the firſt century, we find one nation on the eaſtern ſide of this great continent actually ſpeaking the language of Gaul, and another upon the northern uſing a dialect nearly related to the Britiſh. But as all the various tribes of the Germans are conſidered by Strabo to be γνησιοι Γαλαται, or genuine Gauls in their origin; ſo thoſe particularly that lived immediately beyond the Rhine, and are aſſerted by Tacitus to be indubitably native Germans, are expreſsly denominated Γαλαται, or Gauls, by Diodorus, and as expreſsly declared by Dio to have been diſtinguiſhed by the equivalent appellation of *Celtæ* from the earlieſt period. And the broad line of nations, which extended along the ocean, and reached to the borders of Scythia, was all known to the learned in the days of Diodorus, by the ſame ſignificant appellation of Γαλαται, or Gauls.

Of theſe, the moſt noted were the Si-Cambri and Cimbri; the former being ſeated near the channel of the Rhine, and the latter inhabiting the peninſula of Jutland. And the denominations of both declare their original; and ſhow them to have been derived from the common ſtock of the Celtæ, and to be of the ſame Celtic kindred with the Cimbri of our own Somerſetſhire, and the Cymbri or Cambrians of our own Wales. The Cimbri are accordingly denominated *Celtæ* by Strabo and Appian. And they are equally aſſerted to be Gauls by Diodorus; to be the deſcendants of that nation which ſacked the city of Rome, plundered the temple of Delphi, and ſubdued a great part of Europe, and ſome of Aſia.

Immediately to the ſouth of theſe were the Saxons, and extended from the iſthmus of the Cherſoneſus to the current of the Elbe. And they were equally Celtic in their origin as their neighbours. They were denominated *Ambrones* as well as Saxons; and, as ſuch, are included by Tacitus under the general appellation of *Cimbri*, and comprehended in Plutarch under the equal one of *Celto-Scythæ*. And the name of *Ambrones* appears particularly to have been Gallic; being common to the Saxons beyond the Elbe, and the Ligurians in Ciſalpine Gaul; as both found to their ſurpriſe, on the irruption of the former into Italy with the Cimbri. And, what is equally ſurpriſing, and has been equally unnoticed by the critics, the Welſh diſtinguiſh England by the name of *Loegr* or *Liguria*, even to the preſent moment. In that irruption theſe Saxons, Ambrons, or Ligurians, compoſed a body of more than 30,000 men, and were principally concerned in cutting to pieces the large armies of Manlius and Cæpio. Nor is the appellation of *Saxons* leſs Celtic than the other. It was originally the ſame with the Belgic Sueſſones of Gaul; the capital of that tribe being now intitled *Soiſons* by the French, and the name of the Saxons pronounced *Saiſen* by the Welſh, *Saſon* by the Scotch, and *Saſenach* or *Saxſenach* by the Iriſh. And the Sueſſones or Saxones of Gaul derived their own appellation from the poſition of their metropolis on a river, the ſtream at Soiſons being now denominated the *Aiſne*, and formerly the *Axon*; Ueſſon or Axon importing only waters or a river, and S-ueſſon or S-ax-on the waters or the river. The Sueſſones, therefore, are actually denominated the *Ueſſones* by Ptolemy; and the Saxones are actually intitled the *Axones* by Lucan.

Theſe, with their brethren and allies the Cimbri, having been more formidable enemies to the Romans by land, than the Samnites, Carthaginians, Spaniards, Gauls, or Parthians, in the ſecond century applied themſelves to navigation, and became nearly as terrible by ſea. They ſoon made themſelves known to the inhabitants of the Britiſh iſles, by their piracies in the northern channels, and were denominated by them *Lochlyn* or *Lochlynach*; lued lyn ſignifying the people of the wave, and the D being quieſcent in the pronunciation. They took poſſeſſion of the Orkney iſlands, which were then merely large ſhoals of ſand, uncovered with woods, and overgrown with ruſhes; and they landed in the north of Ireland, and ravaged the country. Before the middle of the third century they made a ſecond deſcent upon the latter, diſembarked a conſiderable body of men, and deſigned the abſolute ſubjection of the iſland. Before the concluſion of it, they carried their naval operations to the ſouth, infeſted the Britiſh channel with their little veſſels, and made frequent deſcents upon the coaſts. And in the fourth and fifth centuries, acting in conjunction with the Picts of Caledonia and the Scots of Ireland, they ravaged all the eaſtern and ſouth-eaſtern ſhores of Britain, began the formal conqueſt of the country, and finally ſettled their victorious ſoldiery in the kingdom of Lancaſhire and the houſes of Mancheſter.

SAY, or Saye, in commerce, a kind of ſerge much uſed abroad for linings, and by the religious for ſhirts: with us it is uſed for aprons by ſeveral ſorts of artificers, being uſually dyed green.

SCABIOSA, scabious; a genus of the monogy-

nia order, belonging to the tetrandria class of plants. The most remarkable species are, 1. The arvensis, or meadow-scabious, grows naturally in many places of Britain. It hath a strong, thick, fibrous root, sending out many branching stalks, which rise to the height of three feet; the lower leaves are sometimes almost entire, and at others they are cut into many segments almost to the midrib. The flowers are produced upon naked footstalks at the end of the branches; they are of a purple colour, and have a faint odour. 2. The succissa, or devil's bit, grows naturally in woods and moist places. This has a short tap-root, the end of which appears as if it was bitten or cut off, whence the plant has taken its name. The leaves are oval and spear-shaped, and smooth; the stalks are single, about two feet high, garnished with two leaves at each joint; they generally send out two short foot-stalks from their upper joint, standing opposite, which are terminated by purple flowers.—Both these have been recommended as aperient, sudorific, and expectorant; but the present practice has no dependence on them.

SCÆVOLA (Mutius), the celebrated Roman knight, famous in the Roman history for having singly opposed Porsenna king of Etruria, and his army, upon a bridge at Rome, till it was cut down; after which he flung himself into the Tiber, and swam to the Roman army on the opposite shore, 507 B. C.

SCAFFOLD, among builders, an assemblage of planks and boards, sustained by tressels and pieces of wood fixed in the wall; whereon masons, bricklayers, &c. stand to work, in building high walls, and plasterers in plastering ceilings, &c.

Scaffold, also denotes a timber-work raised in the manner of an amphitheatre, for the more commodious viewing any show or ceremony: it is also used for a little stage raised in some public place, whereon to behead criminals.

SCALADO, or Scalade, in the art of war, a furious assault made on the wall or rampart of a city, or other fortified place, by means of ladders, without carrying on works in form, to secure the men.

SCALE, a mathematical instrument consisting of several lines drawn on wood, brass, silver, &c. and variously divided, according to the purposes it is intended to serve; whence it acquires various denominations, as the *plain scale*, *diagonal scale*, *plotting scale*, &c. See Geometry.

Scale, in music, sometimes denominated a *gamut*, a *diagram*, a *series*, an *order*, a *diapason*. It consists of the regular gradations of sound, by which a composer or performer, whether in rising or descending, may pass from any given tune to another. These gradations are seven. When this order is repeated, the first note of the second is consentaneous with the lowest note of the first; the second of the former with the second of the latter; and so through the whole octave. The second order, therefore, is justly esteemed only a repetition of the first. For this reason the scale, among the moderns, is sometimes limited to an octave; at other times extended to the compass of any particular voice or instrument. It likewise frequently includes all the practical gradations of musical sound, or the whole number of octaves employed in composition or execution, arranged in their natural order.

SCALENE, or Scalenous Triangle, *scalenum*, in geometry, a triangle whose sides and angles are unequal. See Geometry.

SCALENUS, in anatomy. See there, *Table of the Muscles*.

SCALIGER (Julius Cæsar), a learned critic, poet, physician, and philosopher; was born at the castle of Ripa, in the territories of Verona in 1484; and is said to have been descended from the ancient princes of Verona, though this is not mentioned in the letters of naturalization he obtained in France in 1528. He learned the first rudiments of the Latin tongue in his own country; and in his 12th year was presented to the emperor Maximilian, who made him one of his pages. He served that emperor 17 years, and gave signal proofs of his valour and conduct in several expeditions. He was present at the battle of Ravenna in April 1512, in which he had the misfortune to lose his father Benedict Scaliger, and his brother Titus; on which his mother died with grief: when being reduced to necessitous circumstances, he entered into the order of the Franciscans, and applied himself to study at Bologna; but soon after changing his mind with respect to his becoming a monk, he took arms again, and served in Piedmont. At which time a physician persuaded him to study physic, which he did at his leisure-hours, and also learned Greek; but at last the gout determined him, at forty years of age, to abandon a military life. He soon after settled at Agen, where he married, and began to apply himself seriously to his studies. He learned first the French tongue, which he spoke perfectly in three months; and then made himself master of the Gascon, Italian, Spanish, German, Hungarian, and Sclavonian: but the chief object of his studies was polite literature. Mean while he supported his family by the practice of physic. He did not publish any of his works till he was 47 years of age; when he soon gained a great name in the republic of letters. He had a graceful person, and so strong a memory, even in his old age, that he dictated to his son two hundred verses which he had composed the day before, and retained without writing them down. He was so charitable, that his house was as it were an hospital for the poor and sick; and he had such an aversion to lying, that he would have no correspondence with those who were subject to that vice; but on the other hand he had much vanity, and a satirical spirit, which created him many enemies. He died of a retention of urine in 1558. He wrote in Latin, 1. A Treatise on the Art of Poetry. 2. Exercitations against Cardan: these works are much esteemed. 3. Commentaries on Aristotle's history of Animals, and on Theophrastus on Plants. 4. Some Treatises on Physic. 5. Letters, Orations, Poems, and other works, in Latin.

Scaliger (Joseph Justus), one of the most learned critics and writers of his time: he was the son of the former, and was born at Agen in France in 1540. He studied in the college of Bourdeaux; after which his father took him under his own care, and employed him in transcribing his poems; by which means he obtained such a taste for poetry, that before he was 17 years old, he wrote a tragedy upon the subject of Oedipus, in which he introduced all the poetical ornaments of style and sentiment. His father dying in 1558, he went to Paris the year following, with a design to apply himself to the Greek tongue. For this purpose he

he for two months attended the lectures of Turnebus; but finding that in the usual course he should be a long time in gaining his point, he shut himself up in his closet, and by constant application for two years gained a perfect knowledge of the Greek tongue. After which he applied to the Hebrew, which he learned by himself with great facility. He made no less progress in the sciences; and his writings procured him the reputation of one of the greatest men of that or any other age. He embraced the reformed religion at 22 years of age. In 1563, he attached himself to Lewis Casteignier de la Roch Pozay, whom he attended in several journeys: and in 1593, was invited to accept of the place of honorary professor of the university of Leyden, which he complied with. He died of a dropsy in that city in 1609. He was a man of great temperance; was never married; and was so close a student, that he often spent whole days in his study without eating: and though his circumstances were always very narrow, he constantly refused the presents that were offered him. He published many works; the principal of which are, 1. Notes on Seneca's Tragedies, on Varro, Ausonius, Pompeius Festus, &c. 2. His Latin Poems. 3. A Treatise *de Emendatione Temporum*. 4. Eusebius's Chronicle with Notes. 5. *Canones Isagogici*; and many other works. The collections intitled *Scaligeriana*, were collected from his conversations by one of his friends; and being ranged into alphebetical order, were published by Isaac Vossius.

SCALLOP, in ichthyology. See PECTEN.

In the highlauds of Scotland, the great scallop shell is made use of for the skimming of milk. In old times, it had a more honourable place; being admitted into the halls of heroes, and was the cup of their festivity when the tribe assembled in the hall of their chieftain.

SCALPEL, in surgery, a kind of knife used in anatomical dissections and operations in surgery.

SCALPER or SCALPING-IRON, a surgeon's instrument used for scraping foul carious bones.

SCALPING, in military history, a barbarous custom, in practice among the Indian warriors, of taking off the tops of the scalps of the enemies skulls with their hair on. They preserve them as trophies of their victories, and are rewarded by their chiefs according to the number of scalps they bring in.

SCALPRA DENTALIA, instruments used by the surgeons to take off those black, livid, or yellow crusts which infest the teeth, and not only loose and destroy them, but taint the breath.

SCAMMONY, a concreted vegetable juice of a species of convolvulus, partly of the resin, and partly of the gum kind. See CONVOLVULUS.

The best scammony comes from Aleppo, in light spongy masses, easily friable, of a shining ash-colour verging to black; when powdered, of a light grey or whitish colour: an inferior sort is brought from Smyrna, in more compact ponderous pieces, of a darker colour, and full of sand and other impurities. This juice is chiefly of the resinous kind; rectified spirit dissolves six ounces out of six, the remainder is a mucilaginous substance mixed with dross; proof-spirit totally dissolves it, the impurities only being left. It has a faint unpleasant smell, and a bitterish, somewhat acrimonious, taste.

Scammony is an efficacious and strong purgative. Some have condemned it as unsafe, and laid sundry ill qualities to its charge; the principal of which is, that its operation is uncertain, a full dose proving sometimes ineffectual, whilst at others a much smaller one occasions dangerous hypercatharses. This difference, however, is owing entirely to the different circumstances of the patient, and not to any ill quality or irregularity of operation of the medicine: where the intestines are lined with an excessive load of mucus, the scammony passes through without exerting itself upon them; where the natural mucus is deficient, a small dose of this or any other resinous cathartic, irritates and inflames. Many have endeavoured to abate the force of this drug, and correct its imaginary virulence, by exposing it to the fume of sulphur, dissolving it in acid juices, and the like; but this could do no more than destroy as it were a part of the medicine, without making any alteration in the rest. Scammony in substance, judiciously managed, stands not in need of any corrector: if triturated with sugar or with almonds, it becomes sufficiently safe and mild in operation. It may likewise be conveniently dissolved by trituration, in a strong decoction of liquorice, and then poured off from the fæces; the college of Wertemberg assures us, that by this treatment it becomes mildly purgative, without being attended with gripes, or other inconveniences; and that it likewise proves inoffensive to the palate. The common dose of scammony is from three to twelve grains.

SCANDALUM MAGNATUM, in law, is a defamatory speech or writing to the injury of a person of dignity; for which a writ that bears the same name is granted for the recovery of damages.

SCANDERBEG, the surname of George Castriot king of Albinia, a province of Turkey in Europe, dependent on the Ottoman empire. He was delivered up with his three elder brothers as hostages, by their father, to Amurath II. sultan of the Turks, who poisoned his brothers, but spared him on account of his youth, being likewise pleased with his juvenile wit and amiable person. In a short time he became one of the most renowned generals of the age; and revolting from Amurath, he joined Hunniade Corvin, a most formidable enemy to the Ottoman power. He defeated the sultan's army, took Amurath's secretary prisoner, obliged him to sign and seal an order to the governor of Croia, the capital of Albania, to deliver up the citadel and city to the bearer of that order, in the name of the sultan. With this forged order he repaired to Croia; and thus recovered the throne of his ancestors, and maintained the independency of his country against the numerous armies of Amurath and his successor Mahommed II. who was obliged to make peace with this hero in 1461. He then went to the assistance of Ferdinand of Arragon, at the request of Pope Pius II. and by his assistance Ferdinand gained a complete victory over his enemy the count of Anjou. Scanderbeg died in 1467.

SCANDEROON. See ALEXANDRETTA.

SCANDINAVIA, a general name for the countries of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, anciently under the dominion of one prince. The inhabitants of these countries, in former times, were excessively addicted to war. From their earliest years they applied themselves to the military art, and accustomed them-

themselves to cold, fatigue, and hunger. Even the very sports of youth and childhood were dangerous. They consisted in taking frightful leaps, climbing up the steepest rocks, fighting naked with offensive weapons, wrestling with the utmost fury; so that it was usual to see them grown up to be robust men, and terrible in the combat, at the age of fifteen. At this early age the young men became their own masters; which they did by receiving a sword, a buckler, and a lance. This ceremony was performed at some public meeting. One of the principal men of the assembly named the youth in public; after which he was obliged to provide for his own subsistence, and was either now to live by hunting, or by joining in some incursion against the enemy. Great care was taken to prevent the young men from too early connections with the female sex; and indeed they could have no hope to gain the affection of the fair, but in proportion to the courage and address they had shown in their military exercises. Accordingly, in an ancient song, we find Bartholin, king of Norway, extremely surprised that his mistress should prove unkind, as he could perform eight different exercises. The children were generally born in camps; and being inured from their infancy to behold nothing but arms, effusion of blood, and slaughter, they imbibed the cruel disposition of their fathers, and when they broke forth upon other nations, behaved rather like furies than like human creatures.

The laws of this people, in some measure, resembled those of the ancient Lacedemonians. They knew no virtue but bravery, and no vice but cowardice. The greatest penalties were inflicted on such as fled from battle. The laws of the ancient Danes declared such persons infamous, and excluded them from society. Among the Germans, cowards were sometimes suffocated in mud; after which they were covered over with hurdles, to show, says Tacitus, that though the punishment of crimes should be public, there are certain degrees of cowardice and infamy which ought to be buried in oblivion. Frotho king of Denmark enacted, by law, that whoever solicited an eminent post ought upon all occasions to attack one enemy, to face two, to retire only one step back from three, and never to make an actual retreat till assaulted by four. The rules of justice themselves were adapted and warped to these prejudices. War was looked upon as a real act of justice, and force was thought to be an incontestible title over the weak, and a visible mark that God had intended them to be subject to the strong. They had no doubt but that the intentions of the Deity had been to establish the same dependence among men that takes place among inferior creatures; and, setting out from this principle of the natural *inequality* among men, they had from thence inferred that the weak had no right to what they could not defend This maxim was adopted with such rigour, that the name of divine judgment was given not only to the judicatory combat, but to conflicts and battles of all sorts: victory being, in their opinion, the only certain marks by which providence enables us to distinguish those whom it has appointed to command others.—Lastly, their religion, by annexing eternal happiness to the military virtues, gave the utmost possible degree of vigour to that propensity which these people had for war, and to their contempt of death, of which we shall now give some instances. We are informed that Harold, surnamed *Blaatand*, or *Blue-tooth*, a king of Denmark who lived in the beginning of the ninth century, had founded on the coasts of Pomerania a city named *Julin* or *Jomsburg*. To this place he sent a colony of young Danes, bestowing the government on a celebrated warrior called *Palnatoko*. In this colony it was forbidden to mention the word *fear*, even in the most imminent dangers. No citizen of Jomsburg was to yield to any number of enemies however great. The fight of inevitable death was not to be taken as an excuse for showing the smallest apprehension. And this legislator really appears to have eradicated from the minds of most of the youths bred up under him, all traces of that sentiment so natural and so universal, which makes men think on their destruction with horror. Nothing can show this better than a single fact in their history, which deserves to have place here for its singularity. Some of them having made an irruption into the territories of a powerful Norwegian lord, named *Haquin*, were overcome in spite of the obstinacy of their resistance; and the most distinguished among them being made prisoners, were, according the custom of those times, condemned to death. The news of this, far from afflicting them, was on the contrary received with joy. The first who was led to punishment was content to say, without changing countenance, and without expressing the least sign of fear, "Why should not the same happen to me as did to my father? He died, and so must I." A warrior, named *Thorchill*, who was to cut off the head of the second, having asked him what he felt at the sight of death, he answered, "that he remembered too well the laws of Jomsburg, to utter any words that denoted fear." The third, in reply to the same question, said, "he rejoiced to die with glory, and that he preferred such a death to an infamous life like that of Thorchill's." The fourth made an answer much longer and more extraordinary. "I suffer with a good heart; and the present hour is to me very agreeable. I only beg of you," added he, addressing himself to Thorchill, "to be very quick in cutting off my head; for it is a question often debated by us at Jomsburg, whether one retains any sense after being beheaded. I will therefore grasp this knife in my hand: if, after my head is cut off, I strike it towards you, it will show I have not lost all sense; if I let it drop, it will be a proof of the contrary. Make haste therefore, and decide the dispute." Thorchill, adds the historian, cut off his head in a most expeditious manner; but the knife, as might be expected, dropt from his hand. The fifth showed the same tranquillity, and died rallying and jeering his enemies The sixth begged of Thorchill, that he might not be led to punishment like a sheep: "Strike the blow in my face," said he, "I will sit still without shrinking; and take notice whether I once wink my eyes, or betray one sign of fear in my countenance. For we inhabitants of Jomsburg are used to exercise ourselves in trials of this sort, so as to meet the stroke of death without once moving." He kept his promise before all the spectators, and received the blow without betraying the least sign of fear, or so much as winking with his eyes. The seventh, says the historian, was a very beautiful young man, in the flower of his age. His long hair, as fine as silk, floated in curls and ringlets on his shoulders. Thorchill asked him what he

thought of death? I receive it willingly, said he, since I have fulfilled the greateſt duty of life, and have ſeen all thoſe put to death whom I would not ſurvive. I only beg of you one favour, not to let my hair be touched by a ſlave, or ſtained with my blood."

Neither was this intrepidity peculiar to the inhabitants of Jomſburgh; it was the general character of all the Scandinavians, of which we ſhall only give this further inſtance. A warrior, having been thrown upon his back in wreſtling with his enemy, and the latter finding himſelf without his arms, the vanquiſhed perſon promiſed to wait, without changing his poſture, till his antagoniſt fetched a ſword to kill him; and he faithfully kept his word.—To die with his arms in his hand was the ardent wiſh of every free man; and the pleaſing idea which they had of this kind of death led them to dread ſuch as proceeded from old age and diſeaſe. The hiſtory of ancient Scandinavia is full of inſtances of this way of thinking. The warriors who found themſelves lingering in diſeaſe, often availed themſelves of their few remaining moments to ſhake off life, by a way that they ſuppoſed to be more glorious. Some of them would be carried into a field of battle, that they might die in the engagement. Others ſlew themſelves: many procured this melancholy ſervice to be performed by their friends, who conſidered it as a moſt ſacred duty. "There is, on a mountain of Iceland), ſays the author of an old Icelandic romance), a rock ſo high, that no animal can fall from the top and live. Here men betake themſelves when they are afflicted and unhappy. From this place all our anceſtors, even without waiting for ſickneſs, have departed into Edin. It is uſeleſs, therefore, to give ourſelves up to groans and complaints, or to put our relations to needleſs expences, ſince we can eaſily follow the example of our fathers, who have all gone by the way of this rock."—When all theſe methods failed, and at laſt when Chriſtianity had baniſhed ſuch barbarous practices, the diſconſolate heroes conſoled themſelves by putting on complete armour as ſoon as they found their end approaching.

SCANDIX, Shepherd's Needle, or *Venus-comb;* a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants. The moſt remarkable ſpecies is the odorata with angular furrowed ſeeds. It is a native of Germany; and has a very thick perennial root, compoſed of many fibres, of a ſweet aromatic taſte like aniſeed, from which come forth many large leaves that branch out ſomewhat like thoſe of fern, from whence it is named *ſweet-fern.* The ſtalks grow four or five feet high, are ſiſtulous and hairy; the flowers are diſpoſed in an umbel at the top of the ſtalk, are of a white colour, and have a ſweet aromatic ſcent.—This ſpecies is eaſily propagated by ſeeds, which, if permitted to ſcatter, will ſupply an abundance of young plants, that may be put into any part of the garden, and require no care,

SCANNING, in poetry, the meaſuring of verſe by feet, in order to ſee whether or not the quantities be duely obſerved. The term is chiefly uſed in Greek and Latin verſes. Thus an hexameter verſe is ſcanned by reſolving it into ſix feet; a pentameter, by reſolving it into five feet, &c.

SCAPE-GOAT, in the Jewiſh antiquities, the goat which was ſet liberty on the day of ſolemn expiation. For the ceremonies on this occaſion, ſee Levit. xvi. 5. 6. &c.

Some ſay, that a piece of ſcarlet cloth, in form of a tongue, was tied on the forehead of the ſcape-goat. *Hoſm. Lex. Univ. in voc. Lingua.*

Many have been the diſputes among the interpreters, concerning the meaning of the word *ſcape-goat;* or rather of *azazel*, for which *ſcape-goat* is put in our verſion of the Bible.

Spencer is of opinion that azazel is a proper name, ſignifying the devil or evil dæmon. See his reaſons in his book *De leg. Hebr. ritual.* Differt. viii. Among other things, he obſerves, that the ancient Jews uſed to ſubſtitute the name *Samaël* for *Azazel*, and many of them have ventured to affirm, that at the feaſt of expiation they were obliged to offer a gift to Samaël to obtain his favour. Thus alſo the goat, ſent into the wilderneſs to Azazel, was underſtood to be a gift or or oblation. Some Chriſtians have been of the ſame opinion. But Spencer thinks that the genuine reaſons of the ceremony were, 1. That the goat, loaded with the ſins of the people, and ſent to Azazel, might be a ſymbolical repreſentation of the miſerable condition of ſinners. 2. God ſent the goat thus loaded to the evil dæmons, to ſhow that they were impure, thereby to deter the people from any converſation or familiarity with them. 3. That the goat ſent to Azazel, ſufficiently expiating all evils, the Iſraelites might the more willingly abſtain from the expiatory ſacrifices of the Gentiles.

SCAPULA, in anatomy, the ſhoulder, or ſhoulder-bone.

SCAPULAR, in anatomy, the name of two pair of arteries, and as many veins.

Scapular, or *Scapulary*, a part of the habit of ſeveral religious orders in the church of Rome, worn over the gown as a badge of peculiar veneration for the Bleſſed Virgin. It conſiſts of two narrow ſlips or breadths of cloth covering the back and the breaſt, and hanging down to the feet.—The devotees of the ſcapulary celebrate its feſtival on the 10th of July.

SCARABÆUS, the Beetle, in zoology, a genus of inſects of the coleoptera order: the antennæ of the beetles are of a clavated figure, and fiſſile longitudinally; and their legs are frequently dentated. There are 87 ſpecies; all, however, concurring in one common formation of having caſes to their wings, which are the more neceſſary to thoſe inſects, as they often live under the ſurface of the earth, in holes, which they dig out by their own induſtry. The caſes prevent the various injuries their real wings might ſuſtain by rubbing or cruſhing againſt the ſides of their abode. Theſe, though they do not aſſiſt flight, yet keep the internal wings clean and even, and produce a loud buzzing noiſe when the animal riſes in the air.

If we examine the formation of all animals of the beetle kind, we ſhall find, as in ſhell-fiſh, that their bones are placed externally, and their muſcles within. Theſe muſcles are formed very much like thoſe of quadrupeds; and are endued with ſuch ſurpriſing ſtrength, that, bulk for bulk, they are a thouſand times ſtronger than thoſe of a man. The ſtrength of theſe muſcles is of uſe in digging the animal's ſubterraneous abode, whither it moſt frequently returns, even after it becomes a winged inſect capable of flying.

Be-

Scarabæus. Besides the difference which refults from the fhape and colour of thefe animals, the fize alfo makes a confiderable one: fome beetles being not larger than the head of a pin; while others, fuch as the elephant beetle, are as big as one's fift. But the greateft difference among them is, that fome are produced in a month, and in a fingle feafon go through all the ftages of their exifence; while others take near four years to their production, and live as winged infects a year more.

The may-bug, or dorr-beetle, as fome call it, has, like all the reft, a pair of cafes to its wings, which are of a reddifh brown colour, fprinkled with a whitifh duft, which eafily comes off. In fome years their necks are feen covered with a red plate, and in others with a black; thefe, however, are diftinct forts, and their difference is by no means accidental. The fore-legs are very fhort, and the better calculated for burrowing in the ground, where this infect makes its retreat. It is well known for its evening buzz, to children; but ftill more formidably introduced to the acquaintance of the hufbandman and gardener, for in fome feafons it has been found to fwarm in fuch numbers as to eat up every vegetable production.

The two fexes in the may-bug are eafily diftinguifhed from each other, by the fuperior length of the tufts, at the end of the horns, in the male. They begin to copulate in fummer, and at that feafon they are feen joined together for a confiderable time. The female being impregnated, quickly falls to boring a hole into the ground, where to depofit her burden. This is generally about half a foot deep; and in it fhe places her eggs, which are of an oblong fhape, with great regularity, one by the other. They are of a bright yellow colour, and noway wrapped up in a common covering, as fome have imagined. When the female is lightened of her burden, fhe again afcends from her hole, to live, as before, upon leaves and vegetables, to buzz in the fummer evening, and to lie hid among the branches of trees in the heat of the day.

In about three months after thefe eggs have been thus depofited in the earth, the contained infect begins to break its fhell, and a fmall grub or maggot crawls forth, and feeds upon the roots of whatever vegetable it happens to be neareft. All fubftances, of this kind, feem equally grateful; yet it is probable the mother infect has a choice among what kind of vegetables fhe fhall depofit her young. In this manner thefe voracious creatures continue in the worm ftate for more than three years, devouring the roots of every plant they approach, and making their way under ground in queft of food with great difpatch and facility. At length they grow to above the fize of a walnut, being a great thick white maggot with a red head, which is feen moft frequently in new turned earth, and which is fo eagerly fought after by birds of every fpecies. When largeft, they are found an inch and an half long, of a whitifh yellow colour; with a body confifting of twelve fegments or joints, on each fide of which there are nine breathing holes, and three red feet. The head is larger in proportion to the body, of a reddifh colour, with a pincer before, and a femicircular lip, with which it cuts the roots of plants and fucks out their moifture. As this infect lives entirely under ground, it has no occafion for eyes, and accordingly it is found to have none; but is furnifhed with two feelers, which, like the crutch of a blind man, ferve to direct its motions. Such is the form of this animal, that lives for years in the worm ftate under ground, ftill voracious, and every year changing its fkin. Scarabæus

It is not till the end of the fourth year, that this extraordinary infect prepares to emerge from its fubterraneous abode, and even this is not effected but by a tedious preparation, About the latter end of autumn, the grub begins to perceive the approaches of its transformation: it then buries itfelf deeper and deeper in the earth, fometimes fix feet beneath the furface; and there forms itfelf a capacious apartment, the walls of which it renders very fmooth and fhining, by the excretions of its body. Its abode being thus formed, it begins foon after to fhorten itfelf, to fwell, and to burft its laft fkin in order to affume the form of a chryfalis. This, in the beginning, appears of a yellowifh colour, which heightens by degrees, till at laft it is feen nearly red, Its exterior form plainly difovers all the veftiges of the future winged infect, all the fore parts being diftinctly feen; while, behind, the animal feems as if wrapped in fwaddling cloaths.

The young may-bug continues in this ftate for about three months longer; and it is not till the beginning of January that the aurelia diveffs itfelf of all its impediments, and becomes a winged infect completely formed. Yet ftill the animal is far from attaining its natural ftrength, health, and appetite. It undergoes a kind of infant imbecillity; and unlike moft other infects, that the inftant they become flies are arrived at their ftate of full perfection, the may-bug continues feeble and fickly. Its colour is much brighter than in the perfect animal; all its parts are foft; and its voracious nature feems for a while to have entirely forfaken it. As the animal is very often found in this ftate, it is fuppofed, by thofe unacquainted with its real hiftory, that the old ones, of the former feafon, have buried themfelves for the winter, in order to revifit the fun the enfuing fummer But the fact is, the old one never furvives the feafon; but dies, like all the other winged tribe of infects, from the feverity of cold in winter.

About the latter end of May, thefe infects, after having lived for four years under ground, burft from the earth when the firft mild evening invites them abroad. They are at that time feen rifing from their long imprifonment, from living only upon roots, and imbibing only the moifture of the earth, to vifit the mildnefs of the fummer air, to choofe the fweeteft vegetables for their banquet, and to drink the due of the evening. Wherever an attentive obferver then walks abroad, he will fee them burfting up before him in his pathway, like ghofts on a theatre. He will fee every part of the earth, that had its furface beaten into hardnefs, perforated by their egreffion. When the feafon is favourable for them, they are feen by myriads buzzing along, hitting againft every object that intercepts their flight. The mid-day fun, however, feems too powerful for their conftitutions: they then lurk under the leaves and branches of fome fhady tree; but the willow feems particularly their moft fa-

Scarabæus. favourite food; there they lurk in clusters, and seldom quit the tree till they have devoured all its verdure. In those seasons which are favourable to their propagation, they are seen in an evening as thick as flakes of snow, and hitting against every object with a sort of capricious blindness. Their duration, however, is but short, as they never survive the season. They begin to join shortly after they have been let loose from their prison; and when the female is impregnated, she cautiously bores a hole in the ground, with an instrument fitted for that purpose which she is furnished with at the tail; and there deposits her eggs, generally to the number of threescore. If the season and the soil be adapted to their propagation, these soon multiply as already described, and go through the various stages of their contemptible existence. This insect, however, in its worm state, though prejudicial to man, makes one of the chief repasts of the feathered tribe, and is generally the first nourishment with which they supply their young. Rooks are particularly fond of these worms, and devour them in great numbers. The inhabitants of the county of Norfolk, some time since, went into the practice of destroying their rookeries: but in proportion as they destroyed one plague, they were pestered with a greater; and these insects multiplied in such an amazing abundance, as to destroy not only the verdure of the fields, but even the roots of vegetables not yet shot forth. One farm in particular was so injured by them in the year 1751, that the occupier was not able to pay his rent; and the landlord was not only content to lose his income for that year, but also gave money for the support of the farmer and his family. In Ireland they suffered so much by these insects, that they came to a resolution of setting fire to a wood, of some extent, to prevent their mischievous propagation.

The scarabæus carnifex, which the Americans call the *tumble-dung*, particularly demands our attention; it is all over of a dusky black, rounder than those animals are generally found to be, and so strong, though not much larger than the common black beetle, that if one of them be put under a brass candlestick, it will cause it to move backwards and forwards, as if it were by an invisible hand, to the admiration of those who are not accustomed to the sight: but this strength is given it for much more useful purposes than those of exciting human curiosity; for there is no creature more laborous, either in seeking subsistence, or providing a proper retreat for its young. They are endowed with sagacity to discover subsistence by their excellent smelling, which directs them in flights to excrements just fallen from man or beasts, on which they instantly drop, and fall unanimously to work in forming round balls or pellets thereof, in the middle of which they lay an egg. These pellets, in September, they convey three feet deep in the earth, where they lie till the approach of spring, when the eggs are hatched and burst their nests, and the insects find their way out of the earth. They assist each other with indefatigable industry in rolling these globular pellets to the place where they are to be buried. This they are to perform with the tail foremost, by raising up their hinder part, and shoving along the ball with their hind-feet. They are always accompanied with other beetles of a larger size, and of a more elegant structure and colour. The breast of this is covered with a shield of a crimson colour, and shining like metal; the head is of the like colour, mixed with green; and on the crown of the head stands a shining black horn, bending backwards. These are called the *kings of the beetles*; but for what reason is uncertain, since they partake of the same dirty drudgery with the rest. Scarabæus Scarlet.

The *elephant-beetle* is the largest of this kind hitherto known; and is found in South-America, particularly in Guinea and Surinam, as well as about the river Oroonoko. It is of a black colour; and the whole body is covered with a very hard shell, full as thick and as strong as that of a small crab. Its length, from the hinder part to the eyes, is almost four inches; and from the same part to the end of the proboscis or trunk, four inches and three quarters. The transverse diameter of the body is two inches and a quarter; and the breadth of each elytron, or case for the wings, is an inch and three tenths. The antennæ or feelers are quite horny; for which reason the proboscis or trunk is moveable at its insertion into the head, and seems to supply the place of feelers; the horns are eight-tenths of an inch long, and terminate in points. The proboscis is an inch and a quarter long, and turns upwards; making a crooked line, terminating in two horns, each of which is near a quarter of an inch long; but they are not perforated at the end like the proboscis of other insects. About four tenths of an inch above the head, or that side next the body, is a prominence, or small horn; which, if the rest of the trunk were away, would cause this part to resemble the horn of a rhinoceros. There is indeed a beetle so called; but then the horns or trunk has no fork at the end, though the lower horn resembles this. The feet are all forked at the end, but not like lobsters claws. See Plate CCLVII.

SCARBOROUGH, a town of the North Riding of Yorkshire, seated on a steep rock, near which are such craggy cliffs that it is almost inaccessible on every side. On the top of this rock is a large green plain, with a small well of fresh water springing out of the rock. It has of late been greatly frequented on account of its mineral waters called the *Scarborough-Spa*; on which account it is much mended in the number and beauty of the buildings. The spring was under the cliff, part of which fell down in 1737, and the water was lost; but in clearing away the ruins in order to rebuild the wharf, it was recovered to the great joy of the town. Here are assembliés and balls in the same manner as at Tunbridge. It is a place of some trade, has a very good harbour, and sends two members to parliament. E. Long. 54. 18. N. Lat. 0. 3.

SCARDONNA, a sea-port town of Dalmana, seated on the eastern banks of the river Cherca, with a bishop's see. It has been taken and retaken several times by the Turks and Venetians; and these last ruined the fortifications and its principal buildings in 1537; but they have been since put in a state of defence. E. Long. 17. 25. N. Lat. 43. 55.

SCARIFICATION, in surgery, the operation of making several incisions in the skin by means of lances or other instruments, particularly the cupping instrument. See SURGERY.

SCARLET, a beautiful bright red colour.

In

In painting in water-colours, minium mixed with a little vermilion produces a good ſcarlet; but if a flower in a print is to be painted a ſcarlet colour, the lights as well as the ſhades ſhould be covered with minium, and the ſhaded parts finiſhed with carmine, which will produce an admirable ſcarlet.

SCARLET-*Fever*. See MEDICINE, n° 337—339.

SCARP, in fortification, is the interior talus or ſlope of the ditch next the place, at the foot of the rampart.

SCARP, in heraldry, the ſcarf which military commanders wear for ornament. It is borne ſomewhat like a battoon finiſter, but is broader than it, and is continued out to the edges of the field, whereas the battoon is cut off at each end.

SCARPANTO, an iſland of the Archipelago, and one of the Sporades, lying to the S. W. of the iſle of Rhodes, and to the N. E. of that of Candia. It is about 22 miles in length, and 8 in breadth; and there are ſeveral high mountains. It abounds in cattle and game; and there are mines of iron, quarries of marble, with ſeveral good harbours. The Turks are maſters of it, but the inhabitants are Greeks.

SCARPE, a river of the Netherlands, which has its ſource near Aubigny in Artois, where it waſhes Arras and Douay; after which it runs on the confines of Flandera and Hainault, paſſing by St Amand, and a little after falls into the Scheld.

SCARRON (Paul), an eminent comic, or rather burleſque, French writer, was the ſon of Paul Scarron a counſellor in parliament, and born at Paris in 1610. He was deformed, and of very irregular manners; yet his father deſigned him for the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. He went to Italy when he was four and twenty; but returned juſt as licentious as he went, and ſo continued till by a terrible ſtroke he was deprived of all power to indulge vitious appetites. He was at Mans where he was a canon; but retiring from thence, at a carnival ſeaſon, into a damp and fenny ſituation, a torpor ſuddenly ſeized him, and he loſt the uſe of his limbs. The phyſicians attempted in vain to reſtore them: and poor Scarron, at 27 years of age, had no movements left him but thoſe of his hands and tongue. Melancholy and terrible as his condition was, his comical and burleſque humour never forſook him; he was continually talking and writing in this ſtrain; and his houſe became the rendezvous of all the men of wit. Afterwards a freſh misfortune overtook him: his father, who had hitherto ſupplied his wants, incurred the diſpleaſure of cardinal Richelieu, and was baniſhed. Scarron, deprived of his reſources, preſented an humble requeſt to Richelieu; which was ſo humorouſly drawn, that the miniſter could not forbear laughing. What the effect would have been, cannot be ſaid, ſince both Richelieu and his father died ſoon after: however, it is reckoned among his beſt pieces. This extraordinary perſon at length conceived thoughts of marriage; and in 1651, was actually married to Mademoiſelle d'Aubigne, afterwards the moſt celebrated Madam de Maintenon, who lodged near him, and who was about 16 years of age. This lady, whoſe paſſion for Scarron, if ſhe had any, muſt have been quite intellectual, had wit and beauty, and ſerved to increaſe the good company which frequented his houſe: ſhe alſo reſtrained him in his buffooneries, making him more reſerved and decent. Scarron died in 1660, and his jeſting humour did not die before him. Within a few minutes of his death, when his acquaintance were about him all in tears: "Ah! my friends, (ſaid he), you will never cry for me ſo much as I have made you laugh." He wrote many books both proſe and verſe; but his Comical Romance is almoſt the only one which continued to be liked by perſons of taſte: and this was foretold by Boileau.

SCENE, in its primary ſenſe, denoted a theatre, or the place where dramatic pieces and other public ſhows were exhibited; for it does not appear that the ancient poets were at all acquainted with the modern way of changing the ſcenes in the different parts of the play, in order to raiſe the idea of the perſons repreſented by the actors being in different places.

The original ſcene for acting of plays was as ſimple as the repreſentations themſelves: it conſiſted only of a plain plot of ground proper for the occaſion, which was in ſome degree ſhaded by the neighbouring trees, whoſe branches were made to meet together, and their vacancies ſupplied with boards, ſticks, and the like; and to complete the ſhelter, theſe were ſometimes covered with ſkins, and ſometimes with only the branches of other trees newly cut down, and full of leaves. Afterwards more artificial ſcenes, or ſcenical repreſentations were introduced, and paintings uſed inſtead of the objects themſelves. Scenes were then of three ſorts; tragic, comic, and ſatyric. The tragic ſcene repreſented ſtately magnificent edifices, with decorations of pillars, ſtatues, and other things ſuitable to the palaces of kings: the comic exhibited private houſes with balconies and windows, in imitation of common buildings: and the ſatyric was the repreſentation of groves, mountains, dens, and other rural appearances; and theſe decorations either turned on pivots, or ſlid along grooves, as thoſe in our theatres.

To keep cloſe to nature and probability, the ſcene ſhould never be ſhifted from place to place in the courſe of the play: the ancients were pretty ſevere in this reſpect, particularly Terence, in ſome of whoſe plays the ſcene never ſhifts at all, but the whole is tranſacted at the door of ſome old man's houſe, whither with inimitable art he occaſionally brings the actors. The French are pretty ſtrict with reſpect to this rule; but the Engliſh pay very little regard to it.

Scene is alſo a part or diviſion of a dramatic poem. Thus plays are divided into acts, and acts are again ſubdivided into ſcenes; in which ſenſe the ſcene is properly the perſons preſent at or concerned in the action on the ſtage at ſuch a time: whenever, therefore, a new actor appears, or an old one diſappears, the action is changed into other hands; and therefore a new ſcene then commences.

It is one of the laws of the ſtage, that the ſcenes be well connected; that is, that one ſucceed another in ſuch a manner as that the ſtage be never quite empty till the end of the act. See POETRY.

SCENOGRAPHY, (from the Greek, σκηνη *ſcene*, and γραφη *deſcription*), in perſpective, a repreſentation of a body on a perſpective plane; or a deſcription thereof in all its dimenſions, ſuch as it appears to the eye. See PERSPECTIVE.

SCEPTER, a kind of royal ſtaff, or battoon, borne by kings on ſolemn occaſions, as an enſign of command and authority. See REGALIA.

SCEPTICISM,

Scepticism || Scheld.

SCEPTICISM, the doctrines and opinions of the sceptics: whose distinguishing tenet was, that all things are uncertain and incomprehensible; and that the mind is never to assent to any thing, but to remain in perpetual doubt and suspence. This doctrine was also called *pyrrhonism*, from the name of its author. See the article PYRRHONISM and SCEPTICS.

SCEPTICS, a sect of ancient philosophers, founded by Pyrrho, whose distinguishing tenet was, That all things are uncertain and incomprehensible; contrary to which they held, but to keep up an absolute hesitancy or indifference. See SCEPTICISM.—The term *sceptic*, in its original Greek, σκεπτικος, properly signifies *considerative*, and *inquisitive*; or, a man who is ever weighing reasons on one side and the other, without ever deciding between them: it is formed from the verb σκεπτομαι, *I consider, look about, deliberate*.

Laertius notes, that the followers of Pyrrho had various denominations. From their master, they were called *Pyrrhonians*. From their dogma, *aporetici*, that is, doubters, of απορειν, *to doubt*: From their suspension and hesitation, *ephectici*, of εφεχειν, to *stay*, to *keep back*: And from their never getting beyond the search of truth, *zetetici*, *seekers*.

Plato refutes the great principle of the sceptics thus: When you say that all things are incomprehensible, do you comprehend or conceive that they are thus incomprehensible, or do you not? if you do, then something is comprehensible; if you do not, there is no reason we should believe you, since you do not comprehend your own assertion.

SCHAFFHAUSEN, a large, handsome, and strong town of Swisserland, capital of a canton of the same name, with a castle in the form of a citadel. It is well built, with fine large streets, and adorned with several fountains; and the greatest part of the houses are painted on the outside. It is well fortified, and the cathedral is the largest church in Swisserland; besides which, the minster, with the monastery adjoining thereto, the arsenal, the town-house, the great clock (which shows the course of the sun and moon with their eclipses), and the stone bridge over the Rhine, are well worth the observation of a traveller. That river is of great consequence to the inhabitants, with regard to trade. E. Long. 8. 51. N. Lat. 47. 39.

SCHAFFHAUSEN, the canton of, in Swisserland, is bounded on the north and west by Suabia; on the east by the canton of Zurich, and the bishoprick of Constance; and on the south by the same, and by Thurgaw. It is 22 miles in length, and 10 in breadth; but produces all the necessaries of life, as wine, fish, wood, flax, horses, sheep, wool, black cattle, and deer. The principal town is of the same name.

SCHEDULE, a scroll of paper or parchment, annexed to a will, lease, or other deed; containing an inventory of goods, or some other matter omitted in the body of the deed.—The word is a diminutive of the Latin *scheda*, or Greek σχεδη, a leaf or piece of paper.

SCHELD, a river which rises on the confines of Picardy, and runs north-east by Cambray, Valenciennes, Tournay, Oudenarde, &c. and receiving the Lis at Ghent, runs east by Dendermond, and then north to Antwerp; below which city it divides into two branches, one called *the Wester-Scheld*, which separates Flanders from Zealand, and discharges itself into the sea near Flushing; and the other called *the Oster-Scheld*, which runs by Bergen-op-zoom, and afterwards between the islands Beveland and Schowen, and a little below falls into the sea.

Scheiner || Schœnobates.

SCHEINER (Christopher), a German mathematician, astronomer, and Jesuit, eminent for being the first who discovered spots on the sun, was born at Schwaben in the territory of Middleheim in 1575. He first discovered spots on the sun's disk in 1611, and made observations on these phænomena at Rome, until at length reducing them to order, he published them in one vol. folio in 1630. He wrote also some smaller things relating to mathematics and philosophy; and died in 1690.

SCHEMNITZ, a town of Upper Hungary, with three castles. It is famous for mines of silver and other metals, as also for its hot barhs. Near it is a rock of a shining blue colour mixed with green, and some spots of yellow. E. Long. 19. 0. N. Lat. 48. 40.

SCHETLAND. See SHETLAND.

SCHIRAS, a large and famous town of Persia, capital of Farsistan. It is 3 miles in length from east to west, but not so much in breadth. It is seated at the north-west end of a spacious plain surrounded with very high hills, under one of which the town stands. The houses are built of bricks dried in the sun; the roofs are flat and terraced. There are 15 handsome mosques, tiled with stones of a bluish green colour, and lined within with black polished marble. There are many large and beautiful gardens, surrounded with walls of fourteen feet high, and four thick. They contain various kinds of very fine trees, with fruits almost of every kind, besides various beautiful flowers. The wines of Schiras are not only the best in Persia, but, as some think, in the whole world. The women are much addicted to gallantry, and it is called *an earthly paradise* by some. The ruins of the famous Persepolis are 30 miles to the north-east of this place. E. Long. 56. 0. N. Lat. 29. 36.

SCHISM, (from the Greek, σχισμα, *cleft*, *fissure*), in the general, signifies *division* or *separation*; but is chiefly used in speaking of separations happening thro' diversity of opinions, among people of the same religion and faith.

Thus we say the *schism* of the ten tribes of Judah and Bejamin, the *schism* of the Persians from the Turks and other Mahometans, &c.

Among ecclesiastical authors, the great schism of the West, is that which happened in the times of Clement VII. and Urban VI. which divided the church for 40 or 50 years, and was at length ended by the election of Martin V. at the council of Constance.

The Romanists number 34 schisms in their church.—They bestow the name *English schism* on the reformation of religion in this kingdom. Those of the church of England again apply the term *schism* to the separation of the non-conformists, viz. the presbeterians, independents, and anabaptists, for a further reformation.

SCHOENOBATES, (from the Greek, σχοινος, *a rope*; and βαινω, *I walk*), a name which the Greeks gave to their rope-dancers: by the Romans called *funambuli*. See ROPE-DANCER and FUNAMBULUS.

The

The *schænobates* were slaves whose masters made money of them, by entertaining the people with their feats of activity.—*Mercurialis de arte gymnastica, lib.* III. gives us five figures of *schænobates* engraven after ancient stones.

SCHOLASTIC, something belonging to the schools. See SCHOOL.

SCHOLASTIC *Divinity*, is that part or species of divinity which clears and discusses questions by reason and arguments; in which sense it stands, in some measure, opposed to *positive divinity*, which is founded on the authority of fathers, councils, &c. The school-divinity is now fallen into the last contempt; and is scarce regarded any where but in some of the universities, where they are still by their charters obliged to teach it.

SCHOLIAST, or COMMENTATOR, a grammarian who writes *scholia*, that is, notes, glosses, &c. upon ancient authors who have written in the learned languages. See the next article.

SCHOLIUM, a note, annotation, or remark, occasionally made on some passage, proposition, or the like. This term is much used in geometry and other parts of mathematics, where, after demonstrating a proposition, it is customary to point out how it might be done some other way, or to give some advice or precaution in order to prevent mistakes, or add some particular use or application thereof.

SCHOMBERG (Frederic Arnaud de), of an illustrious German family: He served first under Frederic-Henry, prince of Orange; then under Louis XIV. who made him marshal of France, though a Protestant. France lost him by the revocation of the edict of Nantz in 1685, when he retired to Portugal. His merit raised him to the rank of duke and grandee of that kingdom. At the revolution, he came to England with king William; and, for his signal services at that æra, he was made an English duke, and knight of the garter; the parliament also voted him 100,000l. In 1689, he was made commander in chief of the king's forces in Ireland; and in 1690, he was shot at the battle of the Boyne, by the French refugees of his own army, by a fatal mistake, in the 82d year of his age.

SCHOOL, a public place, wherein the languages, humanities, or other arts, are taught. Thus we say, a grammar *school*, a writing *school*, a *school* of natural philosophy, &c.—The word is formed from the Latin, *schola*, which, according to Du Cange, signifies *discipline* and *correction*; he adds, that it was anciently used, in the general, for all places where several persons met together, either to study, to converse, or do any other matter. Accordingly, there were *scholæ palatinæ*, being the several posts wherein the emperor's guards were placed; *schola scutariorum*, *schola gentilium*, &c. At length the term passed also to civil magistrates; and accordingly in the code, we meet with *schola chartulariorum*, *schola agentium*, &c.; and even to ecclesiastics, as *schola cantorum*, *schola sacerdotum*, &c.

SCHREVELIUS (Cornelius), a laborious Dutch critic and writer, who has given the public some editions of the ancient authors more elegant than correct: his Greek Lexicon is esteemed the best of all his works. He died in 1667.

SCHULTENS (Albert), professor of Hebrew and of the Eastern languages at Leyden, and one of the most learned men of the 18th century, was born at Groningen, where he studied till the year 1706, and from thence continued his studies at Leyden and Utrecht. Schultens at length applied himself to the study of Arabic books, both printed and in manuscript; in which he made great progress. A short time after, he became minister of Wassenar; and, two years after, professor of the Eastern tongues at Franeker. At length he was invited to Leyden, where he taught Hebrew and the Eastern languages with extraordinary reputation till his death, which happened in 1750. He wrote many learned works; the principal of which are, 1. A Commentary on Job, 2 vols 4to. 2. A Commentary on the Proverbs. 3. *Vetus & regia via Hebraizandi*. 4. *Animadversiones philologicæ & criticæ ad varia loca Veteris Testamenti*. 6. An excellent Hebrew grammar, &c. Schultens discovered in all his works found criticism, and much learning and erudition. He maintained against Gousset and Driessen, that in order to have a perfect knowledge of Hebrew, it is necessary to join with it, not only the Chaldee and Syriac, but more particularly the Arabic.

SCHURMAN (Anna Maria), a most extraordinary German lady. Her natural genius discovered itself at six years of age, when she cut all sorts of figures in paper with her scissars, without a pattern. At eight, she learned, in a few days, to draw flowers in a very agreeable manner. At ten, she took but three hours to learn embroidery. Afterwards she was taught music, vocal and instrumental; painting, sculpture, and engraving; in all of which she succeeded admirably. She excelled in miniature-painting, and in cutting portraits upon glass with a diamond. Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, were so familiar to her, that the most learned men were astonished at it. She spoke French, Italian, and English, fluently. Her hand-writing, in almost all languages, was so inimitable, that the curious preserved specimens of it in their cabinets. At length, all this extent of learning and uncommon penetration could not protect her from falling into the errors of Labadie, the famous French enthusiast, who had been banished France for his extravagant tenets and conduct. To this man she entirely attached herself, and accompanied him wherever he went; and even attended him in his last illness, at Altena in Holstein. Her works, consisting of *De vitæ humanæ termino*, and *Dissertatio de ingenii muliebris ad doctrinam et meliores literas aptitudine*, and her Letters to her learned correspondents, were printed at Leyden in 1648; but enlarged in the edition of Utrecht, 1562, in 12mo, under the following title: *A. M. Schurman Opuscula Hebræa, Græca, Latina, Gallica, Prosaica et Metrica*. She published likewise at Altena, in Latin, A Defence of her attachment to Labadie, while she was with him in 1673; not worth reading. She was born at Cologne in 1607, but resided chiefly in Holland, and died in Friesland in 1678.

SCHWARTS (Christopher), an eminent history-painter, born at Ingolstadt in 1550, who was distinguished by the appellation of the *German Raphael*. He learned the first principles of the art in his own country, but finished his studies at Venice; when he not only made the works of Titian his models, but had

had the advantage of receiving some personal instructions from that illustrious master. His performances were soon in the highest esteem, as his manner of painting was very different from what the Germans had been accustomed to before that time: he was, therefore, invited by the elector of Bavaria to his court, and appointed his principal painter. He died in 1594; and his most capital works, as well in fresco as in oil, are in the palace at Munich, and in the churches and convents.

SCHWARTENBURG, a town and castle of Germany, and circle of Upper Saxony, in the landgravate of Thuringia, and capital of a county of the same name belonging to a prince of the house of Saxony. It is seated on the river Schwartz, 20 miles south-east of Erford, and 35 north of Cullembach. E. Long. 11. 27. N. Lat. 50. 45.

SCHWARTZEMBERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and capital of a principality of the same name. The castle is seated on the river Lec, 5 miles north-west of Nurembeg, and 20 east of Wertzburg, subject to its own prince. E. Long. 10. 27 N. Lat. 49. 43.

SCHWEIDNITZ, a strong town of Germany, in Silesia, and capital of a province of the same name, with a castle. It is the handsomest town of Silesia, next to Breslaw. The streets are large, the church fine, and the houses well built. The fortifications are not very considerable; the royal palace is turned into a convent. All the magistrates are Roman Catholics; but most of the inhabitants are Protestants, who have a church without the town, as also a public school and bells. It is seated on an eminence on the river Weistritz, 27 miles south-east of Lignitz, and 22 south-west of Breslaw. E. Long. 16. 48. N. Lat. 50. 46.

SCHWEINFURT, a very strong, free, and imperial town of Germany, in Franconia, with a magnificent palace, where the senators meet, who are 12 in number. The environs are rich in cattle, corn, and wine; and the inhabitants are Protestants, but not very rich. However, they carry on a large trade in woollen and linen cloth, goose-quills, and feathers. It is seated on the river Main, 27 miles north-east of Wirtzburg, and 22 west of Bamberg. E. Long. 10. 25. N. Lat. 50. 4.

SCHWINBURG, a town of Denmark, on the eastern coast of the island of Fionia, over-against the islands of Arroa and Langeland. E. Long. 10. 55. N. Lat. 55. 8.

SCHWITZ, or SWITZ, a canton of Swisserland, which gives name to them all. It is bounded on the west by the lake of the four cantons, on the south by the canton of Uri, on the east by that Glaris, and on the north by those of Zurich and Zug. Its principal riches consist in cattle, and the capital town is of the same name. This is a large, handsome place, seated near the lake of the four cantons, in a pleasant country among the mountains. E. Long. 8. 41. N. Lat. 47. 2.

SCIÆNA, in ichthyology, a genus belonging to the order of thoracici. The membrane of the gills has six rays; the opercula and whole head are scaly. There are five species.

SCIATICA, the HIP-GOUT. See MEDICINE, n° 311. & p. 4870.

SCIENCE, in philosophy, denotes any doctrine, deduced from self-evident principles.

Sciences may be properly divided as follows. 1. The knowledge of things, their constitutions, properties, and operations: this, in a little more enlarged sense of the word, may be called φυσικη, or *natural philosophy*; the end of which is speculative truth. See NATURAL *Philosophy*, and PHYSICS.—2. The skill of rightly applying these powers, πρακτικη: The most considerable under this head is ethics, which is the seeking out those rules and measures of human actions that lead to happiness, and the means to practise them, (see MORAL *Philosophy*); and the next is mechanics, or the application of the powers of natural agents to the uses of life, (see MECHANICS.)—3. The doctrine of signs, σημειωτικη; the most usual of which being words, it is aptly enough termed *logic*. See LOGIC.

This, says Mr Locke, seems to be the most general, as well as natural, division of the objects of our understanding. For a man can employ his thoughts about nothing but either the contemplation of things themselves for the discovery of truth; or about the things in his own power, which are his actions, for the attainment of his own ends; or the signs the mind makes use of both in the one and the other, and the right ordering of them for its clearer information. All which three, *viz.* things as they are in themselves knowable, actions as they depend on us in order to happiness, and the right use of signs in order to knowledge, being *toto cælo* different, they seem to be the three great provinces of the intellectual world, wholly separate and distinct one from another.

SCILLA, the SQUILL; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria class of plants. The most remarkable species is the maritima, or sea-onion, whose roots are used in medicine. Of this there are two sorts, one with a red, and the other with a white root; which are supposed to be accidental varieties, but the white are generally preferred for medicinal use. The roots are large, somewhat oval-shaped, composed of many coats lying over each other like onions; and at the bottom come out several fibres. From the middle of the root arise several shining leaves, which continue green all the winter, and decay in the spring. Then the flower-stalk comes out, which rises two feet high, and is naked half-way, terminating in a pyramidal thyrse of flowers, which are white, composed of six petals, which spread open like the points of a star. This grows naturally on the sea-shores, and in the ditches, where the salt-water naturally flows with the tide, in most of the warm parts of Europe, so cannot be propagated in gardens; the frost in winter always destroying the roots, and for want of salt-water they do not thrive in summer. Sometimes the roots which are bought for use put forth their stems and produce flowers, as they lie in the druggists shops.—This root is very nauseous to the taste, intensely bitter, and so acrimonious that it ulcerates the skin if much handled. Taken internally, it powerfully stimulates the solids, and promotes urine, sweat, and expectoration. If the dose is considerable, it proves emetic, and sometimes purgative. The principal use of this medicine is where the primæ viæ abound with mucous matter, and the lungs are oppressed by tenacious phlegm. It has been recommended in hydropic cases,

cases, taken in powder, from four to ten grains in a dose, mixed with a double quantity of nitre. The most commodious mode of exhibiting this root is as a bolus or pill. Liquid forms are too disagreeable to most people; though this may be remedied in some degree by the addition of some aromatic distilled waters. It yields the whole of its virtues to aqueous and vinous menstrua, and likewise to vegetable acids.

SCILLY, or SILLEY, a cluster of small islands and rocks, situated in the Atlantic Ocean, in W. Long. 7°. N. Lat. 50°.

These islands were first called *Cassiterides*, or the *Tin Isles*, from their being rich in that metal. The common opinion is, that this is a Greek appellation; which in the most obvious sense is true: But as the Phœnicians were familiar with the metal, and with the country that produced it, before the Greeks knew any thing of either, it is very likely they introduced the names of both from their own language. Strabo says these islands were ten in number, lying close together, of which only one was uninhabited; the people led an erratic life, lived upon the produce of their cattle, wore an under-garment which reached down to their ankles, and over that another, both of the same colour, which was black, girt round a little below the breast with a girdle, and walked with staves in their hands. The riches of these islands were tin and lead, which, with the skins of their cattle, they exchanged with foreign merchants, that is, the Phœnicians from Cadiz, for earthen-ware, salt, and utensils made of brass. An author of as great or greater antiquity, seems to include a part at least of Cornwall amongst these islands; or rather he suggests, that they were not perfect islands except at full sea, but that at ebb the inhabitants passed from one to another upon the sands, and that they even transported their tin in large square blocks upon carriages from one island to another. He farther takes notice, that such as inhabited about Belerium, (the Land's End), were in their conversation with strangers remarkably civil and courteous. Other ancient writers style these islands *Hesperides*, from their western situation, and *Oestrymnides*, asserting that the land was extremely fertile, as well as full of mines; and that the people, though very brave, were entirely addicted to commerce, and boldly passed the seas in their leather boats.

The Romans were exceedingly desirous of having a share in this commerce, which the Phœnicians as carefully laboured to prevent, by concealing their navigation to these islands as much as it was in their power. At length, however, the Romans prevailed; and Publius Crassus coming thither, was so well pleased with the industry and manners of the people, that he taught them various improvements, as well in working their mines, which till that time were but shallow, as in carrying their own merchandise to different markets. There is no room to doubt that they followed the fate of the rest of Britain, and particularly of Cornwall, in becoming subject to the Roman empire. We find them called in the itinerary of Antoninus, *Sigdeles*; by Sulpitius, *Sillenæ*; and by Solinus they are termed *Silures*. All we know of them during this period is, that their tin trade continued, and that sometimes state-prisoners were exiled, or, to use the Roman phrase, relegated hither as well as to other islands.

When the legions were withdrawn, and Britain with its dependencies left in the power of the natives, there is no reason to question that these islands shared the same lot with the rest. As to the appellation which from this period prevailed, the ordinary way of writing it is *Scilly*; in records we commonly find it spelt *Silly*, *Silley*, or *Sulley*; but we are told the old British appellation was *Sulleh*, or *Sylleh*, which signifies rocks consecrated to the sun. We have not the least notice of any thing that regards them from the fifth to the tenth century. It is, however, with much appearance of truth, conjectured, that some time within this space they were in a great measure destroyed by an earthquake, attended with a sinking of the earth, by which most of their lowlands, and of course the greatest part of their improvements, were covered by the sea, and those rich mines of tin, which had rendered them so famous, swallowed up in the deep. They have a tradition in Cornwall, that a very extensive tract of country called the *Lionesi*, in the old Cornish *Lethousow*, supposed to lie between that country and Scilly, was lost in that manner; and there are many concurrent circumstances which render this probable. In reference to these islands the case is still stronger; for at low ebbs their stone-inclosures are still visible from almost all the isles, and thereby afford an ocular demonstration that they were formerly of far greater extent, and that in remoter ages their inhabitants must have been very numerous, and at the same time very industrious. This sufficiently proves the fact, that by such an earthquake they were destroyed; and that it happened at some period of time within those limits that have been assigned, appears from our hearing nothing more of their tin trade, and from our having no notice of it at all in any of our ancient chronicles, which, if it had fallen out later, from their known attention to extraordinary events, must certainly have happened.

It is generally supposed, and with great appearance of truth, that king Athelstan, after having overcome a very powerful confederacy formed against him, and having reduced Exeter, and driven the Britons beyond the river Tamar, which he made the boundary of their Cornish dominions, passed over into these islands, (then surely in a better state than now, or they would not have been objects of his vengeance), and reduced them likewise. History does not inform us that the Danes ever fixed themselves in these islands; but as their method of fortifying is very well known, it has been conjectured that the Giant's Castle in the isle of St Mary was erected by them; and indeed, if we consider the convenient situation of these islands, and the trade of piracy which that nation carried on, there seems to be nothing improbable in that conjecture. It is more certain that there were churches erected in these isles, and that there were in them also many monks and hermits, before the conquest.

The fertility of the islands is much insisted upon in all the accounts; and it is expressly said of St Mary's, that it bears exceeding good corn, insomuch that if men did but cast corn where swine had rooted, it would come up. There is mention made of a breed of wild swine, and the inhabitants had great plenty of fowl and fish. But notwithstanding the fertility of the country, and the many commodities that men had or

might have there, it was nevertheless but thinly peopled; and the reason assigned is, because they were liable to be frequently spoiled by French or Spanish pirates. In Leland's time one Mr Davers of Wiltshire, and Mr Whittington of Gloucestershire, were proprietors of Scilly, and drew from thence, in rents and commodities, about forty merks a-year.

The inhabitants at that juncture, and long before, appear to have carried on a small trade in dried skaite and other fish to Bretagne, with which they purchased salt, canvass, and other necessaries. This seems to be the remains of a very old kind of commerce, since for many ages the people of that country, those of the Scilly isles, and the people of Cornwall, looked upon themselves as countrymen, being in truth no other than remnants of the ancient Britons, who, when driven out by the Saxons, took refuge in those islands, and in that part of France which had before been called *Armorica*, and from hence styled *Bretagne*, *Brittany*, or *Little Britain*, and the people *Bretons*. This in all probability was a great relief to these who dwelt in those isles; who, during the long civil war between the houses of York and Lancaster, had their intercourse with England so much interrupted, that if it had not been for this commerce with their neighbours on the French coast, they might have been driven to the last distress.

The Scilly, or Silley islands, lie due west from the Lizard about seventeen leagues; west and by south from the old Land's End, nearest Mount's Bay, at the distance of ten leagues; and from the western Land's End, they lie west-south-west, at the distance of something more than nine leagues. There are five of them inhabited; and that called *Samson* has one family in it. The largest of these is *St Mary's*, which lies in the north latitude of 49 degrees 55 minutes, and in the longitude of 6 degrees 40 minutes west from Greenwich. It is two miles and a half in length, about one and a half in breadth, and between nine and ten miles in compass. On the west side there projects an isthmus. Beyond this there is a peninsula, which is very high; and upon which stands Star Castle, built in 1593, with some outworks and batteries. On these there are upwards of threescore pieces of cannon mounted; and for the defence of which there is a garrison of an entire company, with a master-gunner and six other gunners. In the magazine there are arms for 300 islanders, who, when summoned, are bound to march into the fortress. Underneath the castle barracks and lines, stands Hugh Town, very improperly built, as lying so low as to be subject to inundations. A mile within land stands Church Town, so denominated from their place of worship; it consists of a few houses only, with a court-house. About two furlongs east of this lies the Old Town, where there are more houses, and some of them very convenient dwellings. The number of inhabitants in this island is about 600 or 700; and it produces to the lord proprietor 300 l. *per annum*.

Trescaw lies directly north from St Mary's, at the distance of two miles. It was formerly styled *St Nicholas's island*; and was at least as large as St Mary's, though at present about half the size. The remains of the abbey are yet visible, the situation well chosen, with a fine bason of fresh water before it, half a mile long and a furlong wide, with an ever-green bank high enough to keep out the sea, and serving at once to preserve the pond and shelter the abbey. In this pond there are most excellent eels, and the lands lying round it are by far the best in those islands. There are about half a score stone houses, with a church, which are called *Dolphin Town*; an old castle built in the reign of Henry VIII. called Oliver's Castle; and a new block-house, raised out of the ruins of that castle, which is of far greater use. This island is particularly noted for producing plenty of the finest samphire, and the only tin works that are now visible are found here. There are upon it at present about 40 families, who are very industrious, and spin more wool than in St Mary's. Its annual value is computed at 80 l. a year.

A mile to the east of Trescaw, and about two miles from the most northern part of St Mary's, lies the isle of *St Martin's*, not much inferior in size to that of Trescaw. It very plainly appears to have been formerly extremely well cultivated; notwithstanding which it was entirely deserted, till within somewhat less than a century ago, that Mr Thomas Ekines, a considerable merchant, engaged some people to settle there. He likewise caused to be erected a hollow tower twenty feet in height, with a spire of as many feet more; which being neatly covered with lime, serves as a day-mark for directing ships crossing the channel or coming into Scilly. St Martin's produces some corn, affords the best pasture in these islands, nourishes a great number of sheep, and has upon it 17 families, who pretend to have the secret of burning the best kelp, and are extremely attached to their own island. As a proof of this it is observable, that though some of the inhabitants rent lands in St Mary's, yet they continue to reside here, going thither only occasionally.

St Agnes, which is also called the *Light-house Island*, lies near three miles south-west of St Mary's; and is, though a very little, a very well cultivated island, fruitful in corn and grass. The only inconvenience to which the people who live in it are subject, is the want of good water, as their capital advantage consists in having several good coves or small ports, where boats may lie with safety; which, however, are not much used. The light-house is the principal ornament and great support of the island, which stands on the most elevated ground, built with stone from the foundation to the lanthorn, which is fifty-one feet high, the gallery four, the sash-lights eleven feet and a half high, three feet two inches wide, and sixteen in number. The floor of the lanthorn is of brick, upon which stands a substantial iron grate, square, barred on every side, with one great chimney in the canopy-roof, and several lesser ones to let out the smoke, and a large pair of smith's bellows are so fixed as to be easily used whenever there is occasion. Upon the whole, it is a noble and commodious structure; and being plastered white, is a useful day-mark to all ships coming from the southward. The keeper of this light-house has a salary from the Trinity-house at Deptford of 40 l. a-year, with a dwelling-house and ground for a garden. His assistant has 20 l. a-year. It is supplied with coals by an annual ship; and the carriage of these coals from the sea-side to the light-house is looked on as a considerable benefit to the poor inhabitants. They have a neat

neat little church, built by the Godolphin family. There are at present 50 households in the island, which yield the proprietor 40 l. a year.

Brehar, or, as pronounced, *Bryer island*, lies north-west of St Mary's, and to the west of Trescaw, to which, when the sea is very low, they sometimes pass over the sand. It is very mountainous, abounds with sea and land fowls, excellent samphire, and a great variety of medical herbs. There are at present thirteen families, who have a pretty church, and pay 30 l. a-year to the proprietor.

South from hence, and west from Trescaw, stands the island of *Samson*, in which there is not above one family, who subsist chiefly by the making of kelp. To the westward of these there lie four islands, which contain in the whole 360 acres of meadow and arable land. The *eastern isles*, so denominated from their position in respect to St Mary's, contain 123 acres; and there are also seven other rocky and scattered islands, that have each a little land of some use; and besides these, innumerable rocks on every side, among which we must reckon *Scilly*, now nothing more than a large, ill-shaped, craggy, inaccessible island, lying the farthest north-west of any of them, and consequently the nearest to the continent.

The air of these islands is equally mild and pure; their winters are seldom subject to frost or snow. When the former happens, it lasts not long; and the latter never lies upon the ground. The heat of their summers is much abated by sea-breezes. They are indeed frequently incommoded by sea-fogs, but then these are not unwholesome. Agues are rare, and fevers more so. The most fatal distemper is the small-pox; yet those who live temperately survive commonly to a great age, and are remarkably free from diseases. The soil is very good, and produces grain of all sorts, (except wheat, of which they had anciently plenty), in large quantities. They still grow a little wheat, but the bread made of it is unpleasant. They eat, for this reason, chiefly what is made of barley; and of this they have such abundance, that though they use it both for bread and beer, they have more than suffices for their own consumption. Potatoes is a new improvement; and they prosper to such a degree, that in some places they have two crops in a year. Roots of all sorts, pulse, and salads, grow well; dwarf fruit-trees, gooseberries, currants, raspberries, and every thing of that kind, under proper shelter, thrive exceedingly; but they have no trees, though formerly they had elder; and porthelik, *i. e.* the harbour of willows, proves they had these likewise; and with a little care, no doubt, great improvemetns might be made. The ranunculus, anemone, and most kinds of flowers, are successfully cultivated in their gardens. They have wild fowl of all sorts, from the swan to the snipe; and a particular kind called the *hedge-chicken*, which is not inferior to the ortolan: tame fowl, puffins, and rabbits, in great numbers. Their black cattle are generally small, but very well tasted, though they feed upon ore-weed. Their horses are little, but strong and lively. They have also large flocks of fine sheep, whose fleeces are tolerably good and their flesh excellent. There are no venomous creatures in these islands.

We must now pass to the sea, which is of more consequence to these isles than that small portion of land which is distributed amongst them. St Mary's harbour is very safe and capacious, having that island on the south; the eastern islands, with that of St Martin, on the east; Trescaw, Brehar, and Samson, to the north; St Agnes and several small islands to the west. Ships ride here in three to five fathom water, with good anchorage. Into and out of this harbour there are four inlets, viz. Broad Sound, Smith's Sound, St Mary's Sound, and Crow Sound: so that hardly any wind can blow with which a ship of 150 tons cannot safely sail through one or other of them, Crow Sound only excepted, where they cannot pass at low water, but at high there is from 16 to 24 feet in this passage. Besides these there are two other harbours; one called *New Grynsey*, which lies between Brehar and Trescaw, where ships of 300 tons may ride securely. The other is called *Old Grynsey*, and lies between Trescaw, St Helen's, and Theon, for smaller ships. The former is guarded by the batteries at Oliver's Castle; the latter by the Blockhouse, on the eastern side of Trescaw, called *Dover*. Small coasters bound to the northward have more convenient outlets from these little harbours than from St Mary's, where, at the west end of Hugh Town, there is a fine pier built by the present earl of Godolphin, 430 feet long, 20 feet wide in the narrowest part, and 23 feet in height, with 16 feet of water at a spring, and 10 at a neap tide; so that under the shelter of this pier vessels of 150 tons may lie securely, not only close to the quay, but all along the strand of the town.

In this harbour, and in all the little coves of the several isles, prodigious quantities of mackerel may be caught in their season; also soal, turbot, and plaise, remarkably good in their kind. Ling, which from its being a thicker fish, mellower, and better fed, is very justly preferred to any caught nearer our own coasts. Salmon, cod, pollock, are in great plenty, and pilchards in vast abundance. To these we may add the alga marina, fucus, or ore-weed, which serves to feed both their small and great cattle, manures their lands, is burned into kelp, is of use in physic, is sometimes preserved, sometimes pickled, and is in many other respects very beneficial to the inhabitants of whom we are next to speak.

The people of Scilly in general are robust, handsome, active, hardy, industrious, generous, and good-natured; speak the English language with great propriety; have strong natural parts, (though for want of a good school they have little education), as appears by their dexterity in the several employments to which they are bred. They cultivate most of their lands as well as can be expected under their present circumstances. They are bred from their infancy to the management of their boats, in which they excel; are good fishermen, and excellent pilots. Their women are admirable housewives, spin their own wool, weave it into coarse cloth, and knit stockings. They have no timber of their own growth, and not much from England; yet they have many joiners and cabinet-makers, who, out of the fine woods which they obtain from captains of ships who put in here, make all kinds of domestic furniture in a very neat manner. They are free from the land-tax, malt-tax, and excise; and being furnished with plenty of liquors from the vessels which are driven into their roads for refreshment, for

Scilly. neceſſary repairs, or to wait for a fair wind, in return for proviſions and other conveniences; this, with what little fiſh they can cure, makes the beſt part of their trade, if we except their kelp, which has been a growing manufacture for theſe fourſcore years, and produces at preſent about 500 l. per annum.

The right honourable the earl of Godolphin is ſtyled proprietor of Scilly, in virtue of letters-patent granted to the late earl, then lord Godolphin, dated the 25th of July 1698, for the term of 89 years, to be computed from the end and expiration of a term of 50 years, granted to Francis Godolphin, Eſq; by king Charles I.; that is, from the year 1709 to 1798, when his leaſe determines. In virtue of this royal grant, his lordſhip is the ſole owner of all lands, houſes, and tenements; claims all the tithes, not only of the fruits of the earth, but of fiſh taken at ſea and landed upon thoſe premiſes; harbour-duties paid by ſhips; and one moiety of the wrecks, the other belonging to the admiralty. There is only one eccleſiaſtical perſon upon the iſlands, who reſides at St Mary's, and viſits the other inhabited iſlands once a-year. But divine ſervice is performed, and ſermons preached, or rather read, every Sunday in the churches of thoſe iſlands, by an honeſt layman appointed for that purpoſe; and there are likewiſe church-wardens and overſeers, regularly choſen in every pariſh. As to the civil government, it is adminiſtered by what is called the *Court of Twelve*; in which the commander in chief, the proprietor's agent, and the chaplain, have their ſeats in virtue of their offices; the other nine are choſen by the people. Theſe decide, or rather compromiſe, all differences; and puniſh ſmall offences by fines, whippings, and the ducking-ſtool: as to greater enormities, we may conclude they have not been hitherto known; ſince except for the ſoldiers, there is no priſon in the iſlands. But in caſe of capital offences, the criminals may be tranſported to and brought to juſtice in the county of Cornwall.

The great importance of theſe iſlands ariſes from their advantageous ſituation, as looking equally into St George's Channel, which divides Great Britain from Ireland, and the Engliſh Channel, which ſeparates Britain from France. For this reaſon, moſt ſhips bound from the ſouthward ſtrive to make the Scilly iſlands, in order to ſteer their courſe with greater certainty. It is very convenient alſo for veſſels to take ſhelter amongſt them; which prevents their being driven to Milford Haven, nay ſometimes into ſome port in Ireland, if the wind is ſtrong at eaſt; or, if it blows hard at north-weſt, from being forced back into ſome of the Corniſh harbours, or even on the French coaſts. If the wind ſhould not be very high, yet if unfavourable or unſteady, as between the channels often happens, it is better to put into Scilly, than to beat about at ſea in bad weather. The intercourſe between theſe two channels is another motive why ſhips come in here, as chooſing rather to wait in ſafety for a wind, than to run the hazard of being blown out of their courſe; and therefore a ſtrong gale at eaſt ſeldom fails of bringing thirty or forty veſſels, and frequently a larger number into Scilly; not more to their own ſatisfaction than to that of the inhabitants. Ships homeward-bound from America often touch there, from the deſire of making the firſt land in their power, and for the ſake of refreſhment. Some or other of theſe reaſons have an influence on foreign ſhips, as well as our own; and afford the natives an opportunity of ſhowing their wonderful dexterity, in conducting them ſafely into St Mary's harbour, and, when the wind ſerves, thro' their ſounds. Upon firing a gun and making a waſt, a boat immediately puts off from the neareſt iſlands, with ſeveral pilots on board; and having with amazing activity dropped one of them into every ſhip, till only two men are left in the boat, theſe return again to land, as the wind and other circumſtances direct, in one of their little coves.

In time of war, the importance of theſe iſlands is ſtill more conſpicuous; and it is highly probable, that they afforded the allies a place for aſſembling their fleet, when the Britons, Danes, Scots, and Iriſh, failed under the command of Anlaff, to attack king Athelſtan; which convinced him of the neceſſity of adding them to his dominions. Upon the like principle, Henry VIII. when upon bad terms with his neighbours, cauſed an old fortreſs to be repaired; and queen Elizabeth, who had more to fear, directed the conſtruction of a caſtle, which, in part at leaſt, ſtill remains. But the moſt ſingular inſtance of the detriment that might ariſe from theſe iſlands falling into other hands than our own happened in 1651, when Sir John Greenville took ſhelter in them with the remains of the Corniſh cavaliers. For the depredations committed by his frigates ſoon made it evident that Scilly was the key of the Engliſh commerce; and the clamours of the merchants thereupon roſe ſo high, that the parliament were forced to ſend a fleet of fifty ſail, with a great body of land-forces on board, under Sir George Ayſcue and admiral Blake, who with great difficulty, and no inconſiderable loſs, made themſelves maſters of Treſcaw and Brehar; where they erected thoſe lines and fortifications near the remains of the old fortreſs that are called *Oliver's Caſtle*. But at length, finding that little was to be done in that way, they choſe to grant Sir John Grenville a moſt honourable capitulation, as the ſureſt means to recover places of ſuch conſequence: with which the parliament were very little ſatiſfied, till Mr Blake gave them his reaſons; which appeared to be ſo well founded, that they directed the articles he had concluded to be punctually carried into execution.

SCIO, one of the moſt beautiful, pleaſant, and celebrated iſlands of the Archipelago, near to the coaſt of Natolia, to the ſouth of Metelin, and to the north-eaſt of Samos. It is 32 miles in length, and 15 in breadth; a mountainous country, and yet pleaſant enough, there being fruits of various kinds growing in the fields, ſuch as oranges, citrons, olives, mulberries, and pomegranates. There is alſo a large quantity of pleaſant wine, which they export to the neighbouring iſlands; but their principal trade is in ſilks. They have alſo a ſmall commerce in wool, cheeſe, figs, and maſtic. The women are better bred than in other parts of the Levant; though the dreſs is odd, yet it is very neat. The partridges are tame, being ſent every day into the fields to get their living, and in the evening are called back with a whiſtle. The town called *Scio* is large, pleaſant, and the beſt built of any in the Levant, the houſes being beautiful and commodious, ſome of which are terraſſed, and others covered with tiles. The ſtreets are paved with flint-ſtones; and

Scilly ‖ Scio.

Scioppius Scipio.

and the Venetians, while they had it in their possession, made a great many alterations for the better. The castle is an old citadel built by the Genoese, in which the Turks have a garrison of 1400 men. The harbour of Scio is the rendezvous of all shipping that goes to or comes from Constantinople, and will hold a fleet of fourscore vessels. They reckon there are 10,000 Turks, 100,000 Greeks, and 10,000 Latins, on this island. The Turks took it from the Venetians in 1695. Scio is a bishop's see, and is seated on the sea-side, 47 miles west of Smyrna, and 210 south-west of Constantinople.

SCIOPPIUS (Gaspar), one of the most formidable critics of the 17th century, was born in the Palatinate in 1576, and studied at Amberg, Heidelberg, and afterwards at Altdorf; where he made such a rapid progress, that at 16 years of age he published some critical works which rendered him admired. In 1599, he abjured the Protestant religion, and embraced that of Popery; notwithstanding which he was the great enemy of the Jesuits, and was extremely satirical upon them in several books; while on the other hand he wrote with the utmost fury also against the Protestant party, and even persuaded the Catholic princes to extirpate them by the most sanguinary methods. He particularly vented his rage against Joseph Scaliger, Casaubon, and Du Plessis Mornai. He even attacked James I. of England; nor did he spare the person of Henry IV. of France, in his book intitled *Ecclesiasticus*, which was burnt in France by the hands of the hangman. In short, Scioppius, having drawn upon himself universal hatred, and being justly apprehensive of some attempt upon his life, sought for shelter at Padua, where he died in 1649. He was undoubtedly a man of great abilities; and his application to study, his memory, the multitude of his writings, his fire and eloquence, would have justly ranked him high in the republic of letters, had his moderation been equal to his learning.

SCIPIO (Publius Cornelius), a renowned Roman general, surnamed *Africanus*, for his conquests in that country. His other signal military exploits were, his taking the city of New Carthage in a single day; his complete victory over Hannibal, the famous Carthaginian general; the defeat of Syphax king of Numidia, and of Antiochus in Asia. He was as eminent for his chastity, and his generous behaviour to his prisoners, as for his valour. He died 180 B. C. aged about 51.

SCIPIO (Lucius Cornelius), his brother, surnamed *Asiaticus*, for his complete victory over Antiochus at the battle of Magnesia, in which Antiochus lost 50,000 infantry, and 4000 cavalry. A triumph, and the surname of *Asiaticus*, were the rewards of his valour. Yet his ungrateful countrymen accused him, as well as his brother, of peculation; for which he was fined: but the public sale of his effects proved the falsehood of the charge; for they did not produce the amount of the fine. He flourished about 190 B. C.

SCIPIO (Publius Emilianus), was the son of Paulus Emilius; but being adopted by Scipio Africanus, he was called *Scipio Africanus junior*. He showed himself worthy his adoption, following the footsteps of Scipio Africanus, whom he equalled in military fame and public virtues. His chief victories were the conquest of Carthage and Numantia; yet these signal services to his country could not protect him from an untimely fate. He was strangled in his bed by order of the Decemviri, who dreaded his popularity, 129 B. C. aged 56.

Scio || Sciurus.

SCIRO, an island of the Archipelago, to the west of Mytelene, to the north-east of Negropont, and to the south-east of Sciati. It is 15 miles in length, and 8 in breadth. It is a mountainous country, but has no mines. The vines make the beauty of the island, and the wine is excellent; nor do the natives want wood. There is but one village; and that is built on a rock, which runs up like a sugar-loaf, and is 10 miles from the harbour of St George. The inhabitants are all Greeks, the cadi being the only Turk among them.

SCIRRHUS, in surgery and medicine, a hard tumour of any part of the body, void of pain, arising, as is supposed, from the inspissation and induration of the fluids contained in a gland, though it may also appear in any other part of the body, especially in the fat; being one of the ways in which an inflammation terminates. These tumours are exceedingly apt to degenerate into cancers.

SCIURUS, the SQUIRREL; a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of glires. It has two fore-teeth in each jaw, the superior ones shaped like wedges, and the inferior ones compressed. There are 11 species; of which the most remarkable are,

1. The vulgaris, or common squirrel, with ears terminated with long tufts of hair; large, lively, black eyes; head, body, legs, and tail, of a bright reddish brown; breast and belly white; hair on each side the tail lies flat. In Sweden and Lapland, it changes in winter into grey. In Russia, it is sometimes found black. In many parts of England there is a beautiful variety, with milk-white tails.—This species inhabits Europe and North America, the northern and the temperate parts of Asia; and a variety is even found as far south as the isle of Ceylon. It is a neat, lively, active animal; lives always in woods: in the spring, the female is seen pursued from tree to tree by the males, feigning an escape from their embraces; makes its nest of moss and dried leaves, between the fork of two branches; brings three or four young at a time; has two holes to its nest; stops up that on the side the wind blows, as Pliny justly remarks; lays in a hoard of winter provision, such as nuts, acorns, &c.; in summer, feeds on buds and young shoots; is particularly fond of those of fir, and the young cones; sits up to eat, and uses its fore-feet as hands; covers itself with its tail; leaps to a surprising distance; when disposed to cross a river, a piece of bark is its boat, its tail the sail.

2. The cinereus, or grey squirrel, with plain ears; hair of a dull grey colour, mixed with black, and often tinged with dirty yellow; belly and insides of the legs white; tail long, bushy, grey, and striped with black: size of a half-grown rabbit.—Inhabits the woods of Nothern Asia, North America, Peru, and Chili. They are very numerous in North America, do incredible damage to the plantations of maize, run up the stalks and eat the young ears. Descend in vast flocks from the mountains, and join those that inhabit the lower parts; are proscribed by the provinces, and a reward of three-pence per head given for every one that is killed;

Plate CCLXI. fig. 1.

Sciurus.

killed; fuch a number was deftroyed one year, that Penfylvania alone paid in rewards 8000 l. of its currency. Make their nefts in hollow trees, with mofs, ftraw, wool, &c. Feed on maize in the feafon, and on pine-cones, acorns, and maft of all kinds: form holes under ground, and there depofit a large ftock of winter provifion. Defcend from the trees, and vifit their magazines when in want of meat; are particularly bufy at the approach of bad weather; during the cold feafon keep in their nefts for feveral days together; feldom leap from tree to tree, only run up and down the bodies; their hoards often deftroyed by fwine; when their magazines are covered with deep fnow, the fquirrels often perifh for want of food; are not eafily fhot, nimbly changing their place when they fee the gun levelled; have the actions of the common fquirrel; are eafily tamed; their flefh is efteemed very delicate. Their furs, which are imported under the name of *petit-gris*, are valuable, and ufed as linings to cloaks.

3. The niger, or black fquirrel, with plain ears; fometimes wholly black, but often marked with white on the nofe, the neck, or end of the tail; the tail fhorter than that of the former; the body equal. It inhabits the north of Afia, North America, and Mexico: breeds and affociates in feparate troops; is equally numerous with the former; commits as great ravages among the maize; makes its neft in the fame manner; and forms, like them, magazines for winter food. The fineft are taken near the lake Baikal, and about Barguzinfkoi oftrog, upon the upper Angara, in the diftrict of Nertfchinfk, which are the beft in all Siberia; thefe continue black the whole year, the others grow rufty in fummer.—There is a variety with plain ears; coarfe fur mixed with dirty white and black; throat and infide of the legs and thighs black; tail much fhorter than thofe of fquirrels ufually are; of a dull yellow colour, mixed with black; body of the fize of the grey fquirrel. It inhabits Virginia; the planters call it the *cat fquirrel*.

4. The flavus, or fair fquirrel, with the body and tail of a flaxen colour; of a very fmall fize, with plain round ears, and rounded tail. Inhabits the woods near Amadabad, the capital of Guzurat, in great abundance, leaping from tree to tree. Linnæus fays it is an inhabitant of South America.

5. The ftriatus, or ground fquirrel, with plain ears; ridge of the back marked with a black ftreak; each fide with a pale yellow ftripe, bounded above and below with a line of black; head, body, and tail, of a reddifh brown; the tail the darkeft: breaft and belly white; nofe and feet pale-red; eyes full.—Inhabits the north of Afia, but found in the greateft abundance in the forefts of North America. They never run up trees except they are purfued and find no other means of efcaping: they burrow, and form their habitations under ground, with two entrances, that they may get access to the one in cafe the other is ftopped up. Their retreats are formed with great fkill, in form of a long gallery, with branches on each fide, each of which terminates in an enlarged chamber, as a magazine to ftore their winter provifion in; in one they lodge the acorns, in another the maize, in a third the hickery nuts, and in the laft their favourite food the chinquapin chefnut. They very feldom ftir out during winter, at leaft as long as their provifions laft; but if that fails, they will dig into cellars where apples are kept, or barns where maize is ftored, and do a great deal of mifchief; but at that time the cat deftroys great numbers, and is as great an enemy to them as to mice. During the maize harvefl, thefe fquirrels are very bufy in biting off the ears, and filling their mouths fo full with the corn, that their cheeks are quite diftended. It is obfervable, that they give great preference to certain food; for if, after filling their mouths with rye, they happen to meet with wheat, they fling away the firft, that they may indulge in the laft. They are very wild, bite feverely, and are fcarcely ever tamed; the fkins are of little ufe, but are fometimes brought over to line cloaks.

6. The glis, or fat fquirrel, with thin naked ears; body covered with foft afh-coloured hair; belly whitifh; tail full of long hair: from nofe to tail, near fix inches; tail, four and a half: thicker in the body than the common fquirrel.—Inhabits France and the fouth of Europe; lives in trees, and leaps from bough to bough; feeds on fruits and acorns; lodges in the hollows of trees; remains in a torpid ftate during winter, and grows very fat. It was efteemed a great delicacy by the Romans, who had their gliraria, places conftructed to keep and feed them in.

7. The fagitta, or failing fquirrel, with a fmall round head, cloven upper lip: fmall blunt ears, two fmall warts at the utmoft corner of each eye, with hairs growing out of them: neck fhort: four toes on the fore feet; and inftead of a thumb, a flender bone two inches and a half long, lodged under the lateral membrane, ferving to ftretch it out: from thence to the hind legs extends the membrane, which is broad, and a continuation of the fkin of the fides and belly: there are five toes on the hind feet; and on all the toes, fharp compreffed bent claws: the tail is covered with long hairs difpofed horizontally: colour of the head, body, and tail, a bright bay; in fome parts inclining to orange: breaft and belly of a yellowifh white: length from nofe to tail, eighteen inches; tail, fifteen.—Inhabits Java, and others of the Indian iflands: leaps from tree to tree as if it flew: will catch hold of the boughs with its tail. Niewhoff, p. 354, defcribes this under the name of the flying cat, and fays the back is black. Plate CCLXI. fig. 2.

8. The volans, or flying fquirrel, with round naked ears, full black eyes, and a lateral membrane from the fore to the hind legs: tail with long hairs difpofed horizontally, longeft in the middle: colour above, a brownifh afh; beneath, white tinged with yellow: much lefs than the common fquirrel. Inhabits Finland, Lapland, Poland, Ruffia, North America, and New Spain: lives in hollow trees: fleeps in the day: during the night is very lively: is gregarious, numbers being found in one tree: leaps from bough to bough fome times at the diftance of ten yards: this action has improperly been called flying, for the animal cannot go in any other direction than forward; and even then cannot keep an even line, but finks confiderably before it can reach the place it aims at: fenfible of this, the fquirrel mounts the higher in proportion to the diftance it wifhes to reach: when it would leap, it ftretches out the fore legs, and extending the membrane becomes fpecifically lighter than it would otherwife be; and thus is enabled to fpring further than other fquirrels that have not this aparatus. When numbers leap at a time, they feem like leaves blown

Sclavonia || Scolopax.

blown off by the wind. Their food the same as the other squirrels. They are easily tamed: bring three or four young at a time. See fig. 3, 4. the one representing the animal in what is called a *flying*, the other in a sitting posture.

SCLAVONIA, a country of Europe, between the rivers Save, the Drave, and the Danube. It is divided into six counties, viz. Posegra, Zabrab, Creis, Warasden, Zreim, and Walpon; and belongs to the house of Austria. It was formerly called a *kingdom*; and is very narrow, not being above 75 miles in breadth; but it is 300 in length, from the frontiers of Austria to Belgrade. The eastern part is called *Ratzia*, and the inhabitants *Ratzians*. These, from a particular notion, are of the Greek church. The language of Sclavonia is the mother of four others, namely, those of Hungary, Bohemia, Poland, and Russia.

SCLEROTICS, medicines proper to harden and consolidate the flesh of the parts to which they are applied; as purslain, house-leek, flea-wort, garden nightshade, &c.

SCOLOPAX, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of grallæ. The back is cylindrical, obtuse, and longer than the head; the nostrils are linear; the face is covered; and the feet have four toes. There are 18 species; of which the following are the principal.

1. The arquata, or curlew, frequents our sea-coasts and marshes in the winter time in large flocks, walking on the open sands; feeding on shells, frogs, crabs, and other marine insects. In summer they retire to the mountainous and unfrequented parts of the country, where they pair and breed. Their eggs are of a pale olive colour, marked with irregular but distinct spots of pale brown. Their flesh is very rank and fishy, notwithstanding an old English proverb in its favour. Curlews differ much in weight and size; some weighing 37 ounces, others not 22: the length of the largest to the tip of the tail, 25 inches; the breadth, three feet five inches; the bill is seven inches long: the head, neck, and coverts of the wings, are of a pale brown; the middle of each feather black; the breast and belly white, marked with narrow oblong black lines: the back is white, spotted with a few black strokes: the quill-feathers are black, but the inner webs spotted with white: the tail is white, tinged with red, and beautifully barred with black; the legs are long, strong, and of a blueish grey colour; the bottoms of the toes flat and broad, to enable it to walk on the soft mud, in search of food. Plate CCLXI. fig. 5.

2. The phæopus, or whimbrel, is much less frequent on our shores than the curlew; but its haunts, food, and general appearance, are much the same. It is observed to visit the neighbourhood of Spalding (where it is called the *curlew knot*) in vast flocks in April, but continues there no longer than May; nor is it seen there any other time of year: it seems at that season to be on its passage to its breeding place, which Mr Pennant suspects to be among the Highlands of Scotland. The specific difference is the size; this never exceeding the weight of 12 ounces.

3. The rusticola, or woodcock, during summer inhabits the Alps of Norway, Sweden, Polish Prussia, the march of Brandenburg, and the northern parts of Europe: they all retire from those countries the beginning of winter, as soon as the frosts commence; which force them into milder climates, where the ground is open, and adapted to their manner of feeding. They live on worms and insects, which they search for with their long bills in soft ground and moist woods. Woodcocks generally arrive here in flocks, taking advantage of the night or a mist: they soon separate; but before they return to their native haunts, pair. They feed and fly by night; beginning their flight in the evening, and return the same way or through the same glades to their day retreat. They leave England the latter end of February, or beginning of March; not but they have been known to continue here accidentally.—These birds appear in Scotland first on the eastern coasts, and make their progress from east to west. They do not arrive in Breadalbane, a central part of the kingdom, till the beginning or middle of November; nor the coasts of Nether Lorn, or of Rossshire, till December or January: they are very rare in the remote Hebrides, or in the Orkneys. A few straggglers now and then arrive there. They are equally scarce in Cathness.—Our species of woodcock is unknown in North America: but a kind is found that has the general appearance of it; but is scarce half the size, and wants the bars on the breast and belly. The weight of the woodcock is usually about 12 ounces; the length near 14 inches; and the breadth, 26; the bill is three inches long, dusky towards the end, reddish at the base; tongue slender, long, sharp, and hard at the point; the eyes large, and placed near the top of the head, that they may not be injured when the bird thrusts its bill into the ground; from the bill to the eyes is a black line; the fore-head is a reddish ash colour; the crown of the head, the hind part of the neck, the back, the coverts of the wings, and the scapulars, are prettily barred with a ferruginous red, black and grey; but on the head the black predominates: the quill-feathers are dusky, indented with red marks. The chin is of a pale yellow; the whole under side of the body is of a dirty white, marked with numerous transverse lines of a dusky colour. The tail consists of 12 feathers, dusky or black on the one web, and marked with red on the other; the tips above are ash-couloured, below white; which, when shooting on the ground was in vogue, was the sign the fowler discovered the birds by. The legs and toes are livid; the latter divided almost to their very origin, having only a very small web between the middle and interior toes; as those of the two species of snipes found in England. Fig. 6.

4. The ægocephala, or godwit, weighs 12 ounces and a half; the length is 16 inches; the breadth 27; the bill is four inches long, turns up a little, black at the end, the rest a pale purple; from the bill to the eye is a broad white stroke; the feathers of the head, neck, and back, are of a light reddish brown, marked in the middle with a dusky spot; the belly and vent feathers white, the tail regularly barred with black and white. The six first quill-feathers are black their interior edges of a reddish brown; the legs in some are dusky, in others of a greyish blue; which perhaps may be owing to different ages; the exterior toe is connected as far as the first joint of the middle toe with a strong serrated membrane. The male is distinguished from the female by some black lines on the breast and throat; which in the female are wanting. These birds are taken in the fens, in the same season and in the same manner with the ruffs and reeves†; and when fattened are

† See *Tringa*.

Scolopax. are esteemed a great delicacy, and sell for half a crown or five shillings a piece. A stale of the same species is placed in the net. They appear in small flocks on our coasts in September, and continue with us the whole winter; they walk on the open sands like the curlew, and feed on insects.

5. The glottis, or greenshank, is in length to the end of the tail, 14 inches; to that of the toes, 20; its breadth, 25. The bill is two inches and a half long; the upper mandible black, strait, and very slender; the lower reflects a little upwards; the head and upper part of the neck are ash-coloured, marked with small dusky lines pointing down; over each passes a white line; the coverts, the scapulars, and upper part of the back, are of a brownish ash-colour; the quill-feathers dusky, but the inner webs speckled with white; the breast, belly, thighs, and lower part of the back, are white; the tail is white, marked with undulated dusky bars: the inner coverts of the wings finely crossed with double and treble rows of a dusky colour. It is a bird of an elegant shape, and small weight in proportion to its dimensions, weighing only six ounces. The legs are very long and slender, and bare above two inches higher than the knees. The exterior toe is united to the middle toe, as far as the second joint, by a strong membrane which borders their sides to the very end. These birds appear on the English coasts and wet grounds in the winter time in but small numbers.

6. The calidris, or red-shank, is found on most of our shores; in the winter-time it conceals itself in the gutters, and is generally found single or at most in pairs. It breeds in the fens and marshes; and flies round its nest when disturbed, making a noise like a lapwing. It lays four eggs, whitish tinged with olive, marked with irregular spots of black chiefly on the thicker end. It weighs five ounces and a half: the length is 12 inches, the breadth 21; the bill near two inches long, red at the base, black towards the point. The head, hind part of the neck, and scapulars, are of a dusky ash-colour, obscurely spotted with black; the back is white, sprinkled with black spots; the tail elegantly barred with black and white; the cheeks, under side of the neck, and upper part of the breast, are white, streaked downward with dusky lines; the belly white; the exterior webs of the quill-feathers are dusky; the legs long and of fine bright orange colour; the utmost toe connected to the middle toe by a small membrane; the inmost by another still smaller.

Plate CCLXI. fig. 7. 7. The gallinago, or common snipe, weighs four ounces; the length, to the end of the tail, is near 12 inches; the breadth about 14; the bill is three inches long, of a dusky colour, flat at the end, and often rough like shagrin above and below. The head is divided lengthwise with two black lines; and three of red, one of the last passing over the middle of the head, and one above each eye: between the bill and the eyes is a dusky line; the chin is white; the neck is varied with brown and red. The scapulars are beautifully striped lengthwise with black and yellow: the quill-feathers are dusky; but the edge of the first is white, as are the tips of the secondary feathers: the quill-feathers next the back are barred with black and pale red; the breast and belly are white; the coverts of the tail are long, and almost cover it; they are of a reddish brown colour. The tail consists of 14 feathers, black on their lower part, then crossed with a broad bar of deep orange, another narrow one of black; and the ends white, or pale orange. The vent feathers are of a dull yellow; the legs pale green; the toes divided to their origin. In the winter-time snipes are very frequent in all our marshy and wet grounds, where they lie concealed in the rushes, &c. In summer they disperse to different parts, and are found in the midst of our highest mountains as well as of our low moors; their nest is made of dried grass; they lay four eggs of a dirty olive colour, marked with dusky spots; their young are so often found in England, that we doubt whether they ever entirely leave this island. When they are disturbed much, particularly in the breeding season, they soar to a vast height, making a singular bleating noise; and when they descend, dart down with vast rapidity: it is also amusing to observe the cock (while his mate sits on her eggs) poise himself on her wings, making sometimes a whistling and sometimes a drumming noise. Their food is the same with that of the woodcock; their flight very irregular and swift, and attended with a shrill scream. They are most universal birds, found in every quarter of the globe, and in all climates.

Scolopendra, Scomber.

SCOLOPENDRA, in zoology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of aptera. The feet are very numerous, being as many on each side as there are joints in the body; the antennæ are setaceous; there are two jointed pappi, and the body is depressed.—These insects are very formidable and noxious in the warm countries, where they grow to the length of a quarter of a yard or more, though in this climate they seldom grow above an inch long. The scolopendra is also called the *centipes* from its number of feet. In the east Indies it grows to six inches in length, and as thick as a man's finger: it consists of many joints; and from each joint proceeds a leg on each side: they are covered with hair, and seem to have no eyes; but there are two feelers on the head, with which they find out the way they are to pass: the head is very round, with two small sharp teeth, with which they inflict wounds that are very painful and dangerous. A sailor that was bit by one on board a ship felt excessive pain, and his life was supposed to be in danger; but by the application of roasted onions to the part, he recovered. The bite of the scolopendra *morsitans* † in Jamaica is said to be as poisonous as the sting of a scorpion. Some of the species live in holes in the earth: others under stones, and among rotten wood; so that the removing of these is exceedingly dangerous in the countries where the scolopendræ breed.—These insects, like the scorpion, are supposed to be produced perfect from the parent or the egg, and to undergo no changes after their first exclusion. They are found of all sizes; which is a sufficient reason for believing that they preserve their first appearance through the whole of their existence. It is probable, however, that, like most of this class, they often change their skins; but of this we have no certain information.

† See Plate CCLVII.

SCOMBER, the Mackerel, in ichthyology, a genus belonging to the order of thoracici. The head is smooth and compressed, and there are seven rays in the gill-membrane. There are ten species;—of which the most remarkable are the following.

1. The scomber, or common mackerel, a summer-fish of passage that visits our shores in vast shoals. It

Plate CCLXI.

Fig. 1.
SCIURUS Cinereus
or Grey Squirrel.

Fig. 4.
Flying Squirrel.

Fig. 2.
SCIURUS Sagitta.
or Sailing Squirrel.

Fig. 3.
SCIURUS Volans.
or Flying Squirrel.

Fig. 5.
SCOLOPAX Arquata.
or Curlew.

Fig. 6.
SCOLOPAX Rusticola.
or Woodcock.

Fig. 7.
SCOLOPAX Gallinago.
or Snipe.

Fig. 8. SCORPION.

A Bell Sculp.

Scomber. It is less useful than other species of gregarious fish, being very tender, and unfit for carriage; not but that it may be preserved by pickling and salting, a method, we believe, practised only in Cornwall, where it proves a great relief to the poor during winter. It was a fish greatly esteemed by the Romans, because it furnished the precious garum, a sort of pickle that gave a high relish to their sauces; and was besides used medicinally. It was drawn from different kinds of fish, but that made from the mackrel had the preference: the best was made at Carthagena, vast quantities of mackrel being taken near an adjacent isle, called from that circumstance *Scombraria*; and the garum, prepared by a certain company in that city, bore a high price, and was distinguished by the title of *garum sociorum*. This fish is easily taken by a bait; but the best time is during a fresh gale of wind, which is thence called a *mackerel gale*. In the spring the eyes of mackerel are almost covered with a white film; during which period they are half blind. This film grows in winter, and is cast the beginning of summer. It is not often that it exceeds two pounds in weight, yet there have been instances of some that weighed upwards of five. The nose is taper and sharp-pointed: the eyes large: the jaws of an equal length: the teeth small, but numerous. The form of this fish is very elegant. The body is a little compressed on the sides: towards the tail it grows very slender, and a little angular. It is a most beautiful fish when alive; for nothing can equal the brilliancy of its colour, which death impairs, but does not wholly obliterate.

2. The thunnus, or tunny, was a fish well known to the ancients: it made a considerable branch of commerce: the time of its arrival into the Mediterranean from the ocean was observed, and stations for taking them were established in places it most frequented.

There are still very considerable tunny fisheries on the coast of Sicily, as well as several other parts of the Mediterranean; where they are cured, and make a great article of provision in the adjacent kingdoms. They are caught in nets, and amazing quantities are taken; for they come in vast shoals, keeping along the shores.

They frequent our coasts, but not in shoals like the tunnies of the Mediterranean. They are not uncommon in the lochs on the western coast of Scotland; where they come in pursuit of herrings; and often during night strike into the nets, and do considerable damage. When the fishermen draw them up in the morning, the tunny rises at the same time towards the surface, ready to catch the fish that drop out. On perceiving it, a strong hook baited with a herring and fastened to a rope, is instantly flung out, which the tunny seldom fails to take. As soon as hooked, it loses all spirit; and after a very little resistance submits to its fate. It is dragged to the shore and cut up, either to be sold fresh to people who carry it to the country markets, or is preserved salted in large casks. The pieces, when fresh look exactly like raw beef; but when boiled turn pale, and have something of the flavour of salmon.

One that was taken when Mr Pennant was at Inverary in 1769, weighed 460 pounds. The fish was seven feet ten inches long: the greatest circumference five feet seven; the least near the tail one foot six. The body was round and thick, and grew suddenly very slender towards the tail, and near that part was angular. The irides were of a plain green: the teeth very minute. The tail was in form of a crescent; and two feet seven inches between tip and tip. The skin on the back was smooth, very thick, and black. On the belly the scales were visible. The colour of the sides and belly was silvery, tinged with cærulean and pale purple: near the tail marbled with grey.

Scone ‖ Scorpæna.

They are known on the coast of Scotland by the name of *mackrelsture*: *Mabrel*, from being of that genus; and *sture*, from the Danish, *stor* "great."

SCONE, a town of Scotland, remarkable for being the place where the kings were anciently crowned. W. Long. 3. 10. N. Lat. 56. 28. Here was once an abbey of great antiquity, which was burnt by the reformers at Dundee. The present palace was begun by the earl of Gowrie; but was completed by Sir David Murray of Gospatrie, the favourite of king James VI. to whom that monarch had granted it; and the new possessor in gratitude to his benefactor put up the king's arms in several parts of the house. It is built around two courts. The dining room is large and handsome; and has an ancient, but magnificent chimney-piece, and the king's arms with this motto:

Nobis hæc invicta miserunt centum sex proavi.

Beneath are the Murray arms. In the drawing room is some good old tapestry, with an excellent figure of Mercury. In a small bed-chamber is a medley scripture-piece in needle-work, with a border of animals, pretty well done, the work of queen Mary during her confinement in Loch Leven Castle; but the house in general is in a manner unfurnished. The gallery is about 155 feet long, the top arched, divided into compartments filled with paintings in water-colours. The pieces represented are various kinds of huntings; that of Nimrod, and king James and his train, appear in every piece. Till the destruction of the abbey, the kings of Scotland were crowned here, sitting in the famous wooden chair which Edward I. transported to Westminster abbey, to the great mortification of the Scots, who looked upon it as a kind of palladium. Charles II. before the battle of Worcester was crowned in the present chapel. The old pretender resided for some time at Scone in 1715; and his son paid it a visit in 1745.

SCOPER or SCUPPER HOLES, in a ship, are holes made through the sides, close to the deck, to carry off the water that comes from the pump.

SCORBUTUS, the SCURVY. See MEDICINE, n° 448.

SCORDIUM, or WATER-GERMANDER, in botany; a species of TEUCRIUM.

SCORIA, or DROSS, among metallurgists, is the recrement of metals in fusion; or, more determinately speaking, is that mass which is produced by melting metals and ores: when cold, it is brittle, and not dissoluble in water, being properly a kind of glass.

SCORIFICATION, in metallurgy, is the art of reducing a body, either entirely or in part, into scoria.

SCORPÆNA, in ichthyology, a genus belonging to the order of thoracici. The head is large and sharp;

ſharp; the eyes are near each other; there are teeth in the jaws, palate, and fauces; and there are ſeven rays in the membrane of the gill. The ſpecies are three.

SCORPIO, in zoology, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of aptera. It has eight feet, beſides two frontal claws; the eyes are eight in number, three on each ſide of the thorax, and two on the back. It has two claw-ſhaped palpi, a long jointed tail, with a pointed weapon at the extremity; it has likewiſe two combs ſituated betwixt the breaſt and abdomen. There are ſix ſpecies, all natives of ſouthern climates.

Of all the claſs of noxious inſects the ſcorpion is the moſt terrible, whoſe ſhape is hideous, whoſe ſize among the inſects is enormous, and whoſe ſting is generally fatal. Happy for Britain, the ſcorpion is entirely a ſtranger among us! In ſeveral parts of the continent of Europe it is but too well known, though it ſeldom grows above four inches long: but in the warm tropical climates, it is ſeen a foot in length, and in every reſpect as large as a lobſter, which it ſomewhat reſembles in ſhape. There have been enumerated nine different kinds of this dangerous inſect, including ſpecies and varieties, chiefly diſtinguiſhed by their colour: there being ſcorpions yellow, brown, and aſh coloured; others that are the colour of ruſty iron, green, pale yellow, black, claret colour, white, and grey. There are four principal parts diſtinguiſhable in this animal; the head, the breaſt, the belly, and the tail. The ſcorpion's head ſeems, as it were, jointed to the breaſt; in the middle of which are ſeen two eyes; and a little more forward, two eyes more, placed in the fore part of the head: thoſe eyes are ſo ſmall, that they are ſcarcely perceivable; and it is probable the animal has but little occaſion for ſeeing. The mouth is furniſhed with two jaws; the undermoſt is divided into two, and the parts notched into each other, which ſerves the animal as teeth, and with which it breaks its food, and thruſts it into its mouth: theſe the ſcorpion can at pleaſure pull back into its mouth, ſo that no part of them can be ſeen. On each ſide of the head are two arms, each compoſed of four joints; the laſt of which is large, with ſtrong muſcles, and made in the manner of a lobſter's claw. Below the breaſt are eight articulated legs, each divided into ſix joints; the two hindmoſt of which are each provided with two crooked claws, and here and there covered with hair. The belly is divided into ſeven little rings; from the loweſt of which is continued a tail, compoſed of ſix joints, which are briſtly, and formed like little globes, the laſt being armed with a crooked ſting. This is that fatal inſtrument which renders this inſect ſo formidable: it is long, pointed, hard, and hollow; it is pierced near the baſe by two ſmall holes, through which, when the animal ſtings, it ejects a drop of poiſon, which is white, cauſtic, and fatal. The reſervoir in which this poiſon is kept, is in a ſmall bladder near the tail, into which the venom is diſtilled by a peculiar apparatus. If this bladder be greatly preſſed, the venom will be ſeen iſſuing out through the two holes above-mentioned; ſo that it appears, that when the animal ſtings, the bladder is preſſed, and the venom iſſues through the two apertures into the wound.

There are few animals more formidable, or more truly miſchievous, than the ſcorpion. As it takes refuge in a ſmall place, and is generally found ſheltering in houſes, ſo it cannot be otherwiſe than that it muſt frequently ſting thoſe among whom it reſides. In ſome of the towns of Italy, and in France, in the province of Languedoc, it is one of the greateſt peſts that torments mankind: but its malignity in Europe is trifling, when compared to what the natives of Africa and the eaſt are known to experience. In Batavia, where they grow twelve inches long, there is no removing any piece of furniture, without the utmoſt danger of being ſtung by them. Boſman aſſures us, that along the Gold Coaſt they are often found larger than a lobſter; and that their ſting is inevitable fatal. In Europe, however, they are by no means ſo large, ſo venomous, or ſo numerous. The general ſize of this animal does not exceed two or three inches; and its ſting is very ſeldom found to be fatal. Maupertius, who made ſeveral experiments on the ſcorpion of Languedoc, found it by no means ſo invariably dangerous as had till then been repreſented. He provoked one of them to ſting a dog, in three places of the belly, where the animal was without hair. In about an hour after, the poor animal ſeemed greatly ſwollen, and became very ſick: he then caſt up whatever he had in his bowels; and for about three hours continued vomiting a whiteſh liquid. The belly was always greatly ſwollen when the animal began to vomit; but this operation always ſeemed to abate the ſwelling; which alternately ſwelled, and was thus emptied, for three hours ſucceſſively. The poor animal after this fell into convulſions, bit the ground, dragged himſelf along upon his fore-feet, and at laſt died, five hours after being bitten. He was not partially ſwollen round the place which was bitten, as is uſual after the ſting of a waſp or a bee; but his whole body was inflated, and there only appeared a red ſpot on the places where he had been ſtung.

Some days after, however, the ſame experiment was tried upon another dog, and even with more aggravated cruelty: yet the dog ſeemed no way affected by the wounds; but, howling a little when he received them, continued alert and well after them; and ſoon after was ſet at liberty, without ſhowing the ſmalleſt ſymptoms of pain. So far was this poor creature from being terrified at the experiment, that he left his own maſter's houſe, to come to that of the philoſopher, where he had received more plentiful entertainment. The ſame experiment was tried by freſh ſcorpions upon ſeven other dogs, and upon three hens; but not the ſmalleſt deadly ſymptom was ſeen to enſue. From hence it appears, that many circumſtances, which are utterly unknown, muſt contribute to give efficacy to the ſcorpion's venom. Whether its food, long faſting, the ſeaſon, the nature of the veſſels it wounds, or its ſtate of maturity, contribute to or retard its malignity, is yet to be aſcertained by ſucceeding experiment. In the trials made by our philoſopher, he employed ſcorpions of both ſexes, newly caught, and ſeemingly vigorous and active. The ſucceſs of this experiment may ſerve to ſhew, that many of thoſe boaſted antidotes which are given for the cure of the ſcorpion's ſting, owe their ſucceſs rather to accident than their own efficacy. They only happened to cure when their ſting was no way dangerous; but in caſes of actual malignity, they might probably be utterly unſerviceable.

Scorpio. The scorpion of the tropical climates being much larger than the former, is probably much more venomous. Helbigius, however, who resided for many years in the east, assures us, that he was often stung by the scorpion, and never received any material injury from the wound: a painful tumour generally ensued; but he always cured it by rubbing the part with a piece of iron or stone, as he had seen the Indians practise before him, until the flesh became insensible. Seba, Moore, and Bosman, however, give a very different account of the scorpion's malignity; and assert, that, unless speedily relieved, the wound becomes fatal.

It is certain, that no animal in the creation seems endued with such an irascible nature. They have often been seen, when taken and put into a place of security, to exert all their rage against the sides of the glass-vessel that contained them. They will attempt to sting a stick, when put near them; and attack a mouse or a frog, while those animals are far from offering any injury. Maupertius put three scorpions and a mouse into the same vessel together, and they soon stung the little animal in different places. The mouse, thus assaulted, stood for some time upon the defensive, and at last killed them all, one after another. He tried this experiment, in order to see whether the mouse, after it had killed, would eat the scorpions; but the little quadruped seemed satisfied with the victory, and even survived the severity of the wounds it had received. Wolkamer tried the courage of the scorpion against the large spider and inclosed several of both kinds in glass vessels for that purpose. The success of this combat was very remarkable. The spider at first used all its efforts to immesh the scorpion in its web, which it immediately began spinning; but the scorpion rescued itself from the danger, by stinging its adversary to death: it soon after cut off, with its claws, all the legs of the spider, and then sucked all the internal parts at its leisure.—If the scorpion's skin had not been so hard, Wolkamer is of opinion that the spider would have obtained the victory; for he had often seen one of these spiders destroy a toad.

The fierce spirit of this animal is equally dangerous to its own species; for scorpions are the cruellest enemies to each other. Maupertius put about 100 of them together in the same glass; and they scarce come into contact when they began to exert all their rage in mutual destruction: there was nothing to be seen but one universal carnage, without any distinction of age or sex; so that in a few days there remained only 14, which had killed and devoured all the rest.

But their unnatural malignity is still more apparent in their cruelty to their offspring. He inclosed a female scorpion, big with young, in a glass vessel, and she was seen to devour them as fast as they were excluded: there was but one only of the number that escaped the general destruction, by taking refuge on the back of its parent; and this soon after revenged the cause of its brethren, by killing the old one in its turn.

Such is the terrible and unrelenting nature of this insect, which neither the bonds of society nor of nature can reclaim: it is even asserted, that, when driven to an extremity, the scorpion will often destroy itself. The following experiment was ineffectually tried by Maupertius: "But," says Mr Goldsmith, "I am so well assured of it by many eye-witnesses, who have seen it both in Italy and America, that I have no doubt remaining of its veracity. A scorpion, newly caught, is placed in the midst of a circle of burning charcoal, and thus an egress prevented on every side: the scorpion, as I am assured, runs for about a minute round the circle, in hopes of escaping; but finding that impossible, it stings itself on the back of the head; and in this manner the undaunted suicide instantly expires." Scorpio.

It is happy for mankind that these animals are thus destructive to each other; since otherwise they would multiply in so great a degree as to render some countries uninhabitable. The male and female of this insect are very easily distinguishable; the male being smaller and less hairy. The female brings forth her young alive, and perfect in their kind. Redi having bought a quantity of scorpions, selected the females, which, by their size and roughness, were easily distinguishable from the rest, and putting them in separate glass vessels, he kept them for some days without food. In about five days one of them brought forth 38 young ones, well-shaped, and of a milk-white colour, which changed every day more and more into a dark rusty hue. Another female, in a different vessel, brought forth 27 of the same colour; and the day following the young ones seemed all fixed to the back and belly of the female. For near a fortnight all these continued alive and well: but afterwards some of them died daily; until, in about a month, they all died except two.

Were it worth the trouble, these animals might be kept living as long as curiosity should think proper. Their chief food is worms and insects; and upon a proper supply of these, their lives might be lengthened to their natural extent. How long that may be, we are not told; but if we may argue from analogy, it cannot be less than seven or eight years; and perhaps, in the larger kind, double that duration. As they have somewhat the form of the lobster, so they resemble that animal in casting their shell, or more properly their skin; since it is softer by far than the covering of the lobster, and set with hairs, which grow from it in great abundance, particularly at the joinings. The young lie in the womb of the parent, each covered up in its own membrane, to the number of 40 or 50, and united to each other by an oblong thread, so as to exhibit altogether the form of a chaplet.

Such is the manner in which the common scorpion produces its young: but there is a scorpion of America, produced from the egg, in the manner of the spider. The eggs are no longer than pins points; and they are deposited in a web, which they spin from their bodies, and carry about with them, till they are hatched. As soon as the young ones are excluded from the shell, they get upon the back of the parent, who turns her tail over them, and defends them with her sting. It seems probable, therefore, that captivity produces that unnatural disposition in the scorpion which induces it to destroy is young; since, at liberty, it is found to protect them with such unceasing assiduity.

Scorpiurus || Scot.

SCORPIURUS, Caterpillars; a genus of decandria order, belonging to the diadelphia class of plants. There are four species, the most remarkable of which is the vermiculata, a native of Italy and Spain. It is an annual plant, with trailing herbaceous stalks, which at each joint have a spatular shaped leaf with a long foot-stalk. From the wings of the leaves come out the foot-stalks of the flowers, which sustain at the top one yellow butterfly flower, succeeded by a thick twisted pod having the size and appearance of a larger caterpillar, from whence it had this title. This has long been preserved in the gardens of this country, more on account of its odd shape than for any great beauty. It is propagated by sowing the seeds on a bed of light earth; and when the plants come up, they must be kept free from weeds and thinned, so that there may be a foot distance between them.

SORZONERA, Viper-grass; a genus of the polygamia æqualis order, belonging to the syngenesia class of plants.—The most remarkable species is the hispanica or common scorzonera, which is cultivated in the gardens of this country, both for culinary and medicinal purposes. The root is carrot-shaped, about the thickness of a finger, covered with a dark brown skin, is white within, and has a milky juice. The stalk rises three feet high, is smooth, branching at the top, and garnished with a few narrow leaves, whose base half embrace the stalk. The flowers are of a bright yellow colour, and terminate the stalks in scaly empalements composed of many narrow tongue-shaped hermaphrodite florets lying imbricatim over each other like the scales of fish, and are of a bright yellow colour. After these are decayed, the germen, which sits in the common empalements, turns to oblong cornered seeds, having a roundish ball of feathery down at the top. This plant is propagated by seeds; and must be carefully thinned and kept free from weeds, otherwise the plants will be weak.

The roots of scorzonera were formerly much celebrated for their alexipharmic virtues, and for throwing out the small-pox; but have now almost entirely lost their character: however, as they abound with an acrid juice they may sometimes be of use for strengthening the viscera, and promoting the fluid secretions.

SCOT, a customary contribution laid upon all subjects, according to their abilities. Whoever were assessed to any contribution, though not by equal proportions, were said to pay scot and lot.

Scot (Michael) of Balwirie, a learned Scottish author of the 13th century. This singular man made the tour of France and Germany; and was received with some distinction at the court of the emperor Frederic II. Having travelled enough to gratify his curiosity or his vanity, he returned to Scotland, and gave himself up to study and contemplation. He was skilled in languages; and, considering the age in which he lived, was no mean proficient in philosophy, mathematics, and medicine. He translated into Latin from the Arabic, the history of animals by the celebrated physician Avicenna. He published the whole works of Aristotle, with notes, and affected much to reason on the principles of that great philosopher. He wrote a book concerning *The secrets of nature*, in which he treats of generation, physiognomy, and the signs by which we judge of the temperaments of men and women. We have also a tract of his *On the nature of the sun and moon*. He here speaks of the *grand operation*, as it is termed by alchymists, and is exceedingly solicitous about the *projected powder* or the *philosopher's stone*. He likewise published what he calls *Mensa philosophica*, a treatise replete with astrology and chiromancy. He was much admired in his day; and was even suspected of magic; and had Roger Bacon and Cornelius Agrippa for his panegyrists.

Scot (Reginald), a judicious writer in the 16th century, was the younger son of Sir John Scot of Scot's-hall, near Smeethe in Kent. He studied at Hart-hall in the university of Oxford; after which he retired to Smeethe, where he lived a studious life, and died in 1599. He published, *The perfect platform of a Hop-garden*; and a book intitled, *The discovery of witchcraft*; in which he showed that all the relations concerning magicians and witches are chimerical. This work was not only censured by king James I. in his *Dæmonology*, but by several eminent divines; and all the copies of it that could be found were burnt.

SCOTAL, or Scotale, is where any officer of a forest keeps an ale-house within the forest, by colour of his office causing people come to his house, and there spend their money for fear of his displeasure. We find it mentioned in the charter of the forest, cap. 8. "Nullus forrestarius faciat *Scotallas*, vel garbas colligat, vel aliquam collectam faciat," &c. *Manwood*, 216.—The word is compounded of *scot* and *ale*, and by transposition of the words is otherwise called *alescot*.

SCOTIA, in architecture, a semicircular cavity or channel between the tores in the bases of columns.

SCOTISTS, a sect of school-divines and philosophers, thus called from their founder *J. Duns Scotus*, a Scottish cordelier, who maintained the immaculate conception of the virgin, or that she was born without original sin, in opposition to Thomas Aquinas and the Thomists.

SCOTLAND, the country of the Scots, or that part of Great Britan lying to the north of the Tweed; is situated between the 54th and 59th degrees of north latitude, and extends in length about 278 miles, and in some places near 180 in breadth; containing an area of 27,794 miles. On the south it is bounded by England; on the north, east, and west, by the Deucaledonian, German, and Irish seas.

Scot || Scotland.

Origin of the name.

It is extremely difficult to give any satisfactory account of the origin of the appellation of *Scots*, from which the country has derived its name. It has puzzled the most eminent antiquaries, whose conjectures serve rather to perplex than to clear up the difficulty. Nor is this to be wondered at, when Varro and Dionysius could not agree about the etymon of *Italia*, nor Plutarch and Solinus about that of *Rome*. All that we know with any degree of certainty, concerning the appellation of *Scot*, amounts to this—That it was at first a term of reproach, and consequently framed by enemies, rather than assumed by the nation distinguished by that name. The Highlanders, who were the genuine descendents of the ancient Scots, are absolutely strangers to the name, and have been so from the beginning of time. All those who speak the Gaelic language call themselves

Scotland. selves *Albanich* or *Gael*, and their country *Alba* or *Gaeldochd*.

The Picts, who possessed originally the northern and eastern, and in a later period also the more southern division, of North Britain, were at first more powerful than the Caledonians of the west. It is therefore probable, that the Picts, from a principle of malevolence and pride, were ready to traduce and ridicule their weaker neighbours of Argyle. These two nations spoke the same language, the Gaelic. In that language *Scot*, or *Scode* signifies a corner or small division of a country. Accordingly a corner of North Britain is the very name which Giraldus Cambrensis gives the little kingdom of Argyle, which the six sons of Muredus king of Ulster were said, according to his information, to have erected in Scotland. *Scot* in Gaelic is much the same with *little* or *contemptible* in English; and *Scotlan*, literally speaking, signifies a *small flock*; metaphorically, it stands for a small body of men. (*Dr Macpherson's Dissert.*)

Others observe, that in the same language the word *Scuit* signifies a *wanderer*, and suppose that this may have been the origin of the name of *Scot;* a conjecture which they think is countenanced by a passage in Ammianus Marcellinus, (l. xxvii.) who characterizes the men by the epithet of *roaming;* "per diversa vagantes." (*Mr Macpherson, and Mr Whitaker*).

All that we can say is, that for some one of the reasons couched under the above disparaging epithets, their malicious or sneering neighbours, the Picts or the Britons, may have given the appellation of *Scots* to the ancestors of the Scottish nation.

At what time the inhabitants of the west of Scotland came to be distinguished by this name is uncertain. Prophyrius the philosopher is the first who mentions them, about the year of the Christian æra 267; and towards the middle of the 4th century we find them mentioned with other British nations by Am. Marcellinus, in the passage above referred to.

2 And of the people. The origin of the Scots has been warmly disputed by many antiquaries of note; particularly by Mr Macpherson and Mr Whitaker. The first contends that they are of Caledonian, the latter that they are of Irish extraction. Each supports his position with such arguments and authorities, that an impartial inquirer is almost at a loss which of their opinions he ought to espouse. What appears most probable is, that they are both partly in the right and partly in the wrong.—The Scots seem to have been originally descended from Britons of the south, or from Caledonians, who being pressed forward by new colonies from Gaul, till they came to the western shore of Britain, passed over from thence into Ireland, probably about 100 years before the Christian æra. About the year of Christ 320, they returned again into Britain; or at least a large colony of them, under the conduct of Fergus, and settled on the western coasts of Caledonia, from whence they had formerly migrated. As early as the year 340, we find them associated with the Picts in their expeditions to the Roman province, and for 90 or 100 years after, their ravages are frequently mentioned by the Roman and British writers. (*Whitaker's hist. of the Britons*, 284).

The territory of the ancient Scots, before the annexation of Pictavia, comprehended all that side of Caledonia which lies along the north and western ocean, from the frith of Clyde to the Orkneys. Towards the east, their dominions were divided from the Pictish territories by those high mountains which run from Dumbarton to the frith of Tain.—In process of time the Scots, under the reign of Kenneth the son of Alpin, became so powerful as to subdue entirely their neighbours the Picts, and gave their own denomination to all Caledonia, Pictavia, and Valentia; all which are still comprehended under the general name of *Scotland*. Scotland. 3 Extent of territory.

Like those of all other nations, the historians of Scotland assume too great an antiquity for their countrymen; however, they are much less extravagant in this respect than many others. By them the reign of Fergus, the first Scots monarch, is placed in 330 B. C. He was the son of Ferchard an Irish prince; and is said to have been called into Scotland by the Caledonians to assist them against the southern Britons, with whom they were then at war. Having landed on one of the Æbudæ or western isles, he had a conference with the Caledonians, whose language and manners he found to be the same with those of his countrymen. Having then landed in Scotland, and taken the field at the head of his new allies, he engaged the Britons under their king Coilus. Victory declared in favour of the Scots; Coilus was defeated and killed, and from him the province of Kyle first received its name. After this Fergus was declared king of the Scots, with the solemnity of an oath. But he did not long enjoy his new dignity: for having been recalled to Ireland to quiet some commotions there, he was drowned, by a sudden tempest, on his return, at a place in Ireland called from him *Knock-Fergus*, or *Carrick-Fergus; i. e.* Fergus's Rock. 4 Fergus the first king of Scotland.

Fergus was succeeded by his brother Feritharis, to the prejudice of his two sons Ferlegus and Mainus. This, we are told by the ancient Scottish writers, was done in conformity to a law, by which it was ordained, that whilst the children of their kings were infants, one of their relations who was reckoned the most fit for the government should be raised to the throne, but that after his death the sovereignty should return to the sons of the former king. This was the case at present; however, Ferlegus, impatient for the crown, made a formal demand of it from his uncle. The dispute being referred to an assembly of the states, Feritharis was confirmed on the throne; and Ferlegus would have been condemned for sedition, had not his uncle interposed. However, he was imprisoned; but having made his escape, he fled first to the Picts, and then to the Britons, in order to excite them against Feritharis. With both he failed in accomplishing his purpose: but in the mean time his uncle being stabbed in his bed, the suspicion fell upon Ferlegus, who was thereupon set aside from the succession, and died in obscurity, the throne being conferred upon his brother Mainus. 5 Collateral succession in use among the Scots.

The reigns of Mainus, Dornadil, and Nothat, afford nothing remarkable, excepting that Donadil, who was a great hunter, instituted the laws of hunting in this country. Nothat was killed in a battle with Reuther his nephew; upon which the latter was immediately in-

Scotland. invested with the sovereignty. A bloody war ensued, in which both parties were reduced to the last extremity, and glad at length to conclude a peace. The fate of Reuther is not known; but it is generally supposed that he ended his life in the year 187 B. C.

The reigns of Reutha, Thereus, Jasina, and Finnan, afford no remarkable transactions, excepting that under the last we find the first beginnings of the Scottish parliament; as he enacted, that kings should do nothing without the consent of their grand council.—After him followed Duritus, Even, and Gillus, whose reigns afford nothing of consequence. Even II. the nephew of Finnan, who succeeded Gillus, is said to have built the towns of Innerlochy and Invernes. He overcame Belus king of the Orkneys, who had invaded Scotland; and was succeeded by his son Eder, in whose time Julius Cæsar invaded the southern parts of this island. Eder is said to have assisted the Britons against the common enemy. He was succeeded, after a reign of 48 years, by his son Even III. who is represented as a monster of cruelty and lust. Not content with having 100 noble concubines of his own, he made a law that a man might marry as many wives as he could maintain; and that the king should have the first night with every noble bride, and the nobles the like with the daughters of their tenants. Nor was he less remarkable for his cruelty and rapaciousness, which at last occasioned a rebellion; and Even was dethroned, imprisoned, and put to death.

6 A scandalous law concerning marriages.

We meet with nothing memorable in the history of Scotland from this time to that of Agricola, excepting that the famous Caractacus, who was carried prisoner to Rome, is said to have been one of the Scottish monarchs; which, however, seems not very probable, as the Romans in his time had not penetrated near so far as Scotland. The invasion of Agricola happened during the reign of Corbred, called by the Roman historians *Galgacus*. Agricola having completed the conquest of the southern parts, and in a great measure civilized the inhabitants, formed a like plan with regard to Scotland. It is probable, that at this time the Caledonians or Scots were rendered more formidable than ever they had been, by the accession of great numbers from the south; for though the Romans had civilized the greatest part, it cannot be doubted that many of those savage warriors, disdaining the pleasures of a peaceable life, would retire to the northward, where the martial disposition of the Scots would better suit their inclination. The utmost efforts of valour, however, were not proof against the discipline of the Roman troops and the experience of their commander. In the third year Agricola had penetrated as far as the river Tay; but the particulars of his progress are not recorded. The following year he built a line of forts between the friths of Forth and Clyde, to exclude the Caledonians from the southern parts of the island; and the year after, he subdued those parts which lay to the south and west of his forts, namely, the counties of Galloway, Cantyre, and Argyle, which at that time were inhabited by a people called *Cangi*, though some historians place these as far south as Cheshire in England, and the north part of Wales. This supposition, however, can scarcely be admitted, when we consider that Tacitus expressly informs us, that the people whom Agricola conquered had never before been known to the Romans. Scotland.

7 Invasion of Scotland by Agricola.

Agricola still pursued the same prudent measures by which he had already secured the possession of such a large tract of country, that is, advancing but slowly, and building forts as he advanced, in order to keep the people in obedience. The Scots, though commanded by their king who is said to have been well acquainted with the manner of fighting and discipline of the Romans, were yet obliged to retreat; but at last, finding that the enemy made such progress as endangered the subjugation of the whole country, he resolved to cut off their communication with the southern parts, and likewise to prevent all possibility of a retreat by sea. Agricola, though solicited by some of his officers, refused to retreat; but divided his troops into three bodies, having a communication with each other. Upon this, Galgacus resolved to attack the weakest of the three, which consisted only of the ninth legion, and lay at that time, as is said, at a place called *Lobore*, about two miles from Loch-Leven in Fife. The attack was made in the night: and as the Romans were both unprepared and inferior in number, the Scots penetrated into the heart of their camp, and were making a great slaughter, when Agricola detached some light-armed troops to their assistance; by whom the Caledonians in their turn were routed, and forced to fly to the marshes and inaccessible places, where the enemy could not follow them.

This engagement has been magnified by the Roman historians into a victory, though it can scarce be admitted from the testimonies of other historians. The Romans, however, certainly advanced very considerably, and the Scots as constantly retreated, till they came to the foot of the Grampian mountains, where the Caledonians resolved to make their last stand. In the eighth year of the war, Agricola advanced to the foot of the mountains, where he found the enemy ready to receive him. Tacitus has given us a speech of Galgacus, which he has undoubtedly fabricated for him, in which he sets forth the aspiring disposition of the Romans, and encourages his countrymen to defend themselves vigorously as knowing that every thing valuable was at stake. A desperate engagement accordingly ensued. In the beginning, the Britons had the advantage, by the dexterous management of their bucklers: but Agricola having ordered three Tungrian and two Batavian cohorts, armed with short swords, and embossed bucklers terminating in a point, to attack the Scots, who were armed with long swords, the latter soon found these weapons useless in a close encounter; and as their bucklers only covered a small part of their bodies, they were easily cut in pieces by their adversaries. The most forward of their cavalry and charioteers fell back upon their infantry, and disordered the centre: but, the Britons endeavouring to out-flank their enemies, the Roman general opposed them with his horse; and the Caledonians were at last routed with great slaughter, and forced to fly into the woods, whither the Romans pursued with so little caution that numbers of them were cut off. Agricola, however, having ordered his troops to proceed more regularly, prevented the Scots from attacking and cutting off his men in separate parties as they had expected; so

8 Great victory gained by the Romans.

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so that this victory proved the greatest stroke to the Caledonians that they had hitherto received. This battle is supposed by some to have been fought in Strathern, half a mile south from the kirk of Comerie; but others imagine the place to have been near Fortingal-Camp, a place somewhat farther on the other side of the Tay.

Great as this victory was, it seems not to have been productive of any solid or lasting advantage to the Romans; since we find that Agricola, instead of putting an end to the war by the immediate conquest of all Caledonia, retreated into the country of the Foresti, commonly supposed to be Forfarshire, though others imagine it to have been the county of Fife. Here he received hostages from part of the Caledonians; and ordered part of his fleet to sail round Britain, that they might discover whether it was an island or a continent. The Romans no sooner had left that part of the country, than the Caledonians demolished all the forts they had raised: and Agricola being soon after recalled by Domitian, the further progress of the Roman arms was stopped; Galgacus proving superior to any of the successors of that general.

From the time of Agricola to that of Adrian, we know little of the affairs of Scotland, excepting that during this interval the Scots must have entirely driven the Romans out of their country, and reconquered all that tract which lay between Agricola's chain of forts and Carlisle on the west, and Newcastle or Tinmouth-Bar on the east; which Adrian, on visiting Britain, thought proper to fix as the northern boundary of the Roman dominions. Here he built a wall of turf between the mouth of the Tine and the Solway frith, with a view to shout out the barbarians; which, however, did not answer the purpose, nor indeed could it be thought to do so, as it was only built of turf, and guarded by no more than 18,000 men, who could not be supposed a sufficient force to defend such an extent of fortification.

9 Wall built by Adrian.

On the departure of Adrian, he left Julius Severus as his lieutenant: but this man, though one the greatest commanders of his age, did not carry his arms to the northward of Adrian's wall; and this long interval of peace gave so much security to Mogold the Scottish monarch, that he degenerated into a tyrant, and was murdered by some of his noblemen. The only instance of his tyranny which is produced, however, is a law by which it was enacted, that the estates of such as were condemned should be forfeited to his exchequer, without any part thereof being allotted to their wives and children; an act which subsists almost in its full force to this day in Great Britain and the best regulated European governments.

In the reign of Antoninus Pius, the proprætor Lollius Urbius drove the Scots far to the northward, and repaired the chain of forts built by Agricola, which lay between the Carron on the Frith of Forth and Dunglass on the Clyde. These were joined together by turf walls, and formed a much better defence than the wall of Adrian. However, after the death of Antoninus, Commodus having recalled Calpurnius Agricola, an able commander, who kept the Scots in awe, a more dangerous war broke out than had ever been experienced by the Romans in that quarter. The Scots having passed the wall, put all the Romans they could meet with to the sword; but they were soon repulsed by Ulpius Marcellus, a general of consummate abilities, whom Commodus sent into the island.—In a short time the tyrant also recalled this able commander. After his departure the Roman discipline in Britain suffered a total relaxation; the soldiery grew mutinous, and great disorders ensued: but these were all happily removed by the arrival of Clodius Albinus, a person of great skill and experience in military affairs. His presence for some time restrained the Scots within proper bounds: but a civil war breaking out between him and Severus, Albinus crossed over to the continent with the greatest part of the Roman forces in Britain; and meeting his antagonist at Lyons, a dreadful battle ensued, in which Albinus was utterly defeated, and his army cut in pieces. See Rome n° 375.

10 Wars of Severus with the Scots.

The absence of the Roman forces gave encouragement to the Scots to renew their depredations, which they did with such success, that the emperor became apprehensive of losing the whole island; on which determined to go in person and quell these troublesome enemies. The army he collected upon this occasion was far more numerous than any the Romans had ever sent into Britain; and being commanded by such an able general as Severus, it may easily be supposed that the Scots must have beeen very hard pressed. The particulars of this important expedition are very imperfectly related; however, we are assured that Severus lost a vast number of men, it is said not less than 50,000, in his march through Scotland. Notwithstanding, he penetrated, it is said, to the most northern extremity of the island, and obliged the enemy to yield up their arms. On his return, he built a much stronger fortification to secure the frontiers against the enemy than had ever had been done before, and which in some places coincided with Adrian's wall, but extended farther at each end. But in the mean time the Scots, provoked by the brutality of the emperor's son Caracalla, whom he had left regent in his absence, again took arms: on which Severus himself took the field, with a design, as it would seem, to extirpate the whole nation; for he gave orders to his soldiers "not to spare even child in the mother's belly." The event of his furious declaration is unknown: but in all probability the death of the emperor, which happened soon after, put a stop to the execution of this revenge; and it is certain that his son Caracalla, who succeeded Severus, ratified the peace with the Scots.

During all these important transactions, Scotland was governed by Donald I. who is said to have been the first Christian king of this country. From him to the time of Eugene I. no remarkable occurrence offers; but under the latter the Roman and Pictish forces were united against the Scots. The Picts were commmanded by their king named *Hargust*; and the Romans by Maximus, who murdered Valentinian III. and afterwards assumed the empire*. The allies defeated Eugene in the county of Galloway; but Maximus being obliged to return southward on account of an insurrection, the Picts were in their turn defeated by the Scots. Next year, however, Maximus marched against the Scots; who being now reduced to extremity, brought into the field not only all the men capable of bearing arms, but the women also. In this engagement the Picts would have been utterly defeated, had not they been supported by the Romans; but Eugene being killed

11 Expulsion of the Scots by Maximus.

* See *Rome*, n° 536.

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killed, with the greatest part of his nobility, the Scots were defeated; and so well did the conquerors improve their victory, that their antagonists were at last totally driven out of the country. Some of them took refuge in the the Ædubæ islands, and some in Scandinavia and Ireland, from whence they made frequent descents upon Scotland. The Picts were at first mightily pleased with the victory they had gained over their antagonists: but being commanded to adopt the laws of the Romans, and to choose no king who was not sent them from Rome, they began to repent of their having contributed to the expulsion of the Scots; and in the year 421, when Ataulphus king of the Goths sent over a body of exiled Scots to Britain, under Fergus a descendant of the royal family of Scotland, the Picts immediately joined them against the common enemy. The consequence of this was, that the Britons were pushed to the last extremity; and the Romans being obliged, on account of the inundation of northern Barbarians who poured in upon them, to recall their forces from Britain, the inhabitants were reduced to the most miserable situation that can be imagined. In the time of Fergus II. they were obliged to give up all the country which lies to the north of Adrian's wall; and in the reign of Grimus or Graham, the successor of Fergus, they were obliged to write that remarkable letter to Rome, intitled "The groans of the Britons †." This however, not being attended with success, the Britons were obliged to call in the Saxons to their assistance. By these new allies the Scots were defeated in a great battle, and their king (Eugene) drowned in the river Humber; which put a stop for some time to these incursions.

12 They return under Fergus II.

† See *England*, No 27.

Hitherto we have seen the Scots very formidable enemies to the southern Britons. But when the Saxons became the enemies of the Britons, the Scots joined in a strict alliance with the latter; and the famous king Arthur is said to have been assisted by the Scots in all his battles with the Saxons: neither does it appear that this league was ever was dissolved again, though the united efforts of the Scots and Britons were not sufficient to preserve the independency of the latter.

13 War with the Picts.

The next remarkable event in the history of Scotland is the war with the Picts, which took place in the ninth century. The occasion of the quarrel was, that Dongal king of Scotland pretended a right to the Pictish throne; which, however, was rejected by the Picts: upon which both parties had recourse to arms; but when every thing was ready for the campaign, Dongal was drowned in crossing the river Spey.

At this time the dominions of the Scots comprehended the western islands, together with the counties of Argyle, Knapdale, Kyle, Kintyre, Lochaber, and a part of Braidalbane; while the Picts possessed all the rest of Scotland, and part of Northumberland; so that the Picts seem to have been by much the most powerful people of the two. However, the Scots appear to have been superior in military skill; for Alpin, the successor of Dongal, having engaged the Pictish army near Forfar, after an obstinate engagement defeated them, and killed their king, though not without the loss of a great number of his own men. The Picts chose Brudus, the son of their former king, to succeed him; but soon after deposed and put him to death, on account of his stupidity and indolence. His brother Kenneth shared the same fate on account of his cowardice; till at last another Brudus, a brave and spirited prince, ascended the throne. Having raised a powerful army, he began with offering terms of peace to the Scots; which, however, Alpin rejected, and insisted upon a total surrender of his crown. Brudus on this endeavoured to procure the assistance of Edwin king of Northumberland. Edwin accepted the money; but pretending to be engaged in other wars, he refused the assistance which he at first promised. Brudus, not dismayed by this disappointment, marched resolutely against his enemies; and the two armies came to an engagement near Dundee. The superior skill of the Scots in military affairs was about to have decided the victory in their favour, when Brudus bethought himself of the following stratagem to preserve his army from destruction. He caused all the attendants, and even the women who attended his army, to assemble and shew themselves at a distance as a powerful reinforcement coming to the Picts. This struck the Scots with such a panic, that all the efforts of Alpin could not recover them; and they were accordingly defeated with great slaughter. Alpin himself was taken prisoner, and soon after beheaded by order of the conqueror. This execution happened at a place now called *Pit-alpy*, but in former times *Bas-alpin*, which in the Gaelic language signifies the *death of Alpin*. His head was afterwards stuck upon a pole, and exposed on a wall.

14 The Scots defeated and the king killed.

Alpin was succeeded by his son Kenneth II. who being a brave and enterprising prince, resolved to take a most severe revenge for his father's death. The Scots, however, were so dispirited by their late defeat, that they were exceedingly averse to any renewal of the war: while, on the other hand, the Picts were so much elated, that they made a law by which it became death for any man to propose peace with the Scots, whom they resolved to exterminate; and some of the nobility were expelled the council on account of their opposition to this law. The consequence of this was, that civil dissensions took place among them, and a bloody battle was fought between the opposite parties before the Scots had thought of making any farther resistance.

By these distractions Brudus, who had in vain endeavoured to appease them, was so much affected, that he died of grief; and was succeeded by his brother Drusken.—The new prince also failed in his endeavours to accommodate the civil differences: so that the Scots, by gaining so much respite, at last began to recover from their consternation; and some of them having ventured into the Pictish territories, carried off Alpin's head from the capital of their dominions, supposed to have been Abernethy. In the mean time Kenneth found means to gain over the nobility to his side by the following stratagem; which, however ridiculous, is not incredible, if we consider the barbarism and superstition of that age. Having invited them to an intertainment, the king introduced into the hall where they slept, a person cloathed in a robe made of the skins of fishes, which made such a luminous appearance in the dark, that he was mistaken for an angel or some supernatural messenger. To add to the terror of those who saw him, he denounced, through a speaking trumpet, the most terrible judgements, if war was not immediately declared against the Picts, the murderers of

15 Stratagem of Kenneth to renew the war.

Scotland. of the late king. In consequence of this celestial admonition, war was immediately renewed with great vigour. The Picts were not deficient in their preparations, and had now procured some assistance from England. The first battle was fought near Stirling; where the Picts, being deserted by their English auxiliaries, were utterly defeated. Drusken escaped by the swiftness of his horse, and a few days after made application to Kenneth for a cessation of hostilities; but as the Scottish monarch demanded a surrender of all the Pictish dominions, the treaty was instantly broken off. Kenneth pursued his good fortune, and conquered the counties of Merns, Angus, and Fife; but as he marched against Stirling, he received intelligence that these counties had again revolted and cut off all the garrisons which he had left, and that Drusken was at the head of a considerable army in these parts. On this Kenneth hastened to oppose him, and a negociation again took place. The result was equally unfavourable with the rest. Kenneth insisted on an absolute surrender of the counties of Fife, Merns, and Angus; which being refused, both parties prepared for a decisive battle. The engagement was very bloody and desperate, the Picts fighting like men in despair. Drusken renewed the battle seven times; but at last was entirely defeated and killed, and the counties in dispute became the immediate property of the conqueror.

Kenneth did not fail to improve his victory, by reducing the rest of the Pictish territories; which he is said to have done with the greatest cruelty, and even to have totally exterminated the inhabitants. The capital, called *Camelon*, (supposed to have been Abernethy), held out four months; but was at last taken by surprise, and every living creature destroyed. This was followed by the reduction of the Maiden Castle, now that of Edinburgh; which was abandoned by the garrison, who fled to Northumberland.

After the reduction of these important places, the rest of the country made no great resistance, and Kenneth became master of all the kingdom of Scotland in the present extent of the word; so that he is justly to be esteemed the true founder of the Scottish monarchy. Besides this war with the Picts, Kenneth is said to have been successful against the Saxons, though of these wars we have very little account. Having reigned 16 years in peace after his subjugation of the Picts, and composed a code of laws for the good of his people, Kenneth died of a fistula, at Fort Teviot, near Dupplin in Perthshire. Before his time the seat of Scots government had been in Argyleshire; but he removed it to Scone, by transferring thither the famous black stone supposed to be the palladium of Scotland, and which was afterwards carried off by Edward I. of England, and lodged in Westminster abbey.

Kenneth was succeeded by his brother Donald, who is represented as a man of the worst character; so that the remaining Picts who had fled out of Scotland were encouraged to apply to the Saxons for assistance, promising to make Scotland tributary to the Saxon power after it should be conquered. This proposal was accepted; and the confederates invaded Scotland with a powerful army, and took the town of Berwick; however, they were soon after defeated by Donald, who took also their ships and provisions. This capture proved their ruin; for some of the ships being loaden with wine, the Scots indulged themselves so much with that liquor, that they became incapable of defending themselves; the consequence of this was, that the confederates rallying their troops, attacked them in that state of intoxication. The Scots were defeated with excessive slaughter. Twenty thousand of the common soldiers lay dead on the spot; the king and his principal nobility were taken prisoners; and all the country from the Tweed to the Forth became the property of the conquerors. Still, however, the confederates found themselves unable to pursue their victory farther; and a peace was concluded, on condition that the Saxons should become masters of all the conquered country. Thus the Forth and Clyde became the southern boundaries of the Scottish dominions. It was agreed that the Forth should from that time forward be called the *Scots Sea;* and it was made capital for any Scotsman to set his foot on English ground. They were to erect no forts near the English confines, to pay an annual tribute of a thousand pounds, and to give up 60 sons of their chief nobility as hostages. A mint was erected by the Saxon prince named *Osbreth*, at Stirling; and a cross raised on the bridge at that place, with the following inscription, implying that this place was the boundary between Scotland and England:

16 The Scots defeated by the Saxons.

Anglos a Scotis separat crux ista remotis:
Arma hic stant Bruti, stant Scoti sub hac cruce tuti.

After the conclusion of this treaty, so humiliating to the Scots, the Picts, finding that their interest had been entirely neglected, fled to Norway, while those who remained in England were massacred. Donald shared the common fate of unfortunate princes, being dethroned and shut up in prison, where he at last put an end to his own life in the year 858.—In justice to this unhappy monarch, however, it must be observed, that the character of Donald, and indeed the whole account of these transactions, rests on the credit of a single author, namely Boece; and that other writers represent Donald as a hero, and successful in his wars: but the obscurity in which the whole of this period of Scottish history is involved, renders it impossible to determine any thing satisfactory concerning these matters.

Donald was succeeded by his nephew Constantine, the Son of Kenneth Mac Alpin, in whose reign Scotland was first invaded by the Danes, who proved such formidable enemies to the English. This invasion is said to have been occasioned by some exiled Picts who fled to Denmark, where they prevailed upon the king of that country to send his two brothers, Hungar and Hubba, to recover the Pictish dominions from Constantine. These princes landed on the coast of Fife, where they committed the most horrid barbarities, not sparing even the ecclesiastics who had taken refuge in the island of May at the mouth of the Forth. Constantine defeated one of the Danish armies commanded by Hubba, near the water of Leven; but was himself defeated and taken prisoner by Hungar, who caused him to be beheaded at a place since called the *Devils Cave*, in the year 874.

17 And by the Danes.

This unfortunate action cost the Scots 10,000 men: but the Danes seem not to have purchased their victory very easily, as they were obliged immediately after-

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afterwards to abandon their conquests, and retire to their own country. However, the many Danish monuments that are still to be seen in Fife, leave no room to doubt that many bloody scenes have been acted here between the Scots and Danes besides that above mentioned.

Constantine was succeeded by his brother Eth, surnamed the *Swift-footed*, from his agility. Concerning him we find nothing memorable; indeed the accounts are so confused and contradictory, that it is impossible to form any decisive opinion concerning the transactions of this reign. All agree, however, that it was but short; and that he was succeeded by Gregory the son of Dongal, cotemporory with Alfred of England, and that both princes deservedly acquired the name of *Great*. The Danes at their departure had left the Picts in possession of Fife. Against them Gregory immediately marched, and quickly drove them into the north of England, where their confederates were already masters of Northumberland and York. In their way thither they threw a garrison into the town of Berwick; but this was presently reduced by Gregory, who put to the sword all the Danes, but spared the lives of the Picts. From Berwick Gregory pursued the Danes into Northumberland, where he defeated them; and passed the winter in Berwick. He then marched against the Cumbrians, who being mostly Picts, were in alliance with the Danes. Them he easily overcame, and obliged to yield up all the lands they had formerly possessed belonging to the Scots, at the same time that he agreed to protect them from the power of the Danes. In a short time, however, Constantine the king of the Cumbrians violated the convention he had made, and invaded Annandale; but was defeated and killed by Gregory near Lochmaben. After this victory Gregory entirely reduced the counties of Cumberland and Westmoreland, which, it is said, were ceded to him by Alfred the Great; and indeed the situation of Alfred's affairs at this time renders such a cession by no means improbable.

18 Exploits of Gregory the Great.

We next find Gregory engaged in a war with the Irish, on account of his supporting Donach, an Irish prince, against two rebellious noblemen. The Irish were the first aggressors, and invaded Galloway; but being repulsed with great loss, Gregory went over to Ireland in person, where the two chieftains who had been enemies to each other before, now joined their forces in order to oppose the common enemy. The first engagement proved fatal to one of their chiefs named *Brian*, who was killed with a great number of his followers. After this victory Gregory reduced Dundalk and Drogheda. On his way to Dublin, he was opposed by a chieftain named *Corneil*, who shared the fate of his confederate; being also killed, and his army entirely defeated. Gregory then became guardian to the young prince whom he came to assist, appointed a regency, and obliged them to swear that that they would never admit into the country either a Dane or an Englishman without his consent. Having then placed garrisons in the strongest fortresses, he returned to Scotland, where he built the city of Aberdeen; and died in the year 892, at his castle of Dundore in the Garioch.

19 Donald III.

Gregory was succeeded by Donald III. the son of Constantine, who imitated the virtues of his predecessor. At that time the Scots historians unanimously agree that Northumberland was in the hands of their countrymen; while the English as unanimously affirm, that it was subject to the Danes, who paid homage to Alfred. Be this as it will, however, Donald continued to live on good terms with the English monarch, and sent him a body of forces, who proved of considerable advantage to him in his wars with the Danes. The reign of Donald was but short; for having marched against some robbers, (probably no other than the Danes) who had invaded and ravaged the counties of Murray and Ross, he died at Forres soon after having defeated and subdued them in the year 903. He was succeeded by Constantine III. the son of Eth the swift-footed, concerning whom the most remarkable particular we find related is his entering into an alliance with the Danes against the English. The occasion of this confederacy is said to have been, that the English monarch, Edward the Elder, finding the Scots in possession of the northern counties of England, made such extravagant demands upon Constantine as obliged him to ally with the Danes in order to preserve his dominions in security. However, the league subsisted only for two years; after which the Danes found it more for their advantage to resume their ancient friendship with the English.

20 Constantine III. enters into an alliance with the Danes against England.

As soon as Constantine had concluded the treaty with the Danes, he appointed the presumptive heir to the Scottish crown, Malcolm, or, according to some, Eugene the son of the late king Donald, prince of the southern counties, on condition of his defending them against the attacks of the English. The young prince had soon an opportunity of exerting his valour: but not behaving with the requisite caution, he had the misfortune to be defeated, with the loss of almost all his army, he himself being carried woundedout of the field; and in consequence of this disaster, Constantine was obliged to do homage to Edward for the possessions he had to the southward of the Scots boundary.

In the beginning of the reign of Athelstan the son of Edward the Elder, the northern Danes were encouraged by some conspiracies formed against that monarch, to throw off the yoke; and their success was such, that Athelstan thought proper to enter into a treaty with Sithric the Danish chief, and to give him his daughter in marriage. Sithric, however, did not long survive his nuptials; and his son Guthred, endeavouring to throw off the English yoke, was defeated, and obliged to fly into Scotland. This brought on a series of hostilities between the Scots and English, which in the year 938 issued in a general engagement. At this time the Scots, Irish, Cumbrians, and Danes, were confederated against the English. The Scots were commanded by their king Constantine, the Irish by Anlaf the brother of Guthred the Danish prince, the Cumbrians by their own soverign, and the Danes by Froda. The generals of Athelstan were Edmund his brother, and Turketil his favourite. The English attacked the entrenchments of the confederates, where the chief resistance they met with was from the Scots. Constantine was in the utmost danger of being killed or taken prisoner, but was rescued by the bravery of his soldiers: however, after a most obstinate engagement, the confederates were defeated with such slaughter, that the slain are said to have

21 Is utterly defeated by the English.

Scotland. have been *innumerable*. The consequence of this victory was, that the Scots were deprived of all their possessions to the southward of the Forth; and Constantine, quite dispirited with his misfortune, resigned the crown to Malcolm, and retired to the monastery of the Culdees at St Andrews, where he died five years after in 943.

The distresses which the English sustained in their subsequent wars with the Danes gave the Scots an opportunity of retrieving their affairs; and in the year 944, we find Malcolm, the successor of Constantine, invested with the sovereignty of Northumberland, on condition of his holding it as fief of the crown of England, and assisting in defence of the northern border. Soon after the conclusion of this treaty Malcolm died, and was succeeded by his son Indulfus. In his reign the Danes became extremely formidable by their invasions, which they now renewed with greater fury than ever, being exasperated by the friendship subsisting between the Scots and English monarchs. Their first defeat was upon East Lothian, where they were soon expelled, but crossed over to Fife. Here they were a second time defeated, and driven out; and so well had Indulfus taken care to guard the coasts, that they could not find an opportunity of landing; till having seemed to steer towards their own country, the Scots were thrown off their guard, and the Danes on a sudden made good their landing at Cullen in Banffshire. Here Indulfus soon came up with them, attacked their camp, and drove them towards their ships; but was killed in an ambuscade, into which he fell during the pursuit. He was succeed by Duffus, to whom historians give an excellent character; but, after a reign of five years, he was murdered, in the year 965. He was succeeded by Culen the son of Indulfus, who had been nominated prince of Cumberland in his father's life-time, as heir apparent to the throne. He is represented as a very degenerate prince; and is said to have given himself up to sensuality in a manner almost incredible, being guilty of incontinence not only with women of all ranks, but even with his own sisters and daughters. The people in the mean time were fleeced, in order to support the extravagance and luxury of their prince. In consequence of this, an assembly of the states was convened at Scone for the resettling of the government; but on his way thither Culen was assassinated, near the village of Methven, by Rohard, thane or sheriff of Fife, whose daughter the king had debauched.

22 New invasions of the Danes.

23 Kenneth III a wise and valiant prince.

The provocations which Culen had given to his nobility seem to have rendered them totally untractable and licentious; which gave an occasion to a remarkable revolution in the reign of Kenneth III. who succeeded Culen. This prince, being a man of great resolution, began with relieving the common people from the oppressions of the nobility, which were now intolerable; and this plan he pursued with so much success, that, having nothing to fear from the great barons, he ordered them to appear before him at Lanerk; but the greatest part, conscious of their demerits, did not attend. The king so well dissembled his displeasure, that those who came were quite charmed with his affability, and the noble entertainment he gave them; in consequence of which, when an assembly was called next year, the guilty were encouraged to appear as well as the innocent. No sooner had this assembly met, however, than the place of meeting was beset with armed men. The king then informed them that none had any thing to apprehend excepting such as had been notorious offenders; and these he ordered to be immediately taken into custody, telling them, that their submitting to public justice must be the price of their liberty. They were obliged to accept the king's offer, and the criminals were accordingly punished according to their deserts.

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About this time Edgar, king of England, finding himself hard pressed by the Danes, found means to unite the king of Scotland and the prince of Cumberland along with himself in a treaty against the Danes; which gave occasion to a report that Kenneth had become tributary to the king of England. This, however, is utterly denied by all the Scots historians; who affirm that Kenneth cultivated a good correspondence with Edgar, as well because he expected assistance in defending his coasts, as because he intended entirely to alter the mode of succession to the throne. About this time the Danes made a dreadful invasion. Their original intention seems to have been to land on some part of the English coasts; but finding them, probably, too well guarded, they landed at Montrose in Scotland, committing every where the most dreadful ravages. Kenneth at that time was at Stirling, and quite unprepared; however, having collected an handful of troops, he cut off many of the enemy as they were straggling up and down, but could not prevent them from besieging Perth. Nevertheless, as the king's army constantly increased, he resolved to give the enemy battle. The scene of this action was at Loncarty, near Perth. The king is said to have offered ten pounds in silver, or the value of it in land, for the head of every Dane which should be brought him; and an immunity from all taxes to the soldiers who served in his army, provided they should be victorious: but, notwithstanding the utmost efforts of the Scots, their enemies fought so desperately, that Kenneth's army must have been totally defeated, had not the fugitives been stopped by a yeoman and his two sons of the name of *Hay*, who were coming up to the battle, armed with such rustic weapons as their condition in life afforded. Buchanan and Boece inform us, that these country-men were ploughing in a field hard by the scene of action, and perceiving that their countrymen fled, they loosed their oxen, and made use of the yokes as weapons, with which they first obliged their countrymen to stand, and then annoyed their enemies. The fight was now renewed with such fury on the part of the Scots, that the Danes were utterly defeated; and, after the battle, the king rewarded Hay with the barony of Errol in the Carse of Gowrie, ennobled his family, and gave them an armorial bearing alluding to the rustic weapons with which they had atchieved this glorious exploit.

24 Defeats the Danes.

25 Rise of the family of Errol.

In the year 994, Kenneth was murdered at the instigation of a lady named *Fenella*, whose son he had caused to be put to death. The murder was perpetrated in Fenella's castle, where she had persuaded the king to pay her a visit. His attendants waited long near the place; but being at length tired out, they broke open the doors, and found their king murdered: upon which they laid the castle in ashes; but Fenella

26 Kenneth murdered.

Scotland. escaped by a postern. The throne was then seized by an usurper named *Constantine;* who, being killed in battle after a reign of a year and an half, was succeeded by Grime the grandson of king Duffus; and he again was defeated and killed by Malcolm the son of Kenneth, the lawful heir of the Scottish throne. After this victory, however, Malcolm did not immediately assume the sovereignty; but asked the crown from the nobles, in consequence of a law passed in the reign of Kenneth, by which the succession to the throne of Scotland became hereditary. This they immediately granted, and Malcolm was accordingly crowned king. He joined himself in strict alliance with the king of England; and proved so successful against the Danes in England, that Sweno their king resolved to direct his whole force against him by an invasion of Scotland. His first attempt, however, proved very unsuccessful; all his soldiers being cut in pieces, except some few who escaped to their ships, while the loss of the Scots amounted to no more than 30 men. But in the mean time, Duncan, prince of Cumberland, having neglected to pay his homage to the king of England, the latter invaded that country in conjunction with the Danes. Malcolm took the field against them, and defeated both; but while he was thus employed in the south, a new army of Danes landed in the north at

27 The Scots defeated by the Danes.

the mouth of the river Spey. Malcolm advanced against them with an army much inferior in number; and his men, neglecting every thing but the blind impulses of fury, were almost all cut to pieces; Malcolm himself being desperately wounded.

By this victory the Danes were so much elated, that they sent for their wives and children, intending to settle in this country. The castle of Nairn, at that time thought almost impregnable, fell into their hands; and the towns of Elgin and Forres were abandoned both by their garrisons and inhabitants. The Scots were every where treated as a conquered people, and employed in the most servile offices by the haughty conquerors; who, to render the castle of Nairn, as they thought, absolutely impregnable, cut through the small isthmus which joined it to the land. All this time, however, Malcolm was raising forces in the southern counties; and having at last got an army together, he came up with the Danes at Murtloch near Balveny, which appears at this day to have been a strong Danish fortification. Here he attacked the enemy; but having the misfortune to lose three of his general officers, he was again obliged to retreat. However, the Danish general happening to be killed in the pursuit, the Scots were encouraged to renew the fight with such

28 But defeat them in a second battle.

vigour, that they obtained at last a complete victory; but suffered so much, that they were unable to derive from it all the advantages which might otherwise have accrued.

On the news of this ill success, Sweno ordered two fleets one from England and another from Norway, to make a descent upon Scotland, under the command of Camus, one of his most renowned generals. The Danes attempted to land at the mouth of the Forth; but finding every place there well fortified, they were obliged to move farther northward, and effected their purpose at Redhead in the county of Angus. The castle of Brechin was first besieged; but meeting with a stout resistance there, they laid the town and church in ashes. From thence they advanced to the village of Panbride, and encamped at a place called *Karboddo.* Malcolm in the mean time was at hand with his army and encamped at a place called *Barr,* in the neighbourhood of which both parties prepared to decide the fate of Scotland; for as Moray and the northern provinces were already in the possession of the Danes, it was evident that a victory at this time must put them in possession of the whole. The engagement was desperate, and so bloody, that the rivulet which proceeds from Loch Tay is said to have had its water dyed with the blood of the slain; but at last the Danes gave way and fled. There was at that time in the county of Malcolm, a young prince of the name of *Keith* (A). He pursued Camus; and having overtaken him, engaged and killed him; but another Scots officer coming up at the same time, disputed with Keith the glory of the action. While the dispute lasted, Malcolm came up; who suffered them to decide it by single combat. In this second combat Keith proved also victorious, and killed his antagonist. The dying person confessed the justice of Keith's claim; and Malcolm dipping his finger in his blood marked the shield of Keith with three strokes, pronouncing the words *Veritas vincit,* "Truth overcomes," which has ever since been the armorial bearing and motto of the family of Keith (B).

29 The Danes again defeated.

30 Rise of the family of Keith.

The shattered remains of the Danish forces reached their ships; but being driven back by contrary winds, and provisions becoming scarce, they put ashore 500 men an the coast of Buchan, to procure them some food: but their communication with the ships being soon cut off, they fortified themselves as well as they could, and made a desperate resistance; but at last were all put to the sword. The place where this massacre happened is still called *Crudane;* being probably an abbreviation of *Cruor Danorum,* the blood of the Danes, a name imposed on it by the ecclesiastics of those days.

Sweno, not yet discouraged, sent his son Canute, afterwards king of England, and one of the greatest warriors of that age, into Scotland, with an army more powerful than any that had yet appeared. Canute landed in Buchan; and, as the Scots were much weakened by such a long continued war, Malcolm thought proper to act on the defensive. But the Scots, who now thought themselves invincible, demanded to be led

31 Another invasion.

(A) This prince is said to have commanded a colony of the Catti, a German nation who settled in the northmost part of Scotland, and from whom the county of Caithness takes its name.

(B) Mr Gordon, in his *Itinerarium Septentrionale,* observes, that in all probability the Scots gained two victories over the Danes on the present occasion; one near the place called *Karboddo,* already mentioned; and the other at Aberlemno, four miles from Brechin. At both places there are monuments with rude sculptures, erected most probably in memory of a victory. That at Karboddo is called *Camus's cross;* near which, somewhat more than a century ago, a large sepulchre, supposed to be that of Camus, was discovered. It consisted of four great stones; and had in it a huge skeleton, supposed to be that of the Danish prince. The fatal stroke seemed to have been given him on the back part of the head; a considerable portion of the skull being cut away, probably by the stroke of the sword.

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led onto a general engagement. Malcolm complied with their desire, and a battle ensued; in which though neither party had much reason to boast of victory, the Danes were so much reduced, that they willingly concluded a peace on the following terms, viz. That the Danes should immediately depart Scotland; that as long as Malcolm and Swen lived, neither of them should wage war with the other, or help each other's enemies; and that the field in which the battle was fought should be set apart and consecrated for the burial of the dead. These stipulations were punctually fulfilled by Malcolm, who built in the neighbourhood a chapel dedicated to Olaus, the tutelar saint of these northern nations.

31 Peace concluded.

After all these glorious exploits, and becoming the second legislator in the Scottish nation, Malcolm is said to have stained the latter part of his reign with avarice and oppression; in consequence of which he was murdered at the age of 80 years, of which he had reigned above 30. This assassination was perpetrated when he was on his way to Glamis. His own domestics are said to have been privy to the murder, and fled along with the conspirators; but in passing the lake of Forfar on the ice, it gave way with them, and they were all drowned, their bodies being discovered some days after. The latter part of this account is confirmed by the sculptures upon some stones erected near the spot; one of which is still called *Malcolm's grave-stone*; and all of them exhibit some rude representations of the murder and the fate of the assassins.

33 Malcolm assassinated.

Malcolm was succeeded, in the year 1034, by his grandson Duncan I. but he is said to have had another grandson, the famous Macbeth; though some are of opinion that Macbeth was not the grandson of Malcolm, but of Fenella who murdered Kenneth III. The first years of Duncan's reign were passed in tranquillity, but domestic broils soon took place on the following occasion. Banquo, thane of Lochaber, and ancestor to the royal family of Stewart, acted then in the capacity of steward to Duncan, by collecting his rents; but being very rigid in the execution of his office, he was way-laid, robbed, and almost murdered. Of this outrage Banquo complained as soon as he recovered of his wounds and could appear at court. The robbers were summoned to surrender themselves to justice; but instead of obeying, they killed the messenger. Macbeth represented this in such strong terms, that he was sent with an army to reduce the insurgents, who had already destroyed many of the king's friends. This commission he performed with such success, that the rebel chief put an end to his own life; after which Macbeth sent his head to the king, and then proceeded with the utmost severity against the insurgents who were composed of Irishmen, Islanders, and Highlanders.

34 Duncan I.

This insurrection was scarcely quelled, when the Danes landed again in Fife; and Duncan put himself at the head of an army, having the thanes Macbeth and Banquo serving under him. The Danes were commanded by Swen king of Norway, and eldest son of Canute. He proceeded with all the barbarity natural to his nation, putting to death men, women, and children who fell in his way. A battle was fought between the two nations near Culross, in which the Scots were defeated; but the Danes purchased their victory so dearly, that they could not improve it; and Duncan retreated to Perth, while Macbeth was sent to raise more forces. In the mean time Swen laid siege to Perth, which was defended by Duncan and Banquo. The Danes were so much distressed for want of provisions, that they at last consented to treat of a peace, provided the pressing necessities of the army were relieved. The Scots historians inform us, that this treaty was set on foot in order to amuse Swen, and gain time for the stratagem which Duncan was preparing. This was no other than a barbarous contrivance of infusing intoxicating herbs into the liquors that were sent along with the other provisions to the Danish camp. These soporifics had their intended effect; and while the Danes were under their influence, Macbeth and Banquo broke into their camp, where they put all to the sword, and it was with difficulty that some of Swen's attendants carried him on board; but we are told that his was the only ship of all the fleet that returned to Norway. It was not long, however, before a fresh body of Danes landed at Kinghorn in the county of Fife; but they were entirely defeated by Macbeth and Banquo. Such of the Danes as escaped, fled to their ships; but before they departed they obtained leave to bury their dead in Inchcolm, a small island lying in the Forth, where one of their monuments is still to be seen.

35 A new invasion by the Danes.

36 Who are defeated.

Thus ended the formidable invasions of the Danes; after which Duncan applied himself to the administration of justice, and the reformation of the manners of his subjects. Macbeth, however, who had obtained great reputation by his success against the Danes, began to form ambitious designs, and to aspire to the crown itself. The fables relating to his usurpation are so well known from the tragedy composed by Shakespeare which bears the name of *Macbeth*, that we shall not take notice of them here; but only observe, that at last Duncan being inconscious of offence, and not taking the necessary precautions for his defence, was murdered at Inverness by Macbeth, who succeeded him in the throne.

37 Duncan murdered by Macbeth, who assumes the throne.

During the greatest part of the reign of the usurper, Malcolm, the true heir to the crown of Scotland, kept close in his principality of Cumberland, without any thoughts of ascending his father's throne. Macbeth for some time governed with moderation, but at last became a tyrant. Becoming jealous of Banquo, the most powerful subject in his dominions, he invited him to an entertainment, and caused him to be treacherously murdered. His son Fleance was destined to the same fate, but escaped to Wales. After him Macduff, the thane of Fife, was the most powerful person in Scotland; for which reason, Macbeth determined to destroy him. On this Macduff fled to France; and Macbeth cruelly put to death his wife, and children who were yet infants, and sequestered all his estate. Macduff vowed revenge, and encouraged Malcolm to attempt to dethrone the tyrant. Macbeth opposed them with his whole force; but being defeated in a pitched battle, he took refuge in the most inaccessible places of the Highlands, where he defended himself for two years; but in the mean time Malcolm was acknowledged king of Scotland, and crowned at Scone.

38 Macbeth driven out.

The war between Macbeth and the new king continued for two years after the coronation of the latter; but at last he was killed in a sally by Macduff. However,

39 And killed.

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ever the public tranquillity did not end with his life. His followers elected one of his kinsmen named *Lullach*, surnamed the *Idiot*, to succeed him: but he not being able to withstand Malcolm, withdrew to the north, where being pursued, he was killed at Essey in Strathbogie, after a reign of four months.

40 Malcolm established on the Scottish throne.

Malcolm being now established on the throne, began with rewarding Macduff for his great services; and conferred upon his family four extraordinary privileges: 1. That they should place the king in his chair of state at the coronation. 2. That they should lead the van of all the royal armies. 3. That they should have a regality within themselves: and, 4. That if any of Macduff's family should happen to kill a nobleman unpremeditately, he should pay 24, and, if a plebeian, 12 marks of silver. The king's next care was to reinstate in their fathers possessions all the children who had been disinherited by the late tyrant; which he did in a convention of his nobles held at Forfar. In the time of William the conqueror, we find Malcolm engaged in a dangerous war with England, the occasion of which was as follows. On the death of Edward the Confessor, Harold seized the throne of England, to the prejudice of Edgar Atheling the true heir to the crown. However, he created him earl of Oxford, and treated him with great respect; but on the defeat and death of Harold, William discovered some jealousy of Edgar. Soon after, William having occasion to pay a visit to his dominions in Normandy, he appointed Edgar to attend him, along with some other noblemen whom he suspected to be in his interest; but on his return to England, he found the people so much disaffected to his government, that he proceeded with great severity, which obliged great numbers of his subjects to take refuge in Cumberland and the southern parts of Malcolm's dominions. Edgar had two sisters, Margaret and Christina: these, with his two chief friends, Gospatric and Marteswin, soon made him sensible how precarious his life was under such a jealous tyrant, and persuaded him to make preparations for flying into Hungary or some foreign country. Edgar accordingly set sail with his mother Agatha, his two sisters, and a great train of Anglo-Saxon noblemen; but by stress of weather was forced into the frith of Forth, where the illustrious exiles landed at the place since that time called the *Queen's Ferry*. Malcolm no sooner heard of their landing than he paid them a visit in person; and at this visit he fell in love with the princess Margaret. In consequence of this, the chief of Edgar's party repaired to the court of Scotland. William soon made a formal demand of Edgar; and on Malcolm's refusal, declared war against him.

41 Entertains Edgar an English prince.

42 War between Scotland and England.

William was the most formidable enemy the Scots had ever encountered, as having not only the whole force of England, but of Normandy, at his command. However, as he had tyrannized most unmercifully over his English subjects, they were much more inclined to assist his enemies than their own prince; and he even found himself obliged to give up the county of Northumberland to Gospatric, who had followed Edgar, upon condition of his making war on the Scots. This nobleman accordingly invaded Cumberland; in return for which Malcolm ravaged Northumberland in a dreadful manner, carrying off an immense booty, and inviting at the same time the Irish and Danes to join him.

Even at this time the Danes kept up their claims upon the crown of England, so that they could not be supposed very zealous for the interest of Edgar. The Irish were also interested in advancing the cause of Harold's three sons, who had put themselves under their protection; and besides, their chief view seems to have been to obtain plunder at the expence of any party. However, as all these views tended to the pulling down of William's power, an union was formed against him; but when they came to particular stipulations, the parties immediately disagreed. The three sons of Harold, with a body of Irish, made a descent upon Somersetshire, and defeated a body of English; but the Irish having thus obtained an opportunity of acquiring some booty, immediately retired with it, after having ravaged the country. The Danes landed at the mouth of the Humber from 40 small ships, where they were joined by Edgar and his party; and had the allies been unanimous, it is probable that William's government would have been overthrown.

43 England invaded.

By this time William had taken from Gospatric the earldom of Northumberland, and given it to Robert Cummin one of his Norman barons; but the Northumbrians, having joined Gospatric, and received the Danes as their countrymen, murdered Cummin and all his followers at Durham, where they had been guilty of great cruelties. After this they laid siege to the forts built by William in Yorkshire; but not being able to reduce them, the English, Scots, and Danes, united their forces, took the city of York itself, and put to the sword three thousand Normans who were there in garison; and this success was followed by many incursions and ravages, in which the Danes and Northumbrians acquired great booty. It soon appeared, however, that these allies had the interest of Edgar no more at heart than the Irish; and that all the dependence of this forlorn prince was upon Malcolm, and the few Englishmen who had followed his fortune: for the booty was no sooner obtained, than the Danes retired to their ships, and the Northumbrians to their habitations, as though they had been in perfect safety. But in the mean time William, having raised a considerable army, advanced northwards. He first took a severe revenge upon the Northumbrians; then he reduced the city of York, and put to death all the inhabitants; and perceiving that danger was still threatened by the Danes, he bribed them with a sum of money to depart to their own country.

Malcolm was now left alone to encounter this formidable adversary; who, finding himself unable to oppose such a great force, withdrew to his own dominions, where he remained for some time upon the defensive, but not without making great preparations for invading England once more. His second invasion took place in the year 1071, while William was employed in quelling an insurrection in Wales. He is said at this time to have behaved with the greatest cruelty. He invaded England by Cumberland; ravaged Teesdale; and at a place called *Hundreds-keld*, he massacred some English noblemen, with all their followers. From thence he marched to Cleveland in the north-riding of Yorkshire; which he also ravaged with the utmost cruelty, sending back the booty with part

44 A second invasion.

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part of his army to Scotland: after which, he pillaged the bishopric of Durham, where he is said not to have spared the most sacred edifices, but to have burnt them to the ground. In the mean time Gospatric, to whom William had again ceded Northumberland, attempted to make a diversion in his favour, by invading Cumberland: but being utterly defeated by Malcolm, he was obliged to shut himself up in Bamborough castle; while Malcolm returned in triumph with his army to Scotland, where he married the princess Margaret.

45 William the Conqueror invades Scotland.

The next year William, having greatly augmented his army, invaded Scotland in his turn. The particulars of the war are unknown; but it certainly ended much to the disadvantage of the Scots, as Malcolm agreed to pay him homage. The English historians contend that this homage was for the whole of his dominions; but the Scots with more show of reason affirm, that it was only for those he possessed in England. On the conclusion of the peace, a cross was erected at Stanmore in Richmondshire, with the arms of both kings, to serve as a boundary between the possessions of William and the feudal dominions of Malcolm. Part of this monument, called *Re-cross*, or rather *Roy-cross*, or *The cross of the kings*, was entire in the days of Camden.

46 Reformation set on foot by the king and queen of Scotland.

This peace between Malcolm Canmore and William produced the greatest alteration in the manners of the Scots. What contributed chiefly to this was the excellent disposition of queen Margaret; who was, for that age, a pattern of piety and politeness: and next to this was the number of foreigners who had settled in Scotland; among whom were some Frenchmen, and from this time the friendship of the Scots with that nation may be dated. Malcolm himself, also, though by his ravages in England he seems naturally to have been a barbarian, was far from being averse to a reformation, and even set the example himself. During her husband's absence in England queen Margaret had chosen for her confessor one Turgot, whom she also made her assistant in her intended reformation. She began with new-modelling her own court; into which she introduced the offices, furniture, and manner of living, common among the more polite nations of Europe. She dismissed from her service all those who were noted for immorality and impiety; and charged Turgot, on pain of her displeasure, to give his real sentiments on the state of the kingdom, after the best inquiry he could make. By him she was informed, that faction reigned among the nobles, rapine among the commons, and incontinence among all degrees of men. Above all, he complained that the kingdom was destitute of a learned clergy, capable of reforming the people by their example and doctrine. All this the queen represented to her husband, and prevailed upon him to set about the work of reformation immediately; in which, however, he met with considerable opposition. The Scots, accustomed to oppress their inferiors, thought all restrictions of their power were as many steps towards their slavery. The introduction of foreign offices and titles confirmed them in this opinion; and such a dangerous insurrection happened in Moray and some of the northern counties, that Malcolm was obliged to march against the rebels in person. He found them, indeed, very formidable; but they were so much intimidated by his resolution, that they intreated the clergy who were among them to intercede with the king in their favour. Malcolm received their submission, but refused to grant an unconditional pardon. He gave all the common people indeed leave to return to their habitations, but obliged the better sort to surrender themselves to his pleasure. Many of the most guilty were put to death, or condemned to perpetual imprisonment; while others had their estates confiscated. This severity checked the rebellious spirit of the Scots, upon which Malcolm returned to his plans of reformation. Still, however, he found himself opposed even in those abuses which were most obvious and glaring. He durst not entirely abolish that infamous practice of the landlord claiming the first night with his tenant's bride; though, by the queen's influence, the privilege was changed into the payment of a piece of money by the bridegroom, and was afterwards known by the name of *mercheta mulierum*, or "the woman's merk." In those days the Scots were without the practice of saying grace after meals, till it was introduced by Margaret, who gave a glass of wine, or other liquor, to those who remained at the royal table and heard the thanksgiving; which expedient gave rise to the term of the *grace-drink*. Besides this, the terms of the duration of Lent and Easter were fixed; the king and queen bestowed large alms on the poor, and the latter washed the feet of six of their number; many churches, monasteries, &c. were erected, and the clerical revenues augmented. However, notwithstanding these reformations, some historians have complained, that, along with the manners of the English and French, their luxuries were also introduced. Till this reign the Scots had been remarkable for their sobriety and the simplicity of their fare; which was now converted into excess and riot, and sometimes ended fatally by quarrels and bloodshed. We are told, at the same time, that even in those days, the nobility eat only two meals a-day, and were served with no more than two dishes at each meal; but that their deviation from their ancient temperance occasioned a diminution of the strength and size of the people.

47 England again invaded.

In the year 1077, Malcolm again invaded England; but upon what provocation, or with what success, is not well known. But in 1088, after the death of the Conqueror, he again espoused the cause of Edgar Atheling, who had been reduced to implore his assistance a second time, when William Rufus ascended the throne of England. At the time of Edgar's arrival, Malcolm was at the head of a brave and well-disciplined army, with which he penetrated a great way into the country of the enemy; and, as it is said, returned to Scotland with an immense booty. Some historians tell us, that in this expedition Malcolm met with a defeat, which obliged him to return; and indeed this is not a little countenanced by others, who say, not indeed that he was defeated, but that it was *the will of God* he should proceed no farther. But, be this as it will, William resolved to revenge the injury, and prepared great armaments both by sea and land for the invasion of Scotland. His success, however, was not answerable to the greatness of his preparations. His fleet was dashed to pieces by storms, and almost all on board of it perished. Malcolm had also laid waste the country through which his antagonist was to pass, in such

Scotland. such an effectual manner, that William loſt a great part of his troops by fatigue and famine; and, when he arrived in Scotland, found himſelf in a ſituation very little able to reſiſt Malcolm, who was advancing againſt him with a powerful army. In this diſtreſs, Rufus had recourſe to Robert de Mowbray earl of Northumberland, who diſſuaded him from venturing a battle, but adviſed him by all means to open a negociation by means of Edgar and the other Engliſh noblemen who reſided with Malcolm. Edgar undertook the negociation, on condition of his being reſtored to his eſtates in England; but met with more difficulty than he imagined. Malcolm had never yet recognized the right of William Rufus to the throne of England, and therefore refuſed to treat with him as a ſovereign prince; but offered to enter into a negociation with his brother Robert, ſurnamed *Curt-hoſe*, from the ſhortneſs of his legs. The two princes accordingly met; and Malcolm, having ſhewed Robert the diſpoſition of his army, offered to cut off his brother William, and to pay to him the homage he had been accuſtomed to pay to the Conqueror for his Engliſh dominions. But Robert generouſly anſwered, that he had reſigned to Rufus his right of primogeniture in England; and that he had even become one of William's ſubjects, thereby accepting of an Engliſh eſtate. An interview with William then followed, in which it was agreed that the king of England ſhould reſtore to Malcolm all his ſouthern poſſeſſions, for which he ſhould pay the ſame homage he had been accuſtomed to do to the Conqueror; that he ſhould reſtore to Malcolm 12 diſputed manors, and give him likewiſe 12 merks of gold yearly, beſides reſtoring Edgar to all his Engliſh eſtates.

48 The Engliſh army in great danger.

49 Peace concluded.

This treaty was concluded in Lothian, according to the Engliſh hiſtorians; but at Leeds in Yorkſhire, according to the Scots. However, the Engliſh monarch looked upon the terms to be ſo very diſhonourable, that he reſolved not to fulfil them. Soon after his return, Edgar and Robert began to preſs him to fulfil his engagements; but receiving only evaſive anſwers, they paſſed over into Normandy. After their departure, William applied himſelf to the fortification of his northern boundaries, eſpecially Carliſle, which had been deſtroyed by the Danes 200 years before.—As this place lay within the feodal dominions of Malcolm, he complained of William's proceeding, as a breach of the late treaty; and ſoon after repaired to the Engliſh court at Gloceſter, that he might have a perſonal interview with the king of England, and obtain redreſs. On his arrival, William refuſed him admittance to his preſence, without paying him homage. Malcolm offered this in the ſame manner as had been done by his predeceſſors, that is, on the confines of the two kingdoms; but this being rejected by William, Malcolm returned to Scotland in a rage, and prepared again for war.

50 Hoſtilities recommended.

The firſt of Malcolm's military operations now proved fatal to him; but the circumſtances of his death are variouſly related. According to the Scots hiſtorians, Malcolm having laid ſiege to Alnwick, and reduced the place to ſuch ſtraits, that a knight came out of the caſtle, having the keys on the point of a ſpear, and pretending that he deſigned to lay them at Malcolm's feet; but inſtead of this, he ran him through the eye with the ſpear, as ſoon as he came within reach. They add, that prince Edward, the king's eldeſt ſon, was mortally wounded in attempting to revenge his father's death. The Engliſh hiſtorians, on the other hand, contend, that the Scots were ſurpriſed in their camp, their army entirely defeated, and their king killed. On this occaſion the Scots hiſtorians alſo inform us, that the family of Piercy received its name; the knight who killed the Scots king having been ſurnamed *Pierce-eye*, from the manner in which he gave that monarch the fatal ſtroke. Queen Margaret, who was at that time lying ill in the caſtle of Edinburgh, died four days after her huſband.

51 Malcolm killed at the ſiege of Alnwic caſtle.

52 The throne uſurped by Donald Bane.

After the death of Malcolm Canmore, which happened in the year 1093, the throne was uſurped by his brother, Donald Bane; who, notwithſtanding the great virtues and glorious atchievements of the late king, had been at the head of a ſtrong party during the whole of his brother's reign. The uſurper, giving way to the barbarous prejudices of himſelf and his countrymen, expelled out of the kingdom all the foreigners whom Malcolm had introduced, and obliged them to take refuge in England. Edgar himſelf had long reſided at the Engliſh court, where he was in high reputation; and, by his intereſt there, found means to reſcue his nephew young Edgar, the king of Scotland's eldeſt ſon, out of the hands of the uſurper Donald Bane. The favour he ſhowed to him, however, produced an accuſation againſt himſelf, as if he deſigned to adopt young Edgar as his ſon, and ſet him up as a pretender to the Engliſh throne. This accuſation was preferred by an Engliſhman whoſe name was *Orgar;* but, as no legal proofs of the guilt could be obtained, the cuſtom of the times rendered a ſingle combat between the parties unavoidable. Orgar was one of the ſtrongeſt and moſt active men in the kingdom; but, the age and infirmities of Edgar, allowed him to be defended by another.—For a long time none could be found who would enter the liſts with this champion; but, at laſt, one Godwin of Winchester, whoſe family had been under obligations to Edgar or his anceſtors, offered to defend his cauſe. Orgar was overcome and killed; and, when dying, confeſſed the falſehood of his accuſation. The conqueror obtained all the lands of his adverſary, and William lived ever afterwards on terms of the ſtricteſt friendſhip with Edgar.

53 A ſingle combat.

This combat, trifling as it may ſeem to us, produced very conſiderable effects. The party of Edgar and his brother's (who had likewiſe taken refuge at the Engliſh court) revived in Scotland, to ſuch a degree, that Donald was obliged to call in the Danes and Norwegians to his aſſiſtance. In order to engage them more effectually to his intereſt, the uſurper yielded up to them the Orkney and Shetland iſlands; but when his new allies came to his aſſiſtance, they behaved in ſuch a manner as to become more intolerable to the Scots than ever the Engliſh had been. This diſcontent was greatly increaſed when it was found that William deſigned to place on the throne of Scotland, a natural ſon of the late Malcolm, named *Duncan*, who had ſerved in the Engliſh armies with great reputation. Donald attempted to maintain himſelf on the throne by the aſſiſtance of his Norwegian allies; but, being abandoned by the Scots, he was obliged

54 Donald yields up the Orkney and Shetland iſlands to the Danes.

Scotland. obliged to fly to the isles, in order to raise more forces; and in the mean time Duncan was crowned at Scone with the usual solemnity.

The Scots were now greatly distressed by two usurpers who contended for the kingdom, each of them supported by a foreign army. One of them, however, was soon dispatched. Malpedir, thane of Mearns, surprised Duncan in the castle of Mentieth, and killed him; after which he replaced Donald on the throne. The affection of the Scots, however, was by this time entirely alienated from Donald, and a manifest intention of calling in young Edgar was shown. To prevent this, Donald offered the young prince all that part of Scotland which lay to the southward of the Forth; but the terms were rejected, and the messengers who brought them were put to death as traitors. The king of England also, dreading the neighbourhood of the Norwegians, interposed in young Edgar's favour, and gave Atheling the command of an army in order to restore his nephew. Donald prepared to oppose his enemies with all the forces he could raise; but was deserted by the Scots, and obliged to fly: his enemies pursued him so closely, that he was soon taken; and being brought before Edgar, he ordered his eyes to be put out, condemning him at the same time to perpetual banishment, in which he died some time after.

55 Donald deposed by Edgar.

The historians of these times inform us, that this revolution was owing to the interposition of St Cuthbert, who appeared to Edgar, informing him that he should prove victorious, provided he repaired next day to his church, and received his banner from the hands of the canons; which he accordingly did, and proved ever afterwards a most grateful votary to his patron. During his reign a strict friendship subsisted between the courts of England and Scotland; owing to the marriage of Henry I. of England with the princess Matilda, sister to Edgar. This has given occasion to the English historians to assert that Edgar held the kingdom of Scotland as a feudatory of Henry; and to this purpose have forged certain writings, by which Edgar acknowledges "That he held the kingdom of Scotland by gift from his lord William king of England; and, with consent of his said lord, he gives to Almighty God, and the church of Durham, and to the glorious bishop St Cuthbert, and to bishop William, and to the monks of Durham, and their successors, the mansions of Berwick and Coldingham, with several other lands possessed by his father Malcolm: and this charter is granted in the presence of bishop William, and Turgot the prior; and confirmed by the crosses of Edgar his brother, and other noblemen." But that these writings must be forged, appears from the non-existence of the original charter, and from their being related in quite a different manner by some other authors.—For the same purpose a seal has been forged of Edgar sitting on horseback, with a sword in his right-hand, and a shield on his left-arm, within a bordure of France. But this last circumstance is a sufficient proof of the forgery; since, in the same repository in which this seal is kept, there are five charters of the same Edgar, which are undoubtedly genuine; and on the seals belonging to them he is represented sitting on two swords placed across, with a sceptre in one hand, a sword in the other, a royal diadem on his head, with this inscription round it, SCOTORUM BASILEUS, which the best English antiquaries allow to have been a title denoting independency.

56 Forgeries of the English historians.

After a reign of nine years, Edgar died at Dundee, in the year 1107; and was succeeded by his brother Alexander I. surnamed the *Fierce* from the impetuosity of his temper. On his accession to the throne, however, the Scots were so ignorant of his true character, on account of his appearance of piety and devotion, that the northern parts of the kingdom were soon filled with ravages and bloodshed, by reason of the wars of the chieftains with each other. Alexander immediately raised an army, and marching into Moray and Ross-shire, attacked the insurgents separately; and having subdued them all, he put great numbers of them to death. He then set himself to reduce the exorbitant power of the nobles, and to deliver the common people from the oppression under which they groaned. A remarkable instance of this appeared on his return from the expedition just now mentioned. In passing through the Mearns, he met with a widow, who complained that her husband and son had been put to death by the young earl their superior. Alexander immediately alighted from his horse, and swore that he would not remount him till he had inquired into the justice of the complaint; and, finding it to be true, the offender was hanged on the spot. These vigorous proceedings prevented all attempts at open rebellion; but produced many conspiracies among the profligate part of his private subjects, who had been accustomed to live under more remiss government. The most remarkable of these took place while the king was engaged in building the castle of Baledgar, so called in memory of his brother Edgar, who had laid the foundation-stone. It was situated in the Carse of Gowrie, which, we are told, had formerly belonged to Donald Bane, but afterwards came to the crown, either by donation or forfeiture. The conspirators bribed one of the king's chamberlains to introduce them at night into the royal bed-chamber: but Alexander, alarmed at the noise, drew his sword, and killed six of them; after which, by the help of a knight named *Alexander Carron*, he escaped the danger, by flying into Fife. The conspirators chiefly resided in the Mearns, to which Alexander once more repaired at the head of an army; but the rebels retreated northwards, and crossed the Spey. The king pursued them across that river, defeated them, and brought to justice all that fell into his hands. In this battle, Carron distinguished himself so eminently, that he obtained the name of *Skrimgeour*, or *Skrimzeour*; which indeed is no other than the English word *skirmisher* or *fighter*.

57 Alexander I

58 Administers justice rigidly.

59 Narrowly escapes from assassins.

The next remarkable transaction of Alexander's reign, as recorded by the English historians, was his journey into England, where he paid a visit to Henry I. whom he found engaged in a war with the Welsh. The occasion of this was, that Henry had planted a colony of Flemings on the borders of Wales, in order to keep that turbulent people in awe, as well as to introduce into his kingdom the manufactures for which the Flemings were famous. The Welsh, jealous of this growing colony, invaded England; where they defeated the earl of Chester and Gilbert Strongbow,

60 His exploits in England.

Scotland. the two most powerful of the English subjects. Alexander, in virtue of the fealty which he had sworn for his English possessions, readily agreed to lead an army into Wales. Here he defeated one of the chieftains, and reduced him to great straits; but could not prevent him from escaping to Griffith prince of North-Wales, with whom he was closely allied. Henry also marched against the enemy, but with much worse success in the field than Alexander; for he lost two-thirds of his army, with almost his whole baggage, by fatigue, famine, or the attacks of the Welsh. This loss, however, he made up in some measure by his policy; for having found means to raise a jealousy between the two Welsh chiefs, he induced them to conclude a peace, but not without restoring all his lands to the one, and paying a considerable sum of money to the other. Alexander died in 1124, after a reign of seventeen years; and was buried at Dunfermline.

61 Wars of king David with the English.

This prince, dying a bachelor, was succeeded by his younger brother David; who interfered in the affairs of England, and took part with the empress Maud in the civil war she carried on with Stephen. In 1136, David met his antagonist at Durham; but as neither party cared to venture an engagement, a negociation took place, and a treaty was concluded. This, however, was observed but for a short time; for, in the following year, David again invaded England, on some frivolous pretences. He defeated Stephen at Roxburgh; and forced him to retreat precipitately, after losing one half of his army. Next year he renewed his invasion; and, though he himself was a man of great mildness and humanity, he suffered his troops to commit such outrages, as firmly united the English in opposition to him. His grand-nephew William cut in pieces the vanguard of the English army at Clithero; after which he ravaged the country with such cruelty, that the inhabitants became exasperated beyond measure against him. New associations were entered into against the Scots; and the English army receiving great reinforcements from the southward, advanced to Northallerton, where the famous standard was produced. The body of this standard was a kind of box which moved upon wheels, from whence arose the mast of a ship surmounted by a silver cross, and round it were hung the banners of St Peter, St John de Beverly, and St Wilfred. Standards of this kind were common at that time on the continent of Europe; and so great confidence had the English in this standard, that they now thought themselves invincible. They had, however, a much more solid ground of confidence, as being much better armed than their antagonists. The armies met at a place called *Culton Moor*. The first line of the Scots army was composed of the inhabitants of Galloway, Carric, Kyle, Cunningham, and Renfrew. These by some historians are called *Picts*, and are said to have had a prince of their own, who was a feudatory to David. The second line consisted of the Lothian men, by which we are to understand the king's subjects in England as well as the south of Scotland, together with the English and Normans of Maud's party. The third line was formed of the clans under their different chieftains; but who were subject to no regular command, and were always impatient to return to their own country when they had acquired any booty. The English soldiers having ranged themselves round their standard, dismounted from their horses, in order to avoid the long lances which the first line of the Scots army carried. Their front-line was intermixed with archers; and a body of cavalry, ready for pursuit, hovered at some distance. The Picts, besides their lances, made use of targets; but, when the English closed with them, they were soon disordered and driven back upon the centre, where David commanded in person. His son made a gallant resistance, but was at last forced to yield; and the last line seems never to have been engaged. David, seeing the victory decided against him, ordered some of his men to save themselves by throwing away their badges, which it seems Maud's party had worn, and mingling with the English; after which he himself, with his shattered forces, retreated towards Carlisle. The English historians say, that in this battle the Scots were totally defeated, with the loss of 10,000 men; but this seems not to be the case, as the English did not pursue, and the Scots were in a condition for carrying on the war next year. However, there were now no great exploits performed on either side; and a peace was concluded, by which Henry prince of Scotland was put in possession of Huntingdon and Northumberland, and took an oath of fealty to Stephen. David continued faithful to his niece the empress as long as he lived; and died at Carlisle in the year 1153, after a glorious reign of somewhat more than 29 years.

62 Battle of the Standard.

63 The Scots entirely defeated.

David was succeeded by his grandson Malcolm IV. surnamed the *Maiden*, on account of his continence. He appears to have been a weak and superstitious prince, and died of a depression of spirits in the year 1165. He was succeeded by his brother William I. who immediately entered into a war with Henry II. of England, on account of the earldom of Northumberland, which had been given up by Malcolm; but Henry, finding his affairs in a very embarrassed situation, consented to yield up this county, on David's paying him homage, rather than continue the miseries of war. In 1172, he attempted to avail himself of the unnatural war which Henry's sons carried on against their father, and invaded England. He divided his army into three columns: the first of which laid siege to Carlisle; the second he himself led into Northumberland; and the king's brother, David, advanced with the third into Leicestershire. William reduced the castles of Burgh, Appleby, Warkworth, and Garby; and then joined that division of his army which was besieging Carlisle. The place was already reduced to such straits, that the governor had agreed to surrender it by a certain day, provided it was not relieved before that time: on which the king, leaving some troops to continue the siege, invested a castle with some of the forces he had under his command, at the same time sending a strong reinforcement to his brother David; by which means he himself was left with a very small army, when he received intelligence that a strong body of English, under Robert de Stuteville and his son, were advancing to surprise him.—William, sensible of his inability to resist them, retired to Alnwick, to which he instantly laid siege; but in the mean time acted in such a careless and unthinking manner, that his enemies actually effected their de-

64 William I. engages in a war with Henry II. of England.

Scotland. designs. Having dressed a party of their soldiers in Scots habits, they took the king himself prisoner, and carried him, with his feet tied under the belly of a horse, to Richmond Castle. He was then carried in chains before Henry to Northampton, and ordered to be transported to the castle of Falaise in Normandy, where he was shut up with other state-prisoners. Soon after this an accommodation took place between Henry and his sons, and the prisoners on both sides were set at liberty, William only excepted; and he bore his confinement with great impatience. Of this Henry took the advantage, to make him pay homage for the whole kingdom of Scotland, and acknowledge that he held it only as a feu of the crown of England; and, as a security, he was obliged to deliver into the hands of Henry all the principal forts in Scotland, viz. the castles of Roxburgh, Berwick, Jedburgh, Edinburgh, and Stirling; William at the same time agreeing to pay the English garrisons which were put into these castles. David, the king's brother, with 20 barons, who were present at the signing of this shameful convention, were put into the hands of Henry as hostages for William's good faith; after which the king was set at liberty, and returned to Scotland.

65 He is taken prisoner by the English, and obliged to do homage for his kingdom.

The affairs of Scotland were now in the greatest confusion. The people of Galloway, at the head of whom were two noblemen or princes called *Othred* and *Gilbert*, had taken the opportunity of asserting their independency on the crown of Scotland; and, having expelled all the Scots officers out of the country, they demolished all the forts which William had erected in their country, and put to death all the foreigners. But in the mean time a quarrel ensuing between the two chiefs, Othred was murdered by Gilbert, who immediately applied to Henry for protection.

Henry, in order to give all possible sanction to the convention betwixt him and William, summoned him to meet him and his son at York. William obeyed the summons, and along with him appeared all the great nobility and landholders; who confirmed the convention of Falaise, swore fealty to Henry, and put themselves and their country under his protection. In the mean time Gilbert, who was at the head of the rebels in Galloway, had offered to put himself and his people under the protection of the king of England, and to pay to Henry 2000 merks of silver yearly, with 500 cows and as many hogs, by way of tribute: however, Henry, that he might oblige his new feudatory William, refused to have any concern in the affair. On this, William ordered his general Gilchrist to march against him; which he did with such success, that Gilbert was entirely defeated, and Galloway again reduced under the dominion of Scotland. Very soon after this victory, Gilchrist fell under the king's displeasure on the following occasion. He had married Matilda, sister to William; and on suspicion, or proof of her incontinence, put her to death at a village called *Maynes*, near Dundee. The king being highly displeased at such a gross affront to himself, summoned Gilchrist to take his trial for the murder; but as the general did not choose to make his appearance, his estates were confiscated, his castles demolished, and he himself banished. He took refuge in England; but as the conventions between William and Henry imported that the one should not harbour the traiterous subjects of the other, Gilchrist was forced to return to Scotland with his two sons. There they were exposed to all the miseries of indigence, and in perpetual fear of being discovered, so that they were obliged to skulk from place to place. William, on his return from an expedition against an usurper whom he had defeated, happened to observe three strangers, who, though disguised like rustics, appeared by their noble mien to be above the vulgar rank. William, who first discovered them, was confirmed in this apprehension, by seeing them strike out of the high road, and endeavouring to avoid notice. He ordered them to be seized and brought before him. The oldest, who was Gilchrist himself, fell upon his knees before him, and gave such a detail of his misfortunes as drew tears from the eyes of all present; and the king restored him to his former honours and estates. From the family of this Gilchrist that of the Ogilvies is said to be descended.

66 Adventures of William's general, Gilchrist.

Scotland.

67 Origin of the family of Ogilvy.

The Scots continued to be in subjection to the English until the accession of Richard I. This monarch being a man of romantic valour, would needs undertake an expedition into the Holy Land against the Turks, according to the superstition of the times. That he might secure the quiet of his dominions in his absence, he determined to make the king of Scotland his friend; and in order to this, he thought nothing could be more acceptable than releasing him and his subjects from that subjection which even the English themselves considered as forced and unjust. However, he determined not to lose this opportunity of supplying himself with a sum of money, which could not but be absolutely necessary in such an expensive and dangerous undertaking. He therefore made William pay him 10,000 merks for this release: after which he entered into a convention, which is still extant; and in this he acknowledges, that "all the conventions and acts of submission from William to the crown of England had been extorted from him by unprecedented writings and duresse." This transaction happened in the year 1189.

68 William released from his homage by Richard I.

The generosity of Richard met with a grateful return from William; for when Richard was imprisoned by the emperor of Germany in his return from the Holy Land, the king of Scotland sent an army to assist his regency against his rebellious brother John, who had attempted to usurp the throne of England. For this Richard owned his obligation in the highest degree; but William afterwards made this an handle for such high demands as could not be complied with. Nevertheless, the two monarchs continued in friendship as long as Richard lived. Some differences happened with king John about the possession of Northumberland and other northern counties: but these were all finally adjusted to the mutual satisfaction of both parties; and William continued a faithful ally of the English monarch till his death, which happened in the year 1214, after a reign of 49 years.

69 Alexander II.

William was succeeded by his son Alexander II. a youth of 16. He revived his claim to Northumberland, and the other northern counties of England; but John, supposing that he had now thoroughly subdued the English, not only refused to consider the demands of Alexander, but made preparations for invading Scotland. John had given all the country between Scotland and the river Tees to Hugh de Baliol and ano-

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another nobleman, upon condition of their defending it against the Scots. Alexander fell upon Northumberland, which he easily reduced, while John invaded Scotland. Alexander retired to Melros, in order to defend his own country; upon which John burnt the towns of Wark, Alnwick, and Morpeth, and took the strong castles of Roxburgh and Berwick. He next plundered the abbey of Coldingham, reduced Dunbar and Haddington, ravaging the country as he passed along. His next operation was directed against Edinburgh; but being opposed by Alexander at the head of an army, he precipitately marched back. Alexander did not fail to pursue; and John, to cover his retreat, burnt the towns of Berwick and Coldingham. In this retreat the king of England himself set his men an example of barbarity, by setting fire every morning to the house in which he had lodged the preceding night. In short, such desolation did John spread all around him, that Alexander found it impossible to continue his pursuit; for which reason he marched westward, and invaded England by the way of Carlisle. This place he took and fortified; after which he marched south as far as Richmond, receiving homage from all the great barons as he went along. At Richmond he was again stopped by John's ravages, and obliged to return through Westmoreland to his own dominions.

70 War with John king of England.

When the English barons found it necessary to put themselves under the protection of Lewis, son to the king of France, that prince, among other acts of sovereignty, summoned Alexander to do him homage; but the latter being then engaged in the siege of Carlisle, which had fallen into the hands of king John, he he could not immediately attend. In a short time Alexander found himself obliged to abandon this enterprise: after which he laid siege to Barnard-castle; but being baffled here also, marched southwards through the whole kingdom of England, and met Lewis at London or Dover, where the prince confirmed to him the rights to Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmoreland. He continued a faithful ally to Lewis and the barons in their wars with John; and, in 1216, brought a fresh army to their assistance, when their affairs were almost desperate. This once more turned the scale against John; but he soon after dying, the English easily became reconciled to the government of Henry III. and the party of Lewis dwindled every day, till at last he was obliged to drop all thoughts of being king of England.

As long as Lewis continued in England, Alexander proved faithful to his interest; but, in 1217, he was on such good terms with Henry as to demand his eldest sister, the princess Joan, for a wife. His request was granted, and in 1221 he espoused the princess; while his eldest sister Margery was married to Hubert de Burgh justiciary of England, and his second sister to Gilbert earl Marshal, the two greatest subjects in England.

As long as the queen of Scotland lived, a perfect harmony subsisted between the Scots and English: but, in 1239, queen Joan died without children; and Alexander soon after married Mary, the daughter of Egelrand de Coucy, a young and beautiful French lady, by whom he had a son named *Alexander*, in 1241. From this time a coolness took place between the two courts, and many differences arose; but no hostilities were commenced on either side during the lifetime of Alexander, who died in 1249, in the 35th year of his reign.

71 Alexander III.

After the death of his father, Alexander III. immediately took possession of the throne. He is the first of the Scots kings of whose coronation we have any particular account. We are told, that the ceremony was performed by the bishop of St Andrew's, who girded the king with a military belt, probably as an emblem of his temporal jurisdiction. He then explained in Latin, and afterwards in Gaelic, the laws and oaths relating to the king; who agreed to and received them all with great appearance of joy, as he also did the benediction and ceremony of coronation from the same prelate. After the ceremony was performed, a Highlander, probably one of those who went under the denomination of *Sannachies*, repeated on his knees before the throne, in his own language, the genealogy of Alexander and his ancestors, up to the first king of Scotland.

72 Marries the daughter of Henry III. of England.

In 1250, the king, though no more than ten years of age, was married to the daughter of Henry, who now thought it a proper opportunity to cause him do homage for the whole kingdom of Scotland. But Alexander, notwithstanding his youth, replied with great sense and modesty, that his business in England was matrimony; that he had come thither under Henry's protection and invitation; and that he was no way prepared to answer such a difficult question.

Henry seems to have been encouraged to make this attempt by the distracted state of the Scots affairs at that time; for, during the minority of the king, the nobility threw every thing into confusion by their dissensions with one another. The family of Cummin were now become exceedingly powerful; and Alexander II. is blamed by Buchanan for allowing them to obtain such an exorbitant degree of power, by which they were enabled almost to shake the foundation of government. Notwithstanding the king's refusal to submit to the homage required of him, they imagined that Henry's influence was now too great; and fearing bad consequences to themselves, they withdrew from York, leaving Henry in full possession of his son-in-law's person. Henry, however, to show that he deserved all the confidence which could be reposed in him, publicly declared, that he dropped all claim of superiority with regard to the crown of Scotland, and that he would ever afterwards act as the father and guardian of his son-in-law; confirming his assurances by a charter. Yet when Alexander returned to Scotland, he found they had made a strong party against his English connections. They now exclaimed, that Scotland was no better than a province of England; and having gained almost all the nobility over to this opinion, they kept the king and queen as two state-prisoners in the castle of Edinburgh. Henry had secret intelligence of these proceedings; and his queen privately sent a physician whom she could trust, to inquire into her daughter's situation. Having found means of being admitted into the young queen's presence, she gave him a most lamentable account of her situation. She said, that the place of their confinement was very unwholesome, in consequence of which their health was in imminent danger; and that they had

73 Is confined with his queen by his rebellious subjects.

Scotland.

had no concern in the affairs of government. Historians do not inform us by what means they were reduced to this difmal fituation; only in general, that the Cummins ufurped the whole power of the ftate. Henry did not well know how to act. If he proceeded at once to violent meafures, he was afraid of the lives of his daughter and fon-in-law; and, on the other hand, by a more cautious conduct, he left them expofed to the wicked attempts of thofe who kept them in thraldom, fome of whom, he very well knew, had defigns on the crown itfelf. By advice of the Scots Royalifts, among whom were the earls of Dunbar, Fife, Strathern, Carric, and Robert de Bruce, Henry affembled his military tenants at York, from whence he himfelf advanced to Newcaftle, where he publifhed a manifefto, difclaiming all defigns againft the peace or independency of Scotland; declaring, that the forces which had been collected at York were defigned to maintain both; and that all he meant was to have an interview with the king and queen upon the borders. From Newcaftle he proceeded to Wark, where he privately difpatched the Earl of Glocefter, with his favourite John Manfel, and a train of trufty followers, to gain admiffion into the caftle of Edinburgh, which was then held by John Baliol and Robert de Rofs, noblemen of great influence both in England and Scotland. The earl and Manfel gained admittance into the caftle in difguife, on pretence of their being tenants to Baliol and Rofs; and their followers obtained accefs on the fame account, without any fufpicion, till they were fufficiently numerous to have maftered the garrifon, had they met with any refiftance. The queen immediately informed them of the thraldom and tyranny in which fhe had been kept; and among other things declared, that fhe was ftill a virgin, as her jailors obliged her to keep feparate from her hufband. The Englifh, being maffers of the caftle, ordered a bed to be prepared that very night for the king and queen; and Henry, hearing of the fuccefs of his party, fent a fafe-conduct for the royal pair o meet him at Alnwick. Robert de Rofs was fummoned by Henry to anfwer for his conduct; but throwing himfelf at the king's feet, he was punifhed only by the fequeftration of his eftate, as was John Baliol by a heavy fine, which the king of England referved entirely to his own ufe.

74 They are fet at liberty by Henry.

Alexander and his queen were attended to Alnwic by the heads of their party; and when they arrived, it was agreed that Henry fhould act as his fon-in-law's guardian; in confequence of which feveral regulations were made in order to fuppref the exorbitant power of the Cummins. That ambitious family, however, were all this time privately ftrengthening their party in Scotland, though they outwardly appeared fatisfied with the arrangements which had been made. This rendered Alexander fecure; fo that, being off his guard, he was furprifed when afleep in the caftle of Kinrofs by the Earl of Menteith, who carried him to Stirling. The Cummins were joined in this treafon by Sir Hugh de Abernethy, Sir David Lochore, and Sir Hugh de Barclay; and in the mean time the whole nation was throwu into the utmoft confufion. The great feal was forcibly taken from Robert Stuterville, fubftitute to the chancellor the bifhop of Dunkeld; the eftates of the royalifts were plundered; and even the churches were not fpared. The king at laft was delivered by the death of the earl of Menteith, who is faid to have been poifoned by his wife, in order to gratify her paffion for a young Englifh gentleman named John Ruffel. This charge, however, was never proved; but it is certain that the earl died at a juncture very critical for Scotland, and that his death difconcerted all the fchemes of his party, which never afterwards could make head againft the royalifts.

75 Alexander carried off by rebels, but relieved.

Alexander being thus reftored to the exercife of regal authority, acted with great wifdom and moderation. He pardoned the Cummins and their adherents, upon their fubmitting to his authority; after which, he applied himfelf to the regulation of his other affairs: but a ftorm was now ready to break upon him from another quarter. We have already feen, that the ufurper Donald Bane, brother to Malcolm Canmore, had engaged to deliver up the ifles of Orkney and Shetland to the king of Norway, for affifting him in making good his pretenfions to the crown of Scotland. Haquin, the king of Norway, at this time alleged that thefe engagements extended to the delivering up the iflands of Bute, Arran, and others in the frith of Clyde, as belonging to the Ebudæ or Weftern ifles; and as Alexander did not think proper to comply with thefe demands, the Norwegian monarch appeared with a fleet of 160 fail, having on board 20,000 troops, who landed and took the caftle of Aire. Alexander immediately difpatched ambaffadors to enter into a treaty with Haquin; but the latter, flufhed with fuccefs, would hearken to no terms. He made himfelf mafter of the ifles of Bute and Arran; after which he paffed over to Cunningham. Alexander, prepared to oppofe him, divided his army into three bodies. The firft was commanded by Alexander high fteward of Scotland, (the great grandfather of Robert II.), and confifted of the Argyle, Athol, Lenox, and Galloway men. The fecond was compofed of the inhabitants of Lothian, Fife, Merfe, Berwick, and Stirling, under the command of Patrick earl of Dunbar. The king himfelf led the centre, which confifted of the inhabitants of Perthfhire, Angus, Mearns, and the northern counties. Haquin, who was an excellent commander, difpofed his men in order of battle, and the engagement began at a place called *Largs*. Both parties fought with great refolution; but at laft the Norwegians were defeated with dreadful flaughter, no fewer than 16,000 of them being killed on the fpot. The remainder efcaped to their fhips; which were fo completely wrecked the day after, that Haquin could fcarce find a veffel to carry him with a few friends to Orkney, where he foon after died of grief.

76 Defeats the Norwegians.

In confequence of this victory, Owen, or John, king of the ifland of Man, fubmitted to Alexander; and his example was followed by feveral other princes of the iflands belonging to the Norwegians. Haquin's fon, Magnus, a wife and learned prince, foon after arrived in Scotland with frefh reinforcements, and propofed a treaty; but Alexander, inftead of liftening to an accommodation, fent the earls of Buchan and Murray, with Allen the chamberlain, and a confiderable body of men, to the weftern iflands, where they put to the fword fome of the inhabitants, and hanged their chiefs for having encouraged the Norwegian invafion. In the mean time, Magnus returned to Norway; where a treaty was at laft concluded between him

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him and Alexander. By this Magnus renounced all right to the contested islands; Alexander at the same time consenting to pay him 1000 merks of silver in the space of two years, and 100 yearly ever after, as an acknowledgment for these islands. To cement the friendship more firmly, a marriage was concluded between Margaret the daughter of Alexander, and Eric the son and heir of Magnus, who was also a child; and, some years after, when the parties were of proper age, the marriage was consummated.

77 Regains the islands of Shetland, Orkney, &c.

From this time to the accession of Edward I. of England, we find nothing remarkable in the history of Scotland. That prince, however, proved a more cruel enemy to this country than it had ever experienced. Alexander was present at the coronation of Edward, who was then newly arrived from the Holy Land, where he had been on a crusade. Soon after this Alexander paid him homage for his English estates; particularly for the lands and lordships of Penrith and others, which Henry had given him along with his daughter. He proved an excellent ally to Edward in his wars against the French; and the latter passed a charter, by which he acknowledged that the services of the king of Scotland in those wars were not in consequence of his holding lands in England, but as an ally to his crown. Even at this time, however, Edward had formed a design on the liberties of that kingdom; for in the charter just mentioned, he inserted a salvo, acknowledging the superiority, by which he reserved his right to the homage of the kingdom of Scotland, when it should be claimed by him or his heirs. The bishop of Norwich suggested this salvo: and this was the reason why Alexander would not perform the homage in person, but left it to be performed by Robert Bruce earl of Carrie; Alexander standing by, and expressly declaring that it was only paid for the lands he held in England.—No acts of hostility, however, took place during the lifetime of Alexander, who was killed on the 19th of March 1285, in the 45th year of his age, by his horse rushing down the black rock near Kinghorn, as he was hunting.

78 Designs of Edward I. against the liberties of Scotland.

Both before and after the death of Alexander, the great subjects of Scotland seemed to have been sensible of Edward's ambitious designs. On the marriage of Margaret with Eric prince of Norway, the states of Scotland passed an act obliging themselves to receive her and her heirs as queen and sovereigns of Scotland. Edward at that time was in no condition to oppose this measure, in which the Scots were unanimous; and therefore contented himself with forming factions among the leading men of the country. Under pretence of resuming the cross, he renewed his intrigues at the court of Rome, and demanded leave from the pope to collect the tenths in Scotland; but his holiness replied, that he could make no such grant without the consent of the government of Scotland. On the death of Margaret queen of Norway, her daughter, in consequence of the act abovementioned, was recognized by the states as queen of Scotland. As she was then but two years old, they came to a resolution of excluding from all share in the government, not only Edward I. but their queen's father; and they accordingly established a regency from among their own number, consisting of the six following noblemen; viz. Robert Wishart bishop of Glasgow, Sir James Cummin of Badenoch senior, James lord high steward of Scotland, who were to have the superintendency of all that part of Scotland which lay to the south of the Forth; William Fraser bishop of St Andrews, Duncan M'Duff earl of Fife, and Alexander Cummin earl of Buchan, who were to have the direction of all affairs to the north of the same river.—With these arrangements Eric was exceedingly displeased, as considering himself as the only rightful guardian of his own child. He therefore cultivated a good correspondence with Edward, from whom he had received considerable pecuniary favours; and perceiving that the states of Scotland were unanimous in excluding all foreigners from the management of their concerns, he fell in with the views of the king of England, and named commissioners to treat with those of Edward upon the Scots affairs. These negociations terminated in a treaty of marriage between the queen of Scotland and Edward prince of Wales, young as they both were. This alarmed the states of Scotland, who resolved not to suffer their queen to be disposed of without their consent. It was therefore agreed by the commissioners on both sides, to acquaint them with the result of their conferences, and to demand that a deputation should be sent up for settling the regency of Scotland, or, in other words, for putting the sovereign power into the hands of the two kings. As the two parties, however, were within the prohibited degrees of consanguinity, being first cousins, a dispensation was applied for to pope Boniface, who granted it on condition that the peers of Scotland consented to the match.

79 Treaty of marriage between the young queen of Scotland and the prince of Wales.

Though the Scots nobility were very much against this match, they could not refuse their consent to it when proposed by the father and grand-uncle of their young queen. They therefore appointed the bishops of St Andrew's and Glasgow, with Robert Bruce lord of Anandale, and John Cumming, to attend as their deputies, but with a salvo to all the liberties and honours of the realm of Scotland; to which Edward agreed. These deputies met at Salisbury with those of England and Norway; and it was at last agreed, 1. That the young queen should be sent from Norway, (free of all marriage-engagements), into England or Scotland. 2. That if the queen came to England, she should be at liberty to repair to Scotland as soon as the distractions of that kingdom should be settled: that she should, on her arrival in her own dominions, be free of all matrimonial contracts; but that the Scots should engage not to dispose of her in marriage without her father or Edward's consent. 3. The Scots deputies promised to give such security as the Norwegian commissioners should require; that the tranquillity of the nation should be settled before her arrival there. 4. That the commissioners of Scotland and Norway, joined with commissioners from England, should remove such regents and officers of state in Scotland as should be suspected of disaffection, and place others in their stead. If the Scots and Norwegian commissioners should disagree on that or any other head relating to the government of Scotland, the decision was to be left to the arbitration of English commissioners.

The party of Edward was now so strong in Scotland, that no opposition was made to the late agreement, in a parliament held at Brechin to deliberate upon the settlement of the kingdom. It is uncertain whether

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whether he communicated in form to the Scots parliament the pope's dispensation for the marriage: but most probably he did not; as, in a letter written to him by the states of Scotland, they mention this as a matter they heard by report. On the whole, however, they highly approved of the marriage, upon certain conditions to which Edward was previously to agree; but the latter, without waiting to perform any conditions, immediately sent for the young queen from Norway. This exceedingly displeased Eric, who was by no means inclined to put his daughter into the hands of a prince whose sincerity he suspected, and therefore shifted off the departure of the princess till he should hear farther from Scotland. Edward, alarmed at this, had again recourse to negociation; and ten articles were at last drawn up, in which the Scots took all imaginable precautions for the safety and independency of their country. These articles were ratified by Edward on the 28th of August 1289; yet, even after the affair of the marriage was fully settled, he lost no time in procuring as strong a party as he could. At the head of these were the bishop of St Andrew's and John Baliol. That prelate, while he was in England, was highly caressed by Edward, from whom he had great expectations of preferment; and Baliol, having great estates in England, considered the latter as his sovereign. The bishop, on his return to Scotland, acted as a spy for Edward, and carried on with him a secret correspondence informing him of all public transactions. It appears from this correspondence, that the Scots were far from being unanimous as to the marriage. Bruce earl of Annandale suspected, for some reason or other, that the young queen was dead; and, soon after Michaelmas 1290, assembled a body of forces, and was joined by the earl of Mar and Athol. Intelligence of these commotions was carried to Edward by Baliol; and the bishop of St Andrew's advised Edward, in case the report of the queen's death should prove true, to march a body of troops towards Scotland, in order to secure such a successor as he thought proper.

Edward, in the mean time, consented to allow ambassadors to be sent from Scotland to bring over the young queen; previous to which he appointed the bishop of Durham to be lieutenant in Scotland for the queen and her future husband; and all the officers there, both civil and military, obliged themselves to surrender their employments and fortresses to the king and queen, that is, to Edward, immediately on their arrival in Scotland. But while the most magnificent preparations were making for the reception of the young queen, certain intelligence of her death was received; but it is not certainly known whether this happened before the arrival of the ambassadors in Norway, or after her departure from thence.

80 Death of the queen.

The Scots were thrown into the utmost consternation by the news of their queen's death, while on the other hand Edward was as well prepared as if he had known what was to happen. The state of Scotland at this time indeed was to the last degree deplorable. The act of succession established by the late king had no farther operation, being determined by the death of the queen; and since the crown was rendered hereditary, there was no precedent by which it could be settled. The Scots, in general, however, turned their eyes upon the posterity of David Earl of Huntingdon, brother to the two kings Malcolm the Maiden and his successor William, both of whom died without lawful issue. The earl had three daughters. Margaret, the eldest, was married to Allan lord of Galloway; the only issue of which marriage was Derverguill wife to John Baliol, who had a son of the same name, a competitor for the crown. The second daughter, Isabella, was married to Robert Bruce; and their son Robert was a candidate likewise. The third daughter, Ada, had been married to Henry Hastings, an English nobleman, and predecessor to the present earl of Huntingdon. John Hastings, the son of this marriage, was a third competitor; but as his claim was confessedly the worst of the three, he only put in for a third of the kingdom, on the principle that his mother was joint-heir with her two sisters (c). Several others claimants now started up. Florence earl of Holland pretended to the crown of Scotland in right of his great-grandmother Ada, the eldest lawful sister of William, some time king; as did Robert de Pynkeny, in the right also of his great-grandmother Marjory, second sister of the same king William. Patrick Gallightly was the son of Henry Gallightly, a bastard of William; William de Ross was descended of Isabel; Patrick, earl of March, of Ilda or Ada; and William de Vesci, of Marjory; all of them three natural daughters of king William. Roger de Mandeville, descended from Aufrie, another natural daughter of William, also put in his claim; but the right of Nicolas de Soulis,

81 A number of competitors for the Crown.

(c) The pedigree of the three principal competitors will be fully understood from the following scheme.

David I. King of Scots.
|
Henry Prince of Scotland.
|
David Earl of Huntingdon, second son.
|

3. Ada=Henry de Hastings.	2. Isabella=Robert Bruce.	1. Margaret=Allan of Galloway.
Henry de Hastings.	Robert Bruce, *competitor.*	John Balliol=Derverguill.
John de Hastings, *competitor.*		John Balliol, *competitor.*

Scotland. Soulis, if baſtardy could give a right, was better than the former. His grandmother Marjory, the wife of Allan le Huiſſier, was a natural daughter of Alexander II. and conſequently ſiſter to Alexander III. John Cumming lord of Badenoch derived his claim from a more remote ſource, viz. Donald Bane, who uſurped the crown about 200 years before this time; but he was willing to reſign his pretenſions in favour of John Baliol. The latter indeed had ſurely the beſt right; and, had the ſucceſſion been regulated as it is in all hereditary kingdoms at this day, he would undoubtedly have carried it. Bruce and Haſtings, however, pleaded, that they were preferable, not only to John Baliol the grandchild of Margaret, but alſo to Dervegild her daughter and his mother, for the following reaſon. Dervegild and they were equally related to their grandfather earl David: ſhe was indeed the daughter of his eldeſt daughter; but ſhe was a woman, they were men; and, ſaid they, the male in the ſame degree ought to ſucceed to ſovereignties, in their own nature impartible, preferable to the female.

Notwithſtanding this number of candidates, however, it was ſoon perceived, that the claims of all of them might be cut off excepting two, viz. Baliol and Bruce, of whom the former had the preference with reſpect to hereditary right, and the latter as to popularity. Baliol had ſtrongly attached himſelf to Edward's party; which being by far the moſt powerful in Scotland, gave him a decided ſuperiority over Bruce. The event was, that Edward, by his own party moſt probably, though, ſome ſay, by the unanimous voice of the Scots parliament, was appointed to decide between the two competitors. It ſoon appeared, however, that Edward had no mind to adjudge the crown to any perſon but himſelf; for, in an aſſembly held at Norham on the 10th of May 1291, Brabanzon the chief juſtice of England informed the members, "That his maſter was come thither in conſideration of the ſtate of the realm of Scotland, which was then without a king, to meet them, as *direct ſovereign* of that kingdom, to do juſtice to the claimants of his crown, and to eſtabliſh a ſolid tranquillity among his people; that it was not his intention to retard juſtice, nor to uſurp the right of any body, or to infringe the liberties of the kingdom of Scotland, but to render to every one their due. And to the end this might be done with the more eaſe, he required the aſſent of the ſtates *ex abundante*, and that they ſhould own him as *direct ſovereign* of the kingdom; offering, upon that condition, to make uſe of their counſels to do what juſtice demanded." The deputies were aſtoniſhed at this declaration, and replied, that they were by no means prepared to decide on Edward's claim of ſuperiority; but that Edward ought previouſly to judge the cauſe between the two competitors, and require homage from him whom he ſhould chooſe to be king. Edward treated this excuſe as trifling, and gave them till next day to conſider of his demand. Accordingly, on that day, the aſſembly was held in Norham church, where the deputies from Scotland inſiſted upon giving no anſwer to Edward's demands, which could be decided only by the whole community; repreſenting, at the ſame time, that numbers of the noblemen and prelates were abſent, and that they muſt have time to know their ſenſe of the affair. In conſequence of this, Edward gave them a delay of three weeks; which interval he employed in multiplying claimants to the crown of Scotland, and in flattering each with hopes, if he would acknowledge his ſuperiority. But when the aſſembly met, according to appointment, on the 2d of June following, they found the place of meeting ſurrounded by a numerous army of Engliſh. Edward had employed the biſhop of Durham to draw up an hiſtorical deduction of his right to the crown of Scotland; which has ſince been publiſhed. In this paper mention is made of the fealty and homage performed by the kings of Scotland to the Anglo-Saxon kings of England; but no ſufficient evidence is brought of any ſuch homage being actually performed. As to the homage performed by the kings of Scotland from the time of William the Conqueror to that of the diſpute between Bruce and Baliol, the Scots never denied it: but they contended, and indeed with juſtice, that it was performed for the lands which they held from the crown of England; and they alleged, that it was as far removed from any relation to a fealty or homage performed for the crown of Scotland, as the homage paid by the Engliſh monarchs to the crown of France was removed from all relation to the crown of England. With regard to the homage paid by William king of Scotland to Henry II. of England, it was not denied that he performed it for the whole kingdom of Scotland: but they pleaded, that it was void of itſelf, becauſe it was extorted when William was a priſoner to Henry; and they produced Richard I.'s charters, which pronounced it to have been compulſive and iniquitous.

82 Edward declares himſelf ſovereign of Scotland.

But, however urgent theſe reaſons of the Scots might be, Edward was by no means diſpoſed to examine into their merits. Inſtead of this, he cloſeted the ſeveral pretenders to the crown; and having found them allready to comply with his meaſures, he drew up the following charter of recognition to be ſigned by them all.

"To all who ſhall hear this preſent letter.

83 The candidates ſign an aſſent.

"We Florence earl of Holland, Robert de Bruce lord of Annandale, John Baliol lord of Galloway, John Haſtings lord of Abergavenny, John Cummin lord of Badenoch, Patrick de Dunbar earl of March, John Veſci for his father Nicholas Soulis, and William de Roſs, greeting in the Lord:

"Whereas we intend to purſue our right to the kingdom of Scotland; and to declare, challenge, and aver the ſame before him that hath moſt power, juriſdiction, and reaſon to try it; and the noble prince Edward, by the grace of God king of England, &c. having informed us, by good and ſufficient reaſons, that to him belongs the ſovereign ſeigniory of the ſame: We therefore promiſe, that we will hold firm and ſtable his act; and that he ſhall enjoy the realm to whom it ſhall be adjudged before him. In witneſs whereof, we have ſet our ſeals to this writing, made and granted at Norham, the Tueſday after the Aſcenſion, in the year of Grace 1291."

Edward then declared, by the mouth of his chancellor, that although, in the diſpute which was ariſen between the ſeveral claimants, touching the ſucceſſion to the kingdom of Scotland, he acted in quality of ſovereign, in order to render juſtice to whomſoever

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ever it was due; yet he did not thereby mean to exclude himself from the hereditary right which in his own person he might have to that crown, and which right he intended to assert and improve when he should think fit: and the king himself repeated this protestation with his own mouth in French. The candidates were then severally called upon by the English chancellor, to know whether they were willing to acknowledge Edward's claim of superiority over the crown of Scotland, and to submit to his award in disposing of the same; which being answered in the affirmative, they were then admitted to prove their rights. But this was mere matter of form; for all the force of England was then assembled on the borders in order to support the claims of Edward, and nothing now remained but to furnish him with a sufficient pretence for making use of it. He observed, that the Scots were not so unanimous as they ought to be in recognizing his superiority, and that the submission which had been signed by the candidates was not sufficient to carry it into execution; for which reason he demanded that all the forts in Scotland should be put into his possession, that he might resign them to the successful candidate.

84 Edward demands possession of all the fortified places in Scotland.

Though nothing could be more shameful than a tame compliance with this last demand of Edward, the regency of Scotland did not hesitate at yielding to it also; for which they gave the following reasons. "That whereas they (the states of Scotland) had, with one assent, already granted that king Edward, as superior lord of Scotland, should give sentence as to their several rights and titles to the crown of Scotland, &c. but as the said king of England cannot put his judgment in full execution to answer effectually, without the possession or seisin of the said country and its castles; we will, grant, and assent, that he, as sovereign lord thereof, to perform the things aforesaid, shall have seisin of all the lands and castles in Scotland, until right be done to the demandants, and to the guardians and community of the kingdom of Scotland, to restore both it and its castles with all the royalties, dignities, franchises, customs, rights, laws, usages, and possessions, with their appurtenances, in the same state and condition they were in when he received them; saving to the king of England the homage of him that shall be king; so as they may be restored within two months after the day the rights shall be determined and affirmed; and that the profits of the nation which shall be received in the mean time, shall be kept in the hands of the chamberlain of Scotland that now is, and one to be joined with him by the king of England; so as the charge of the government, castles, and officers of the realm, may be deducted. In witness whereof, &c."

85 Which is agreed to by the states.

For these reasons, as it is said, the regency put into the hands of Edward all the forts in the country. Gilbert de Umfreville alone, who had the command of the castles of Dundee and Forfar, refused to deliver them up, until he should be indemnified by the States, and by Edward himself, from all penalties of treason of which he might afterwards be in danger.

But though Edward had thus got into his hands the whole power of the nation, he did not think proper to determine every thing by his own authority. Instead of this, he appointed commissioners, and promised to grant letters-patent declaring that sentence should be passed in Scotland. It had been all along foreseen that the great dispute would be between Bruce and Baliol; and though the plea of Cumming was judged frivolous, yet he was a man of too much influence to be neglected, and he agreed tacitly to resign it in favour of Baliol. Edward accordingly made him the compliment of joining him with Baliol in nominating 40 commissioners. Bruce was to name 40 more; and the names of the 80 were to be given in to Edward in three days; after which the king was to add to them 24 of his own choosing. The place and time of meeting were left in their own option. They unanimously pitched upon Bewick for the place of meeting; but as they could not agree about the time, Edward appointed the 2d of August following. Soon after this, the regents resigned their commissions to Edward; but he returned them, with powers to act in his name; and he nominated the bishop of Caithness to be chancellor of Scotland; joining in the commission with him Walter de Hemondesham an Englishman, and one of his own secretaries. Still, however, he met with great difficulties. Many of his own great men, particularly the earl of Gloucester, were by no means fond of increasing the power of the English monarch by the acquisition of Scotland; and therefore threw such obstacles in his way, that he was again obliged to have recourse to negociation and intrigue, and at last to delay the meeting until the 2d of June 1292: but during this interval, that he might the better reconcile the Scots to the loss of their liberty, he proposed an union of the two kingdoms; and for this he issued a writ by virtue of his superiority.

86 Commissioners appointed to determine the pretensions of the candidates.

The commissioners having met on the second of June 1292, ambassadors from Norway presented themselves in the assembly, demanding that their master should be admitted into the number of the claimants, as father and next heir to the late queen. This demand too was admitted by Edward, after the ambassadors had acknowledged his superiority over Scotland; after which he proposed that the claims of Bruce and Baliol should be previously examined, but without prejudice to those of the other competitors. This being agreed to, he ordered the commissioners to examine by what laws they ought to proceed in forming their report. The discussion of this question was attended with such difficulty, and the opinions on it were so various, that Edward once more adjourned the assembly to the 12th of October following; at which time he required the members to give their opinions on the two following points: 1. By what laws and customs they ought to proceed to judgment; and, supposing there could be no law or precedent found in the two kingdoms, in what manner. 2. Whether the kingdom of Scotland ought to be taken in the same view as all other fiefs, and to be awarded in the same manner as earldoms and baronies? The commissioners replied, that Edward ought to give justice conformable to the usage of the two kingdoms; but that if no certain laws or precedents could be found, he might, by the advice of his great men, enact a new law. In answer to the second question they said, that the succession to the kingdom might be awarded in the same manner as to other estates and great baronies. Upon this, Edward ordered Bruce and Baliol to be called

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before him; and both of them urged their respective pleas, and answers, to the following purpose.

87 Pleas of Bruce and Baliol.

Bruce pleaded, 1. That Alexander II. despairing of heirs of his own body, had declared that he held him to be the true heir, and offered to prove by the testimony of persons still alive, that he declared this with the advice and in the presence of the good men of his kingdom. Alexander III. also had declared to those with whom he was intimate, that, failing issue of his own body, Bruce was his right heir. The people of Scotland also had taken an oath for maintaining the succession of the nearest in blood to Alexander III. who ought of right to inherit, failing Margaret the Maiden of Norway and her issue.—Baliol answered, that nothing could be concluded from the acknowledgment of Alexander II. for that he left heirs of his body; but made no answer to what was said of the sentiments of Alexander III. and of the oath made by the Scottish nation to maintain the succession of the next of blood.

2. Bruce pleaded, that the right of reigning ought to be decided according to the natural law, by which kings reign; and not according to any law or usage in force between subject and subject: That by the law of nature, the nearest collateral in blood has a right to the crown; but that the constitutions which prevail among vassals, bind not the lord, much less the sovereign: That although in private inheritances, which are divisible, the eldest female heir has a certain prerogative, it is not so in a kingdom that is indivisible; there the nearest heir of blood is preferable whenever the succession opens.—To this Baliol replied, that the claimants were in the court of their lord paramount; and that he ought to give judgment in this case, as in the case of any other tenements depending on his crown, that is, by the common law and usage of his kingdom and no'other. That by the laws and usages of England, the eldest female heir is preferred in the succession to all inheritances, indivisible as well as divisible.

3. It was urged by Bruce, that the manner of succession to the kingdom of Scotland in former times, made for his claim; for that the brother, as being nearest in degree, was wont to be preferred to the son of the deceased king. Thus, when Kenneth Macalpin died, his brother Donald was preferred to his son Constantine, and this was confirmed by several other authentic instances in the history of Scotland.—Baliol answered, that if the brother was preferred to the son of the king, the example proved against Bruce; for that the son, not the brother, was the nearest in degree. He admitted, that after the death of Malcolm III. his brother usurped the throne; but he contended, that the son of Malcolm complained to his liege lord the king of England, who dispossessed the usurper, and placed the son of Malcolm on the throne; that after the death of that son the brother of Malcolm III. again usurped the throne; but the king of England again dispossessed him, and raised Edgar, the second son of Malcolm, to the sovereignty.

4. Bruce pleaded, that there are examples in other countries, particularly in Spain and Savoy, where the son of the second daughter excluded the grandson of the eldest daughter. Baliol answered, that examples from foreign countries are of no importance; for that according to the laws of England and Scotland, where kings reign by succession in the direct line, and earls and barons succeed in like manner, the issue of the younger sister, although nearer in degree, excludes not the issue of the eldest sister, although more remote; but the succession continues in the direct line.

5. Bruce pleaded, that a female ought not to reign, as being incapable of governing: That at the death of Alexander III. the mother of Baliol was alive; and as she could not reign, the kingdom devolved upon him, as being the nearest male heir of the blood royal. But to this Baliol replied, that Bruce's argument was inconsistent with his claim: for that if a female ought not to reign, Isabella the mother of Bruce ought not, nor must Bruce himself claim through her. Besides, Bruce himself had sworn fealty to a female, the maiden of Norway.

88 Judgment given in favour of Baliol.

The arguments being thus stated on both sides, Edward demanded an answer from the council as to the merits of the competitors. He also put the following question to them: By the laws and usages of both kingdoms, does the issue of the eldest sister, tho' more remote in one degree, exclude the issue of the second sister, though nearer in one degree; or ought the nearer in one degree issuing from the second sister, to exclude the more remote in one degree issuing from the eldest sister? To this it was answered unanimously, That by the laws and usages of both kingdoms, in every heritable succession, the more remote in one degree lineally descended from the eldest sister, was preferable to the nearer in degree issuing from the second sister. In consequence of this, Bruce was excluded from the succession; upon which he entered a claim for one third of the kingdom: but being baffled in this also, the kingdom of Scotland being determined an indivisible fee, Edward ordered John Baliol to have seisin of Scotland; with this caveat, however, "That this judgment should not impair his claim to the property of Scotland."

89 Who is crowned at Scone.

After so many disgraceful and humiliating concessions on the part of the Scots, John Baliol was crowned king at Scone on the 30th November 1292; and finished the ceremony by doing homage to the king of England. All his submissions, however, could not satisfy Edward, as long as the least shadow of independence remained to Scotland. A citizen of Berwick appealed from a sentence of the Scots judges appointed by Edward, in order to carry his cause into England. But this was opposed by Baliol, who pleaded a promise made by the English monarch, that he should "observe the laws and usages of Scotland, and not withdraw any causes from Scotland into his English courts." Edward replied, that it belonged to him to hear the complaints made against his own ministers; and concluded with asserting his right, not only to try Scots causes in England, but to summon the king of Scotland, if necessary, to appear before him in person. Baliol had not spirit to resist; and therefore signed a most disgraceful instrument, by which he declared, that all the obligations which Edward had come under were already fulfilled, and therefore that he discharged them all.

90 Haughty behaviour of Edward.

Edward now thought proper to give Baliol some marks of his favour, the most remarkable of which was giving him seisin of the Isle of Man; but it soon appeared,

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appeared, that he intended to exercise his rights of superiority in the most provoking manner. The first instance was in the case of Malcolm, earl of Fife. This nobleman had two sons, Colban his heir, and another who is constantly mentioned in history by the family-name of Macduff.—It is said, that Malcolm put Macduff in possession of the lands of Reres and Crey. Malcolm died in 1266; Colban his son, in 1270; Duncan the son of Colban, in 1288. To this last earl, his son Duncan, an infant, succeeded. During the nonage of this Duncan, grand-nephew of Macduff, William bishop of St Andrew's, guardian of the earldom, dispossessed Macduff. He complained to Edward; who having ordered his cause to be tried, restored him him again to possession. Matters were in this state, when Baliol held his first parliament at Scone, 10th February 1292. There Macduff was cited to answer for having taken possession of the lands of Reres and Crey, which were in possession of the king since the death of the last earl of Fife. As his defences did not satisfy the court, he was condemned to imprisonment; but an action was reserved to him against Duncan, when he should come of age, and against his heirs. In all this defence, it is surprising that Macduff should have omitted his strongest argument, viz. that the regents, by Edward's authority, had put him in possession, and that Baliol had ratified all things under Edward's authority. However, as soon as he was set at liberty, he petitioned Baliol for a rehearing; but being rejected, he appealed to Edward, who ordered Baliol to appear before him in person on the 25th of March 1293: but as Baliol did not obey this order, he summoned him again to appear on the 14th of October. In the mean time the English parliament drew up certain *standing orders* in cases of appeal from the king of Scots; all of which were harsh and captious. One of these regulations provided, "that no excuse of absence should ever be received either from the appellant, or the king of Scotland respondent; but that the parties might have counsel if they demanded it."

91 He summons Baliol to appear before him.

Though Baliol had not the courage to withstand the second summons of Edward, he behaved with considerable resolution at the trial. The cause of Macduff being come on, Edward asked Baliol what he had to offer in his own defence; to which he replied, "I am king of Scotland. To the complaint of Macduff, or to ought else respecting my kingdom, I dare not make answer without the advice of my people."—Edward affected surprise at this refusal, after the submissions which Baliol had already made him; but the latter steadily replied, "In matters respecting my kingdom, I neither *dare* nor *can* answer in this place, without the advice of my people." Edward then desired him to ask a farther adjournment, that he might advise with the nation. But Baliol, perceiving that his doing so would imply an acquiescence in Edward's right of requiring his personal attendance on the English courts, made answer, "That he would neither ask a longer day, nor consent to an adjournment."—It was then resolved by the parliament of England, that the king of Scotland had offered no defence; that he had made evasive and disrespectful answers; and that he was guilty of manifest contempt of the court, and of open disobedience. To make recompense to Macduff for his imprisonment, he was ordered damages from the king of Scots, to be taxed by the court; and it was also determined that Edward should inquire, according to the usages of the country, whether Macduff recovered the tenements in question by the judgment of the king's court, and whether he was dispossessed by the king of Scots. It was also resolved, that the three principal castles of Scotland, with the towns wherein they were situated, and the royal jurisdiction thereof, should be taken into the custody of the king, and there remain until the king of Scots should make satisfaction for his contempt and disobedience. But, before this judgment was publickly intimated, Baliol addressed Edward in the following words: "My lord, I am your liege-man for the kingdom of Scotland; that, whereof you have lately treated, respects my people no less than myself: I therefore pray you to delay it until I have consulted my people, lest I be surprised through want of advice: They who are now with me, neither will nor dare advise me in absence of the rest of my kingdom. After I have advised with them, I will in your first parliament after Easter report the result, and do to you what I ought."

92 Who behaves with resolution at his trial.

93 His sentence.

In consequence of this address, Edward, with consent of Macduff, stopped all proceedings till the day after the feast of Trinity 1294. But before this term Edward was obliged to suspend all proceedings against the Scots, by a war which broke out with France. In a parliament held this year by Edward, the king of Scotland appeared, and consented to yield up the whole revenues of his English estates for three years to assist Edward against his enemy. He was also *requested* and *ordered* by Edward, to extend an embargo laid upon the English vessels all over Scotland; and this embargo to endure until the king of England's further pleasure should be known. He also requested him to send some troops for an expedition into Gascony, and required the presence and aid of several of the Scottish barons for the same purpose. The Scots, however, eluded the commands of Edward, by pretending that they could not bring any considerable force into the field; and, unable to bear his tyranny any longer, they negociated an alliance with Philip king of France. Having assembled a parliament at Scone, they prevailed upon Baliol to dismiss all the Englishmen whom he maintained at his court. They then appointed a committee of twelve, four bishops, four earls, and four barons, by whose advice every thing was to be regulated; and, if we may credit the English historians, they watched the conduct of Baliol himself, and detained him in a kind of honourable captivity. However, they could not prevent him from delivering up the castles of Berwick, Roxburgh, and Jedburgh, to the bishop of Carlisle; in whose custody they were to remain during the war between England and France, as a pledge of his allegiance. Notwithstanding this, Baliol concluded the alliance with Philip; by which it was stipulated, that the latter should give in marriage the eldest daughter of the count of Anjou to Baliol's son; and it was also provided, that Baliol should not marry again without the consent of Philip. The king of Scotland engaged to assist Philip in his wars at his own expence, and with his whole power, especially if Edward invaded France; and Philip on his part engaged

94 Edward's demands on Scotland.

95 The Scots enter into an alliance with France.

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gaged to assist Scotland, in case of an English invasion, either by making a diversion, or by sending succours.

96 The Scots invade England without success.

Puffed up with the hopes of assistance from France, the Scots invaded Cumberland with a mighty army, and laid siege to Carlisle. The men abandoned the place; but the women mounted the walls, and drove the assailants from the attack. Another incursion into Northumberland proved almost as disgraceful. Their whole exploits consisted in burning a nunnery at Lameley, and a monastery at Corebridge, though dedicated to their patron St Andrew; but having attempted to storm the castle of Harbottle, they were repulsed with loss. In the mean time Edward, with an army equal in number to that of the Scots, but much superior on account of its discipline, invaded the east coast of Scotland. Berwick had either not been delivered according to promise, or had been resumed by the Scots, and was now defended by a numerous garrison. Edward assaulted it by sea and land. The ships which began the attack were all either burnt or disabled; but Edward having led on his army in person, took the place by storm, and cruelly butchered the inhabitants, to the number of 8000, without distinction of sex or age. In this town there was a building called the *Red-hall*, which certain Flemings possessed by the tenure of defending it at all times against the king of England. Thirty of these maintained their ground for a whole day against the English army; but at night the building being set on fire, all of them perished in the flames. The same day the castle capitulated; the garrison, consisting of 2000 men, marched out with all the honours of war, after having sworn never to bear arms against England.

97 Berwick taken, and the inhabitants massacred by Edward.

98 Baliol's renunciation of his allegiance to England.

In the mean time, Baliol, by the advice of his parliament, solemnly and openly renounced his allegiance to Edward, sending the following declaration.

"To the magnificent prince, Edward, by the grace of God, king of England; John, by the same grace, king of Scotland.

"Whereas you, and others of your kingdom, you not being ignorant, or having cause of ignorance, by your violent power, have notoriously and frequently done grievous and intolerable injuries, contempts, grievances, and strange damages against us, the liberties of our kingdom, and against God and justice; citing us, at your pleasure, upon every slight suggestion, out of our kingdom; unduly vexing us; seizing our castles, lands, and possessions, in your kingdom; unjustly, and for no fault of ours, taking the goods of our subjects, as well by sea as land, and carrying them into your kingdom; killing our merchants, and others of our kingdom; carrying away our subjects, and imprisoning them: For the reformation of which things, we sent our messengers to you, which remain not only unredressed, but there is every day an addition of worse things to them; for now you are come with a great army upon the borders, for the disinheriting us, and the inhabitants of our kingdom; and, proceeding, have inhumanly committed slaughter, burnings, and violent invasions, as well by sea as land: We not being able to sustain the said injuries, grievances, and damages any longer, nor to remain in your fealty or homage, extorted by your violent oppression, we restore them to you, for ourself, and all the inhabitants of our kingdom, as well for the lands we hold of you in your kingdom, as for your pretended government over us."

Edward was presented with this renunciation by the hands of the intrepid Henry, abbot of Aberbrothwick; and as it was favourable to his political views, he received it rather with contempt than anger. "The foolish traitor," said he to the abbot, "since he will not come to us, we will go to him." The abbot had been persuaded by his enemies, of whom he had many in Scotland, to present this letter, in hopes that Edward would have put him to death; but he had address enough to escape safe out of his hands, without receiving any other answer.

Though this scheme of renunciation had been concerted some time before, the declaration was not sent to Edward till after the taking of Berwick. The fate of Scotland, however, after it, was soon decided. The Earl of March had taken part with Edward, but the countess betrayed his castle of Dunbar into the hands of the Scots. Edward sent a chosen body of troops to recover the place. The whole force of Scotland opposed them on the heights above Dunbar; but leaving their advantageous post, and pouring down on their enemies in confusion, they were dispersed and defeated.

99 The Scots defeated at Dunbar.

The castle of Dunbar surrendered at discretion; that of Roxburgh followed the same example; the castle of Edinburgh surrendered after a short siege; and Stirling was abandoned. The Scots, in the mean time, were guilty of the greatest extravagances. During the short interval between the loss of Berwick and the defeat at Dunbar, an order was made for expelling all the English ecclesiastics who held benefices in England; all the partizans of England, and all neutrals, were declared traitors, and their estates confiscated. But the great successes of Edward soon put an end to these impotent acts of fury. Baliol was obliged to implore the mercy of the conqueror. Divested of his royal ornaments, and bearing a white rod in his hand, he performed a most humiliating penance; confessing, that by evil and false counsel, and through his own simplicity, he had grievously offended his liege lord. He recapitulated his various transgressions, in concluding an alliance with France while at enmity with England; in contracting his son with the niece of the French king; in renouncing his fealty; in attacking the English territories, and in resisting Edward. He acknowledged the justice of the English invasion and conquest; and therefore he, of his own free consent, resigned Scotland, its people, and their homage, to his liege-lord Edward, 2d July 1296.

100 Baliol submits, and does penance.

The king of England pursued his conquests, the barons every where crowding in to swear fealty to him, and renounce their allegiance with France. His journey ended at Elgin, from whence he returned southward; and, as an evidence of his having made an absolute conquest of Scotland, he carried off from Scone the wooden chair in which the kings were wont to be crowned. This chair had for its bottom the fatal stone regarded as the national palladium (D). Some of the charters belonging to the abbey were carried off, and the

101 Scotland subdued.

(D) "This stone is thus described by W. Hemingford, T. i. p. 37. "Apud monasterium de Scone positus erat lapis

Scotland. the seals torn from others: "which", says Lord Hailes, "is the only well-vouched example which I have found of any outrage on private property committed by Edward's army. It is mentioned in a charter of Robert I. and we may be assured that the outrage was not diminished in the relation."

On the 28th of August 1296, Edward held a parliament at Berwick, where he received the fealty of the clergy and laity of Scotland. It is said, that while the English monarch was employed in the conquest of Scotland, he had promised the sovereignty to Robert Bruce, lord of Anandale, in order to secure his fidelity; but being put in mind of his promise, he answered, "Have I no other business but to conquer kingdoms for you?" Bruce silently retired, and passed his days in obscurity. Among those who professed their allegiance at this parliament, was Robert Bruce the younger, earl of Carrick. After this, Edward took the most effectual methods of securing his new conquest. He ordered the estates of the clergy to be restored; and having received the fealty of the widows of many of the Scottish barons, he put them in possession of their jointure-lands, and even made a decent provision for the wives of many of his prisoners. Yet, though in every thing he behaved with great moderation towards the Scots, he committed the government of certain districts, and of the chief castles in the south of Scotland, to his English subjects, of whose fidelity and vigilance he thought himself assured. In order to conciliate the affections of the clergy, he granted to the Scottish bishops, for ever, the privilege of bequeathing their effects by will, in the same manner as that privilege was enjoyed by the archbishops and bishops of England. In honour of the "glorious Confessor St Cuthbert," he gave to the monks of Durham an annual pension of 40 pounds, payable out of the revenues of Scotland, by the tenure of maintaining, before the shrine of the saint, two wax-tapers of 20 pounds weight each, and of distributing twice a-year one penny each to 3000 indigent persons. At last, having settled every thing, as he thought, in tranquillity, he departed for England, with all the pride of a conqueror.

102 New disturbances.

The tranquillity established by Edward, however, was of short duration. The government of Scotland at that time required many qualities which Edward's vicegerent's had not. Warenne, Earl of Surry, who had been appointed governor, took up his abode in England, on pretence of recovering his health. Cressingham, the treasurer, was a voluptuous, proud, and selfish ecclesiastic; while Ormesby the justiciary was hated for his severity. Under these officers the administration of Edward became more and more feeble; bands of robbers infested the highways, and the English government was universally despised. At this critical moment arose Sir William Wallace, the hero so much celebrated in Scottish fables, and by which indeed his real exploits are so much obscured, that it is difficult to give an authentic relation of them. The most probable account is, that he was the younger son of a gentleman (Wallace of Ellerslie) in the neighbourhood of Paisley. Having been outlawed for some offence, (generally supposed to have been the killing of an Englishman), he associated with a few companions of fortunes equally desperate with his own. Wallace himself was endowed with great strength and courage, and an active and ambitious spirit; and by his affability, eloquence, and wisdom, he maintained an authority over the rude and undisciplined multitudes who flocked to his standard. In May 1297, he began to infest the English quarters; and being successful in his predatory incursions, his party became more numerous, and he was joined by Sir William Douglas. With their united forces, these two allies attempted to surprise Ormesby the justiciary, while he held his courts at Scone; but he saved himself by a precipitate flight. After this the Scots roved over the whole country, assaulted castles, and massacred the English. Their party was joined by many persons of rank; among whom were Robert Wisheart bishop of Glasgow, the Steward of Scotland and his brother Alexander de Lindsay, Sir Richard Lundin, and Sir Andrew Moray of Bothwell. Young Bruce would have been a vast accession to the party; for he possessed all Carrick and Anandale, fo that his territories reached from the frith of Clyde to Solway. But the wardens of the western marches of England suspected his fidelity, and summoned him to Carlisle. He obeyed, and made oath on the consecrated host and on the sword of Becket, to be faithful and vigilant in the cause of Edward; and to prove his sincerity, he invaded, with fire and sword, the estate of Sir William Douglas, and carried off his wife and children. However, he instantly repented of what he had done: "I trust, (said he), that the pope will absolve me from an extorted oath;" on which he abandoned Edward, and joined the Scottish army.

103 Sir William Wallace.

All this time Edward was in France, not in the least suspecting an insurrection among people whom he imagined he had thoroughly subdued. As soon as he received the

lapis pergrandis in ecclesia Dei, juxta magnum altare, concavus quidem *ad modum rotundæ cathedræ confectus*, in quo futuri reges loco quasi coronationis ponebantur ex more. Rege itaque novo in lapide posito, missarum solemnia incepta peraguntur, et præterquam in elevatione sacri dominici corporis, semper lapidatus manſit." And again, T. i. p. 100. "In redeundo per Scone, præcepit tolli et Londoniis cariari, *lapidem* illam, in quo, ut supra dictum est, Reges Scotorum solebant poni loco coronationis suæ, *et hoc in signum regni conquesti et resignati*." Walsingham mentions the use to which Edward put this stone: "Ad Westmonasterium transtulit illum, jubens inde fieri celebrantium cathedram sacerdotum." This account of *the fatal stone* is here transcribed, that it may be compared with the appearance of the stone that now bears its name at Westminster.

Fordun has preserved the ancient rhymes concerning it; L. xi. c. 25.

"Hic rex sic totam Scotiam fecit sibi notam,
Qui sine mensura tulit inde jocalia plura,
Et pariter lapidem, Scotorum quem fore fedem
Regum decrevit fatum; quod sic inolevit,
Ni fallat fatum, Scoti quocunque locatum
Invenient lapidem, regnare tenentur ibidem."

This was the stone which Gathelus sent from Spain with his son when he invaded Ireland, which king Fergus won in Ireland, brought over with him, and placed at Scone. As the most proper authority for a story of this nature, see *Acts of Sir William Wallace, by Blind Harry*, B. i. c. 4.

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the intelligence, he ordered the Earl of Surry to suppress the rebels; but he declining the command of the army himself on account of his health, resigned it to his nephew, Lord Henry Percy. A great army, some say no fewer than 40,000 men, was now assembled, with which Percy marched against the Scots. He found them encamped at Irwin, with a lake in their front, and their flanks secured by entrenchments, so that they could not be attacked without the utmost danger. The Scots, however, ruined every thing by their dissensions. Wallace was envied on account of his accomplishments, which had raised his reputation above the other officers, whose birth and circumstances were higher than his. His companions accordingly became jealous, and began to suggest, that an opposition to the English could only be productive of farther national destruction. Sir Richard Lundin, an officer of great rank, formed a party against Wallace, and went over to Edward with all his followers. He attempted to justify his treachery, by saying, "I will remain no longer of a party that is at variance with itself;" without considering that he himself, and his party, were partly the occasion of that variance. Other leaders entered into a negociation with the English. Bruce, the Steward and his brother Alexander de Lindesay, and Sir William Douglas, acknowledged their offences, and made submissions to Edward for themselves and their adherents.

104 Dissentions of the Scots.

This scandalous treaty seems to having been negotiated by the bishop of Glasgow, and their recantation is recorded in the following words.—"Be it known to all men: Whereas we, with the commons of our country, did rise in arms against our lord Edward, and against his peace, in his territories of Scotland and Galloway, did burn, slay, and commit divers robberies; we therefore, in our own name, and in the name of all our adherents, agree to make every reparation and atonement that shall be required by our sovereign lord; reserving always what is contained in a writing which we have procured from Sir Henry Percy and Sir Robert Clifford, commanders of the English forces; at Irvine, 9th July 1297. To this instrument was subjoined, "Escrit a Sire Willaume;" the meaning of which lord Hailes supposes to be, that the barons had notified to Sir William Wallace their having made terms of accommodation for themselves and their party.

105 Most of them submit to the English.

Edward accepted the submission of the Scottish barons who had been in arms, and granted liberty to those whom he had made prisoners in the course of the former year, on condition that they should serve him in his wars against France. The inconstancy of Bruce, however, was so great, that acknowledgments of submission or oaths of fealty were not thought sufficiently binding on him; for which reason the bishop of Glasgow, the Steward, and Alexander de Lindesay, became sureties for his loyalty and good behaviour, until he should deliver his daughter Marjory as an hostage.

Wallace alone refused to be concerned in these shameful submissions; and, with a few resolute followers, resolved to submit to every calamity rather than give up the liberty of his country. The barons had undertaken to procure his submission as well as their own; but finding that to be impossible, the bishop of Glasgow and Sir William Douglas voluntarily surrendered themselves prisoners to the English. Edward, however, ascribed this voluntary surrender, not to any honourable motive, but to treachery. He asserted, that Wisheart repaired to the castle of Roxburgh under pretence of yielding himself up, but with the concealed purpose of forming a conspiracy in order to betray that castle to the Scots; and in proof of this, Edward appealed to intercepted letters of Wisheart. On the other hand, Wallace, ascribing the bishop's conduct to traiterous pusillanimity, plundered his house, and carried off his family captives.

106 Wallace still holds out.

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Immediately after the defection of the barons at Irvine, Wallace with his band of determined followers attacked the rear of the English army, and plundered their baggage; but was obliged to retire, with the loss of 1000 men. He then found himself deserted by almost all the men of eminence and property. His army, however, increased considerably by the accession of numbers of inferior rank, and he again began to act on the offensive. While he employed himself in besieging the castle of Dundee, he was informed that the English army approached Stirling. Wallace, having charged the citizens of Dundee, under the pain of death, to continue the blockade of the castle, hastened with all his troops to guard the important passage of the Forth; and encamped behind a rising ground in the neighbourhood of the abbey of Cambuskenneth. Brian Fitz-allan had been appointed governor of Scotland by Edward; but Warenne, who waited the arrival of his successor, remained with the army. Imagining that Wallace might be induced by fair means to lay down his arms, he dispatched two friars to the Scottish camp, with terms of capitulation. "Return," said Wallace, "and tell your masters, that we came not here to treat, but to assert our right, and to set Scotland free. Let them advance, they will find us prepared." The English, provoked at this answer, demanded impatiently to be led on to battle. Sir Richard Lundin remonstrated against the absurdity of making a numerous army pass by a long narrow bridge in presence of the enemy. He told them, that the Scots would attack them before they could form on the plain to the north of the bridge, and thus certainly defeat them: at the same time he offered to show them a ford, which having crossed with 500 horse, and a chosen detachment of infantry, he proposed to come round upon the rear of the enemy, and by this diversion facilitate the operations of the main body. But this proposal being rejected, the English army began to pass over; which was no sooner perceived by Wallace, than he rushed down upon them, and broke them in a moment. Cressingham the treasurer was killed, and many thousands were slain on the field, or drowned in their flight. The loss of the Scots would have been inconsiderable, had it not been for that of Sir Andrew Moray, the intimate friend and companion of Wallace, who was mortally wounded in the engagement. The Scots are said to have treated the dead body of Cressingham with the utmost indignity; to have flead him, and cut his skin into pieces, which they divided among themselves; while others tell us, they used it for making girths, and saddles.

107 Gives the English a great defeat near Stirling.

The victory at Stirling was followed by the surrender

Scotland. der of Dundee caſtle, and other places of ſtrength in Scotland; at the ſame time the Scots took poſſeſſion of Berwick, which the Engliſh had evacuated. But as a famine now took place in Scotland by the bad ſeaſons and miſeries of war, Wallace marched with his whole army into England, that he might in ſome meaſure relieve the neceſſities of his countrymen by plundering the enemy. This expedition laſted three weeks, during which time the whole tract of country from Cockermouth and Carliſle to the gates of Newcaſtle was laid waſte with all the fury of revenge and rapacity; though Wallace endeavoured, as far as poſſible, to repreſs the licentiouſneſs of his ſoldiers.

In 1298, Wallace aſſumed the title of "Governor of Scotland, in name of king John, and by conſent of the Scottiſh nation;" but in what manner this office was obtained, is now in a great meaſure unknown. In a parliament which he convoked at Perth, he was confirmed in his authority; and under this title he conferred the conſtabulary of Dundee on Alexander ſurnamed *Skrimgeour* and his heirs, on account of his faithful aid in bearing the royal ſtandard of Scotland. This grant is ſaid to have been made with the conſent and approbation of the Scottiſh nobility, 29th March 1298. From this period, however, we may date the very great jealouſy which took place between Wallace and the nobles who pretended to be of his party. His elevation wounded their pride; his great ſervices reproached their inactivity in the public cauſe; and thus the counſels of Scotland were perplexed with diſtruſt and envy, when almoſt its very exiſtence depended on unanimity.

108 Jealouſy between Wallace and the barons.

In June 1298, Edward, who had all this time been in Flanders, returned to England, and ſummoned the Scottiſh barons, under pain of rebellion, to attend him in parliament; and, on their diſobeying his ſummons, he advanced with his army towards Scotland. His main force commanded by himſelf aſſembled at Berwick; but a body of troops, under the earl of Pembroke, having landed in the north of Fife, were defeated with great loſs by Wallace, on the 12th of June. The ſame month Edward invaded Scotland by the way of the eaſtern borders. No place reſiſted him except the caſtle of Dirleton. After a reſolute defence, it ſurrendered to Anthony Beck, biſhop of Durham.

109 Scotland again invaded by Edward.

Meanwhile the Scots were aſſembling all their ſtrength in the interior part of the country. Few barons of eminence repaired to the national ſtandard. They whoſe names are recorded, were John Comyn of Badenoch, the younger; Sir John Stewart of Bonkill, brother to *The Steward;* Sir John Graham of Abercorn; and Macduff, the grand-uncle of the young earl of Fife. Robert Bruce again acceded to the Scottiſh party; and with his followers guarded the important caſtle of Air, which kept the communication open with Galloway, Argyleſhire, and the iſles.

The aim of Edward was to penetrate into the weſt, and there to terminate the war. He appointed a fleet, with proviſions, to proceed to the frith of Clyde, and await his arrival in thoſe parts. This precaution was abſolutely neceſſary for the ſubſiſtence of his numerous army in a country impoveriſhed and waſte.

Waiting for accounts of the arrival of his fleet, he eſtabliſhed his head-quarters at Templeliſton, between Edinburgh and Linlithgow. Scotland.

A dangerous inſurrection aroſe in his camp. He had beſtowed a donative of wine among his ſoldiers; they became intoxicated; a national quarrel enſued. In this tumult the Welſh ſlew 18 Engliſh eccleſiaſtics. The Engliſh horſemen rode in among the Welſh, and revenged this outrage with great ſlaughter. The Welſh in diſguſt ſeparated themſelves from the army. It was reported to Edward, that they had mutinied and gone over to the Scots: "I care not," ſaid Edward, diſſembling the danger; "let my enemies go and join my enemies; I truſt that in one day I ſhall chaſtiſe them all."

Edward was now placed in moſt critical circumſtances. As the fleet with proviſions had been detained by contrary winds, he could not venture to advance, neither could he ſubſiſt any longer in his preſent quarters. To retreat would have ſullied the glory of his arms, and expoſed him to the obloquy and murmurs of a diſcontented people. Yet he ſubmitted to this hard neceſſity. Abandoning every proſpect of ambition and revenge, he commanded his army to return to the eaſtern borders. At that moment intelligence arrived that the Scots were advanced to Falkirk.

Edward inſtantly marched againſt them. His army lay that night in the fields. While Edward ſlept on the ground, his war-horſe ſtruck him and broke two of his ribs. The alarm aroſe, that the king was wounded. They who knew not the cauſe, repeated the cry, "The king is wounded; there is treaſon in the camp; the enemy is upon us." Edward mounted on horſeback, and by his preſence diſpelled the panic. With a fortitude of ſpirit ſuperior to pain, he led on his troops. At break of day, the Scottiſh army was deſcried, forming on a ſtony field at the ſide of a ſmall eminence in the neighbourhood of Falkirk. 110 The battle of Falkirk.

Wallace ranged his infantry in four bodies of a circular form. The archers, commanded by Sir John Stewart, were placed in the intervals. The horſe, amounting to no more than a thouſand, were at ſome diſtance in the rear. On the front of the Scots lay a moraſs. Having drawn up his troops in this order, Wallace pleaſantly ſaid, "Now I have brought you to the ring, dance according to your ſkill."

Edward placed his chief confidence in the numerous and formidable body of horſemen whom he had ſelected for the Scottiſh expedition. Theſe he ranged in three lines. The firſt was led by Bigot Earl Marſhal, and the Earls of Hereford and Lincoln; the ſecond by the biſhop of Durham, having under him Sir Ralph Baſſet of Drayton; the third, intended for a reſerve, was led by the king himſelf. No mention is made of the diſpoſition of his infantry: it is probable that they were drawn up behind, to ſupport the cavalry, and to annoy the Scots with their arrows and other miſſile weapons.

Bigot, at the head of the firſt line, ruſhed on to the charge. He was checked by the moraſs, which in his impetuoſity he had overlooked. This obliged him to incline to the ſolid ground on his left, towards the right flank of the Scottiſh army. The biſhop of Durham, who led the ſecond line, inclined to the right,

Scotland. right, turned the morafs, and advanced towards the left flank of the Scottifh army. He propofed to halt, till the referve fhould advance. "To mafs, bifhop," cried Baffet, and inftantly charged. The fhock of the Englifh cavalry on each fide was violent, and gallantly withftood by the Scottifh infantry: but the Scottifh cavalry, difmayed at the number and force of the Englifh men-at-arms, immediately quitted the field. Stewart, while giving orders to his archers, was thrown from his horfe and flain. His archers crowed round his body, and perifhed with him. Often did the Englifh ftrive to force the Scottifh circle. "They could not penetrate into that wood of fpears," as one of their hiftorians fpeaks. By repeated charges, the outermoft ranks were brought to the ground. The Englifh infantry inceffantly galled the Scots with fhowers of ftones and arrows. Macduff and Sir John Graham fell. At length the Scots were broken by the numbers and weight of the Englifh cavalry, and the rout became univerfal.

112 The Scots defeated with great flaughter.

The number of the Scots flain in this battle muft have been very great. As is commonly the cafe, it is exaggerated by the hiftorians of the victors, and reduced too low by the hiftorians of the vanquifhed.

On the fide of the Englifh, the lofs was inconfiderable. The only perfons of note who fell were Brian le Jay, mafter of the Englifh Templars, and the prior of Torphichen in Scotland, a knight of another order of religious foldiery (E).

The Scots in their retreat burnt the town and caftle of Stirling. Edward repaired the caftle, and made it a place of arms. He then marched into the weft. At his approach, Bruce burnt the caftle of Ayr, and retired. Edward would have purfued him into Carrick; but the want of provifions ftopped his further progrefs. He turned into Annandale, took Bruce's caftle of Lochmaben, and then departed out of Scotland by the weftern borders. Scotland.

Here may be remarked the fatal precipitancy of the Scots. If they had ftudied to protract the campaign, inftead of hazarding a general action at Falkirk, they would have foiled the whole power of Edward, and reduced him to the neceffity of an inglorious retreat.

112 Abject condition of John Baliol.

In 1299, Edward thought proper to releafe John Baliol the unfortunate king of Scotland, whom he had kept clofe prifoner ever fince the year 1296. Before this time Baliol had ufed the moft difgraceful methods to recover his liberty. He had folemnly declared, that "he would never have any intercourfe with the Scots; that he had found them a falfe and treacherous people; and that he had reafon to fufpect them of an intention to poifon him." However, notwithftanding all his proteftations, Edward ftill detained him in captivity; but at laft releafed him at the mediation of the pope, though after a fingular form: He ordered the governor of Dover to convey him to the French coaft, and there to deliver him to the papal nuncio, "with full power to the pope to difpofe of Baliol and his Englifh eftate;" in confequence of which he was conveyed to Witfand, delivered to the nuncio in prefence of a notary and witneffes, and a receipt taken for his perfon. Notwithftanding this abject ftate, however, the Scots continued to own him for their king, and to affert their national independency. Though the misfortune at Falkirk had deprived them of a very confiderable extent of territory, they were ftill in poffeffion of the whole country beyond the Forth, as well as the county of Galloway. By general confent William Lamberton bifhop of St Andrew's, Robert Bruce earl of Carrick, and John Cummin the younger, were chofen guardians of Scotland in name of Baliol. Wallace at this time was reduced to the condition of a private

(E) "This account of the action at Falkirk, extracted from Lord Hailes's Annals, is drawn, his lordfhip informs us, from the teftimony of the Englifh hiftorians. "They have done juftice," he obferves, "to the courage and fteadinefs of their enemies; while our hiftorians reprefented their own countrymen as occupied in frivolous unmeaning contefts, and, from treachery or refentment, abandoning the public caufe in the day of trial.

"It would be tedious and unprofitable to recite all that has been faid on this fubject by our own writers from Fordun to Abercrombie. How Wallace, Stewart, and Comyn, quarrelled on the punctilio of leading the van of an army which ftood on the defenfive: How Stewart compared Wallace to 'an owl with borrowed feathers.' How the Scottifh commanders, bufied in this frivolous altereation, had no leifure to form their army: How Comyn traiterouffly withdrew with 10,000 men; how Wallace, from refentment, followed his example: How by fuch difaftrous incidents, the Scottifh army was enfeebled, and Stewart and his party abandoned to deftruction. Our hiftories abound in trafh of this kind: There is fcarcely one of our writers who has not produced an invective againft Comyn, or an apology for Wallace, or a lamentation over the deferted Stewart. What diffentions may have prevailed among the Scottifh commanders, it is impoffible to know. It appears not to me that their diffentions had any influence on their conduct in the day of battle. The truth feems to be this: The Englifh cavalry greatly exceeded the Scottifh in numbers, were infinitely better equipped and more adroit: the Scottifh cavalry were intimidated, and fled. Had they remained on the field, they might have preferved their honour; but they never could have turned the chance of that day. It was natural, however, for fuch of the infantry as furvived the engagement, to impute their difafter to the defection of the cavalry. National pride would afcribe their flight to treachery rather than to pufillanimity. It is not improbable that Comyn commanded the cavalry; hence a report may have been fpread, that Comyn betrayed his country; this report has been embellifhed by each fucceffive relator. When men are feized with a panic, their commander *muft* from neceffity, or *will* from prudence, accompany them in their flight. Earl Warrenne fled with his army from Stirling to Berwick; yet Edward I. did not punifh him as a traitor or a coward.

"The tale of Comyn's treachery, and Wallace's ill-timed refentment, may have gained credit, becaufe it is a pretty tale, and not improbable in itfelf: but it amazes me that the ftory of the *congrefs* of Bruce and Wallace after the battle of Falkirk fhould have gained credit. I lay afide the full evidence which we now poffefs, 'that Bruce was not, at that time, of the Englifh party, nor prefent at the battle.' For it muft be admitted, that our hiftorians knew nothing of thofe circumftances which demonftrate the impoffibility of *the congrefs*. But the wonder is, that men of found judgment fhould not have feen the abfurdity of a long converfation between the commander of a flying army, and one of the leaders of a victorious army. When Fordun told the ftory, he placed a 'narrow but inacceffable glen' between the fpeakers. Later hiftorians have fubftituted the river Carron in the place of the inacceffable glen, and they make Bruce and Wallace talk acrofs the river like two young declaimers from the pulpits in a fchool of rhetoric."

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vate man; nor had he at this time the command of the Scots armies, nor any share in their councils.—The new guardians undertook to reduce the castle of Stirling, and Edward prepared to defend it. The Scots posted themselves at the Torwood, and chose their ground judiciously, so that Edward could scarce have raised the siege without dislodging them; which finding it impossible for him to do, he returned home in disgust. Next year, he invaded Scotland on the west side, wasted Annandale, and reduced Galloway; but the Scots being now taught by experience to avoid a general action, chose their posts with such skill, that Edward could not penetrate farther; and the same year a truce was concluded with the Scots, to continue till Whitsunday 1301.

113 Edward obliged to retire.

114 The crown of Scotland claimed by Pope Boniface VIII.

This year a new competitor appeared for the crown of Scotland. Boniface VIII. in a bull directed to Edward, averred, that Scotland belonged anciently, and did still belong, to the holy see; and supported his extravagant claim by some strange authorities; such as, that Scotland had been miraculously converted by the relics of St Andrew: after which he proceeded to show the futility of Edward's pretensions, and that Scotland never had any feudal dependence on England. He required Edward to set at liberty all the Scottish ecclesiastics, particularly Wishart bishop of Glasgow, and to remove his officers from the patrimony of the church: "But, (added he), should you have any pretensions to the whole, or any part of Scotland, send your proctors to me within six months; I will hear and determine according to justice: I take the cause under my own peculiar cognizance."

115 His pretensions answered by Edward and his parliament.

This interposition of the pope had probably been procured by Scottish emissaries at the court of Rome; but, however ridiculous his pretensions might be, they afforded matter of very serious consideration to Edward. After spending a whole winter in deliberations, Edward and his parliament made separate answers to the pope. The answer of the parliament was to the following purpose: "All England knows, that ever since the first establishment of this kingdom, our kings have been liege-lords of Scotland. At no time has the kingdom of Scotland belonged to the church. In temporals, the kings of England are not amenable to the see of Rome. We have with one voice resolved, that, as to temporals, the king of England is independent of Rome; that he shall not suffer his independency to be questioned; and therefore, that he shall not send commissioners to Rome. Such is, and such, we trust in God, ever will be our opinion. We do not, we cannot, we must not permit our king to follow measures subversive of that government which we have sworn to maintain, and which we will maintain."

116 A short truce concluded with Scotland.

The king entered into a more full refutation of the pope's arguments; and having, as he thought, answered them sufficiently, he marched again into Scotland: but, by the mediation of France, another truce was concluded, to last till St Andrew's day 1302.

117 Three bodies of the English defeated in one day.

After the expiration of the truce, Edward sent an army into Scotland, under the command of John de Segrave. This general divided his troops into three bodies; but, keeping them so far distant that they could not support each other, they were all engaged and defeated in one day by the Scots, near Roslin †.

† See *Roslin*.

This, however, was the last successful exploit of the Scots at this period. The pope deserted them; and the king of France concluded a peace with England, in which all mention of the Scots was industriously avoided; so that they were left alone to bear the whole weight of Edward's resentment, who now invaded their country in person with a mighty army. He met with no resistance in his progress, except from the castle of Brechin, which was commanded by Thomas Maul, a brave and experienced officer. He held out for 20 days against the whole power of the English army; but at last, being mortally wounded, the place capitulated. From thence he proceeded northward, according to some historians, as far as Caithness. He then returned towards the south, and wintered in Dunfermline. In that place there was an abbey of the Benedictine order; a building so spacious, that, according to an English historian, three sovereign princes with all their retinue might have been lodged conveniently within its precincts. Here the Scottish nobles sometimes held their assemblies. The English soldiers utterly demolished this magnificent fabric.

118 Scotland invaded by Edward in person with a vast army.

The only fortress that remained in the possession of the Scots was the castle of Stirling, where Sir William Oliphant commanded. To protect this single place of refuge, Comyn assembled all his forces. He posted his army on the south bank of the river, in the neighbourhood of Stirling, there to make the last stand for the national liberty. The Scots fondly imagined, that Edward would attempt to force the passage, as the impetuous Cressingham had attempted in circumstances not dissimilar. But the prudence of Edward frustrated their expectations. Having discovered a ford at some distance, he crossed the river at the head of his whole cavalry. The Scots gave way, and dispersed themselves.

119 The Scots army routed.

All resources but their own courage had long failed them; that last resource failed them now. They hastened to conciliate the favour of the conqueror. Previous to this, Bruce had surrendered himself to John de St John, the English warden. Comyn and his followers now submitted to Edward. They stipulated for their lives, liberties, and estates; reserving always to Edward the power of inflicting pecuniary mulcts on them as he should see fit.

120 Capitulation with Edward.

From the general conditions of this capitulation, the following persons were excepted; Wishart bishop of Glasgow, the Stewart, Sir John Soulis, David de Graham, Alexander de Lindsay, Simon Fraser, Thomas Bois, and Wallace. With respect to them it was provided, that the bishop of Glasgow, the Stewart, and Soulis, should remain in exile for two years, and should not pass to the north of Trent; that Graham and Lindesay should be banished from Scotland for six months; that Fraser and Bois should be banished for three years from all the dominions of Edward, and should not be permitted, during that space, to repair to the territories of France. "As for William Wallace, it is agreed, that he shall render himself up at the will and mercy of our sovereign lord the king, if it shall seem good to him." These were all the conditions that the Scottish nation stipulated for the man who had vanquished the English at Stirling, who had expelled them from Scotland, and who had once set his country free!

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Amid this wreck of the national liberties, Wallace scorned submission. He lived a free man; a free man he resolved to die. Fraser, who had too oft complied with the times, now caught the same heroic sentiments. But their endeavours to rouse their countrymen were in vain. The season of resistance was past. Wallace perceived that there remained no more hope; and sought out a place of concealment, where, eluding the vengeance of Edward, he might silently lament over his fallen country.

Edward assembled what is called *a parliament*, at St Andrew's. Wallace, Fraser, and the garrison of Stirling, were summoned to appear: They appeared not, and sentence of outlawry was pronounced against them.

121 The castle of Stirling reduced, and Scotland subdued.

Edward now prepared to besiege the castle of Stirling; and, foreseeing that the reduction of this place would be attended with considerable difficulty, he stripped the abbey of St Andrew's of the lead which covered it, in order to employ the metal in bullets for his battering-machines. Oliphant was solemnly summoned to surrender; but in vain. Edward drew out all his artillery, and battered the walls with stones of 200 pounds weight. The besieged, however, defended themselves with obstinacy, and killed a great number of the English: but at last they were obliged to surrender; and Edward, looking upon the conquest of Scotland as now complete, set out for York, and from thence to Lincoln.

Though Edward had thus met with all the success he could desire in his expeditions against the Scots, he could not but perceive that his dominion over them must be very precarious, as long as he held them in the subjection of a conquered people. He resolved therefore once more to renew his attempts for an union of the two kingdoms. He began with taking into favour the bishop of Glasgow, Robert Bruce, and John Mowbray, who, next to Bruce and the Cummings, was amongst the greatest of the Scottish nobility. To them he recommended the settling the affairs of their country, but in such a manner as to leave it in his power to effect the proposed union with England. This scheme, however, was by no means agreeable to Bruce; who had now no other competitor for the crown but Cumming, who was in a great measure incapable of opposing his designs: neither indeed could it ever be made agreeable to the bulk of the nation; and therefore came to nothing at last. Scotland, however, was subdued. Its inhabitants had renounced every idea of asserting their liberty, and only strove to make their court to the conqueror. Wallace alone remained an exception. Edward, who had received into favour those who had proved traitors over and over again, showed a mean revenge against the only man who discovered a steady and honourable spirit, and whose friendship seemed worth the courting. Ralph de Haliburton, a prisoner, offered his assistance for discovering Wallace; and for this purpose he was granted a temporary liberty: but what he did in this very dishonourable employment, is unknown. Certain it is that Wallace was discovered, and betrayed into the hands of the English, by Sir John Menteith, as is commonly supposed; who is also said to have been the intimate friend of Wallace, though without any just foundation. Be this as it will, however, this celebrated and heroic patriot was arraigned at Westminster as a traitor to Edward, and as having burnt villages, stormed castles, and slaughtered many subjects of England. Wallace denied his ever having been a traitor, and indeed with truth; for he had always been the avowed enemy of Edward, and had not at any time owned allegiance to him. But whatever his defences might have been, they were of no avail with a judge who had resolved on his destruction. Wallace was condemned to die a traitor's death; and the sentence was executed with the utmost rigour. In his last moments he asserted that independency which a degenerate nation had renounced. His head was placed on a pinacle at London, and his mangled limbs were distributed over the kingdom.

122 Edward attempts an union between the two kingdoms in vain.

123 Wallace betrayed, and executed.

After the death of Wallace, Edward thought of nothing but settling the affairs of Scotland as a conquered country; however, he took care to preserve the ancient forms as far as was consistent with the dependent state of the nation. It has been said, indeed, that Edward abrogated all the Scottish laws and customs, and endeavoured to substitute the English in their stead; but this is denied by others. Lord Hailes gives us at length the record with respect to these laws, in the following words. "And, with respect to the laws and usages of the government of Scotland, it is ordained, that the *custom of the Scots and the Brets* shall for the future be prohibited, and be no longer practised. It is also ordained, that the king's lieutenant shall forthwith assemble the good people of Scotland; and that, at such assembly, shall be read over the statutes made by David king of Scots, and also the additions and amendments which have been made by other kings; and that the lieutenant, with the assistance which he shall then have, as well of Englishmen as of Scots, shall amend such of these statutes and usages as are plainly against the laws of God and reason, as they best may in so short a space, and in so far as they can without consulting the king; and as to matters which they cannot undertake to correct of themselves, that they be put in writing, and laid before the king by the lieutenant, and any number of commissioners, with parliamentary powers, whom the Scots shall think fit to choose. That they shall meet with commissioners appointed by the king, and finally determine as to the premisses."

124 Edward's precautions for settling the Scots affairs.

This is the record by which it is generally supposed that the law of Scotland was abrogated. But Lord Hailes is of opinion, that *the usage of the Scots and Brets* here mentioned was something different from the common law of the land. "We know, (says he,) from our statute-book, that the people of Galloway had certain usages peculiar to themselves; *Stat. Alex.* II. c. 2. One was, that causes were tried among them without juries, [*Quon. Attach.* c. 72. 73. placed in some ancient MSS. among LL. David I. c. 15.] and this may probably have been the usage which Edward abolished. The people of Galloway were sometimes distinguished by the name of *Scots*: thus the *wild Scot of Galloway* is an expression to be found in ancient instruments, and is proverbial even in our own days. *The usage of the Brets*, I take to be what relates to the judge called *brithibh*, or *brehons* in Ireland, *brehan*; and consequently, that the thing here abolished was the commutation of punishments by exacting a pecuniary mulct."

125 Did not abrogate the ancient laws.

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126 Indemnity granted to the Scots.

An indemnity was now granted to the Scots upon certain conditions. Various fines were impoſed, from one to five years rent of the eſtates of the delinquents. One year's rent was to be paid by the clergy, excluding the biſhop of Glaſgow; two by thoſe who were more early in their ſubmiſſions than Comyn; three by Comyn and his aſſociates, and by the biſhop of Glaſgow; four years rent was to be paid by William de Baliol and John Wiſheart; and five by Ingelram de Umfraville, becauſe they had ſtood out longer. Three years rent was alſo paid by the vaſſals of Baliol, Wiſheart, and Umfraville. Theſe fines were to be paid in moieties. The perſon taxed was to pay half his income annually: and thus Umfraville, taxed in five years rent, was allowed ten years to diſcharge the fine. This was an expreſs reſervation to Edward of all the royal demeſnes which Baliol might have alienated. There was alſo an exception for thoſe who were already in cuſtody, and thoſe who had not yet ſubmitted.

127 Overthrow of the Engliſh government.

Thus, after a long and obſtinate conteſt, was Scotland wholly reduced under the dominion of Edward. But within *four months*, that ſyſtem was overthrown, which the inceſſant labour of *fifteen years* had eſtabliſhed by craft, diſſimulation, and violence, with a waſte of treaſure, and the effuſion of much blood. The cauſes of this event are related as follows. Derverguill of Galloway had a ſon, John Baliol, and a daughter named Marjory. John Comyn was the ſon of Marjory, and, ſetting Baliol aſide, was heir to the pretenſions of Derverguill. He had for many years maintained the conteſt againſt Edward; but at laſt laid down his arms, and ſwore fealty to the conqueror; and as Baliol had repeatedly renounced all pretenſions to the crown of Scotland, Comyn might now be conſidered as the rightful heir. His rival in power and pretenſions was Bruce earl of Carrick. This young nobleman's grandfather, *the competitor*, had patiently acquieſced in the award of Edward. His father, yielding to the times, had ſerved under the Engliſh banners. But young Bruce had more ambition, and a more reſtleſs ſpirit. In his earlier years he acted upon no regular plan. By turns the partiſan of Edward and the vicegerent of Baliol, he ſeems to have forgotten or ſtifled his pretenſions to the crown. But his character developed itſelf by degrees, and in maturer age became firm and conſiſtent. According to the traditionary report, Bruce made the following propoſal to Comyn: "Support my title to the crown, and I will give you my eſtate; or give me your eſtate, and I will ſupport your's." The conditions were properly drawn out and ſigned by both parties; but Comyn, either through fear or treachery, revealed the whole to Edward. On this the king ſhowed Bruce the letters of his accuſer, and queſtioned him very hard; but the latter found means to pacify him by mild and judicious anſwers. Notwithſtanding this, however, Edward ſtill ſuſpected him, though he diſſembled his ſentiments, until he ſhould get the brothers of Bruce into his power, and then deſtroy all the family at once. The king having drank freely one evening, informed ſome of his lords that he had reſolved to put Bruce to death next day. The earl of Glouceſter, hearing this reſolution, ſent a meſſenger to Bruce, with twelve pence and a pair of ſpurs, as if he had meant to reſtore what he had borrowed. Bruce

128 Edward's deſigns againſt the family of Bruce.

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underſtood the meaning of his meſſage, and prepared for flight. The ground was covered with ſnow, which would have diſcovered his flight; but, it is ſaid, that Bruce ordered his farrier to invert the ſhoes of his horſes, and immediately ſet out for Scotland in company with his ſecretary and groom. In his way he obſerved a foot-paſſenger whoſe behaviour ſeemed to be ſuſpicious, and whom he ſoon diſcovered to be the bearer of letters from Comyn to the Engliſh monarch, urging the death or immediate impriſonment of Bruce. The latter, filled with reſentment, immediately beheaded the meſſenger, and ſet forward to his caſtle of Lochmaben, where he arrived the ſeventh day after his departure from London. Soon after this he repaired to Dumfries, where Comyn happened at that time to reſide. Bruce requeſted an interview with him in the convent of the Minorites, where he reproached him with his treachery. Comyn gave him the lie, and Bruce inſtantly ſtabbed him; after which he haſtened out of the convent, and called, "To horſe." His attendants, Lindeſay and Kirkpatrick, perceiving him pale, and in extreme agitation, inquired how it was with him? "Ill," replied Bruce; "I doubt I have ſlain Comyn." "You doubt!" cried Kirkpatrick; on ſaying which, he ruſhed into the place where Comyn lay, and inſtantly diſpatched him. Sir Robert Comyn, a relation, attempted to defend his kinſman, and ſhared his fate. Bruce had now gone ſo far, that it was in vain to think of retracting; and therefore ſet himſelf in oppoſition to Edward in good earneſt. The juſticiaries were then holding their court at Dumfries; who hearing what had happened, imagined their own lives to be in danger, and barricaded the doors. Bruce ordered the houſe to be ſet on fire: upon which they ſurrendered; and Bruce granted them leave to depart out of Scotland without moleſtation.

129 Robert Bruce makes his eſcape.

130 And kills John Comyn.

The above account of this cataſtrophe is taken from the Scots hiſtorians; thoſe of England differ in many particulars. Lord Hailes ſuppoſes both to be wrong, and that the true circumſtances of the quarrel are unknown. "My opinion (ſays he) is, that Bruce, when he met Comyn at Dumfries, had no intention of embruing his hands in his blood, nor any immediate purpoſe of aſſerting his right to the crown of Scotland; that the ſlaughter of Comyn was occaſioned by a haſty quarrel between two proud-ſpirited rivals; and that Bruce, from neceſſity and deſpair, did then aſſert his pretenſions to the crown."

131 Opinion of Lord Hailes concerning this event.

The death of Comyn affected the Scots variouſly, according to their different views and intereſts. The relations of the deceaſed viewed it as a cruel aſſaſſination, and joined with Edward in ſchemes of revenge. Some, who wiſhed well to the peace of their country, thought that it was better to ſubmit quietly to the government of the Engliſh, than to attempt a revolution, which could not be effected without much danger and bloodſhed; but, on the other hand, the friends of Bruce now ſaw the neceſſity they were under of proceeding to the coronation of the new king without loſs of time. The ceremony was therefore performed at Scone on the 25th of March 1306, in preſence of two earls, the biſhops of St Andrew's and Glaſgow, the abbot of Scone, John de Athol, and John de Menteith. It had been cuſtomary, ſince the days of Macbeth, for one

132 Robert crowned king of Scotland by a woman.

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one of the family of Fife to put the crown on the king's head; and Bruce found the prepossession of the Scots in favour of this circumstance so strong, that he was obliged to seek for an expedient to satisfy them. Macduff the earl of Fife was at that time in England, where he had married a near relation of Edward. His sister was wife to the earl of Buchan, one of the heads of the family of Comyn, and consequently the determined enemy of Robert. By an uncommon effort of female patriotism, she postponed all private quarrels to the good of her country, and in her husband's absence repaired, with all his warlike accouterments, to Bruce, to whom she delivered them up, and placed the crown upon his head. This crown is said to have been made by one Conyers an Englishman, who narrowly escaped being punished for it by Edward.

The king of England received intelligence of all these proceedings with astonishment; and without delay sent a body of troops, under the command of Aymer de Valence earl of Pembroke, to suppress the rebellion. Bruce omitted nothing for his defence. He had always been confidered by his countrymen as a promising accomplished young nobleman, but firmly attached to Edward's person and government; for which reason he had not been trusted by those independent patriots who joined Wallace. But their confidence was now gained by his rendering himself so obnoxious to Edward, that no possibility of a reconciliation was left; and he soon saw himself at the head of a small army. With these, who consisted of raw and unexperienced soldiers, Bruce formed a camp at Methven near Perth, which last was the head-quarters of the enemy; but knowing the disadvantage under which he laboured from the inexperience of his men, he resolved to act upon the defensive. The English general at last sent Bruce a challenge to fight him, which was accepted; but, the day before the battle was to have been fought by agreement, the Scots were attacked by surprise, and totally defeated. Bruce behaved with the greatest valour, and had three horses killed under him. Being known by the slaughter which he made, John Mowbray, a man of great courage and resolution, rushed upon him, and catching hold of his horse's bridle, cried out, "I have hold of the new-made king!" but he was delivered by Christopher Seaton. Some Scottish historians have asserted, that on this occasion all the prisoners of note were put to death; but others inform us, that though Edward did send orders to that purpose, the English general pardoned all those who were willing to swear fealty to his master: however, it is certain, that after the battle of Methven, many prisoners were hanged and quartered.

133 He is defeated at Methven.

134 Is distressed after this defeat.

This disaster almost gave the finishing stroke to the affairs of Bruce. He now found himself deserted by a great part of his army. The English had taken prisoners great numbers of women whose husbands followed Bruce; and all those were now ordered, on pain of death, to accompany their husbands. Thus was Bruce burdened with a number of useless mouths, and found it hard to subsist. The consequence was, that most of his men departed with their families, so that in a few days his army dwindled down to 500. With these he retreated to Aberdeen, where he was met by his brother Sir Neil, his wife, and a number of other ladies, all of whom offered to follow his fortune through every difficulty. But however heroic this behaviour might be, it put Bruce to some inconvenience, as he could scarce procure subsistence; and therefore he persuaded the ladies to retire to his castle of Kildrommey, under the protection of Sir Neil Bruce and the earl of Athol. In the mean time the desertion among Bruce's troops continued, so that now he had with him no more than 200 men; and as winter was coming on, he resolved to go into Argyleshire, where Sir Neil Campbell's estate lay, who had gone before to prepare for his reception. In his way thither he encountered incredible difficulties; and some of his followers being cut off at a place called *Dalry*, the rest were so disheartened, that they all forsook him, excepting Sir Gilbert Hay, Sir James (sometimes called lord) Douglas, and a few domestics. Bruce, however, kept up the spirits of his little party by recounting to them the adventures of princes and patriots in circumstances similar to his own. Having crossed Lochlomond in a small crazy boat, he was discovered by his trusty friend the earl of Lenox, who had been proscribed in England, and now lived in a kind of exile on his own estate. The meeting between these friends was very affecting, and drew tears from the eyes of all present. Lenox, who had heard nothing of Bruce's misfortunes, furnished him and his half-famished attendants with plenty of provisions: but, being soon made sensible that it was impossible for them to live in a place where they were well known, and surrounded by enemies, Bruce resolved to seek out some more safe habitation. For this purpose Sir Neil Campbell had already provided shipping; but our adventurers had scarcely set sail, when they were pursued by a large squadron of the enemy's fleet. The bark which carried the earl of Lenox escaped with the utmost difficulty to Cantire, where Bruce was already landed: and, at their meeting, both agreed that their persons should never afterwards be separated while they remained alive.

135 Reaches Argyleshire with great difficulty.

136 Meets with the earl of Lenox.

137 With whom he flies to Cantyre.

In the mean time Edward, having compromised some differences with his English subjects, resumed his old project of entirely subduing Scotland; and his intention now appears to have been to divide the lands of such as he suspected of disaffection among his English followers. He ordered a proclamation to be made, that all who had any title to the honour of knighthood, either by heritage or estate, should repair to Westminster, to receive all military ornaments, their horses excepted, from his royal wardrobe. As the prince of Wales came under this denomination, he was the first who underwent the ceremony; which gave him a right to confer the like honour on the sons of above 300 of the chief nobility and gentry of England. The prince then repaired, at the head of this gallant train, to Edward; who received them, surrounded by his nobility, in the most solemn manner. The king then made a speech on the treachery of the Scots, whose entire destruction he vowed. He declared his resolution of once more heading his army in person; and he desired, in case of his death, that his body might be carried to Scotland, and not buried till signal vengeance was taken on the perfidious nation.

138 Edward's preparations for a new invasion of Scotland.

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tion. Having then ordered all present to join him within fifteen days, with their attendants and military equipages, he prepared for his journey into Scotland. He entered the country soon after Bruce's defeat at Methven. The army was divided into two bodies; one commanded by the king himself; the other by the prince of Wales, and, under him, by the earls of Lancaster and Hereford, with orders to proceed northwards, and penetrate into the countries where the interest of Bruce was strongest. As he passed along, Edward caused all that fell into his hands, whom he suspected of favouring Bruce's party, to be immediately executed. The bishop of Glasgow was the only exception to this barbarity; he was taken, but had his life spared on account of his function.

139 Enters the country, and behaves with great cruelty.

In the mean time, as the prince of Wales continued his march northwards, Bruce's queen began to be alarmed for her own safety. She was advised to take sanctuary at the shrine of St Duthac in Rossshire; but there she was made prisoner by William earl of Ross, who was of the English party. By Edward's order, she was sent to London; her daughter, who was taken at the same time, being shut up in a religious house. The directions for the entertainment of the queen are still preserved *. She was to be conveyed to the manor of Brustewick; to have a waiting-woman, and a maid-servant, advanced in life, sedate, and of good conversation: a butler, two men-servants, and a footboy for her chamber, sober, not riotous, to make her bed: three gre-hounds when she inclines to hunt; venison, fish, and the fairest house in the manor. In 1308, she was removed to another prison; in 1312, she was removed to Windsor castle, 20 shillings *per* week being allowed for her maintenance. In 1314, she was committed to Rochester castle, and was not set at liberty till the close of that year.

140 Robert's queen and daughter taken prisoners.

* *Fœdera*, Tom. ii. p. 1013.

The only fortress which Bruce possessed in Scotland was the castle of Kildrommey; and it was soon besieged by the earls of Lancaster and Hereford. One Osburn treacherously burnt the magazine; by which means the garrison, destitute of provisions, was obliged to surrender at discretion. The common soldiers were hanged; Sir Neil Bruce and the earl of Athol were sent prisoners to Edward, who caused them to be hanged on a gallows 50 feet high, and then beheaded and burnt. The countess of Buchan, who had crowned king Robert, was taken prisoner; as was lady Mary Bruce, the king's sister. Some historians say, that Edward ordered these two ladies to be shut up in wooden cages, one to be hung over the walls of the castle of Roxburgh, and the other over those of Berwick, as public spectacles; but lord Hailes only tells us, that the countess of Buchan was put into close confinement in the castle of Berwick (A).

141 Kildrommey castle taken, and the garrison massacred.

142 Adventures of Robert.

About this time also many others of Bruce's party were put to death; among whom were Thomas and Alexander Bruce, two of the king's brothers, and John Wallace, brother to the celebrated Sir William. Bruce himself, in the mean time, was in such a despicable situation, that it was thought he never could give more disturbance; and it was even reported that he was dead. All his misfortunes, however, could not intimidate him, or prevent his meditating a most severe revenge upon the destroyers of his family. He first removed to the castle of Dumbarton, where he was hospitably received and entertained by Angus lord of Kintyre; but, suspecting that he was not safe there, he sailed in three days to Rachrin, a small island on the Irish coast, where he secured himself effectually from the pursuit of his enemies. It was during his stay in this island, that the report of his death was generally propagated. Notwithstanding this, his party increased considerably; and, even when he landed on this island, he was attended by 300 men. However, after having lived for some time in this retreat, being apprehensive that the report of his death might be generally

(A) M. Westminster. p. 455. says, "Capitur etiam et illa impiissima conjuratrix de Buchan, de qua consultus Rex, ait, Quia gladio non percussit, gladio non peribit; verum, propter illicitam conjurationem quam fecit, in domicilio lapideo et ferreo, in modum coronæ fabricato, firmissime obstruatur, et apud Bervicum sub dio forinsecus suspendatur, ut sit data, in vita et post mortem, speculum viatoribus, et opprobrium sempiternum." Other English historians, copying M. Westminster, have said the same thing. We cannot, therefore, blame Abercrombie for saying, "She was put in a wooden cage shaped like a crown, and in that tormenting posture hung out from high walls or turrets to be gazed upon and reproached by the meanest of the multitude;" vol. i. p. 579. Hemingford, vol. I. p. 221. relates the story in a manner somewhat different. He says, that the earl of Buchan her husband fought to kill her for her treason; but that Edward restrained him, and ordered her to be confined in a wooden cage.

The intentions of Edward I. touching the durance of the countess of Buchan, will be more certainly learned from his own orders, than from the report of M. Westminster. His orders run thus: "By letters under the privy-seal, be it commanded, that the chamberlain of Scotland, or his deputy at Berwick upon Tweed, do, in one of the turrets of the said castle, and in the place which he shall find most convenient, cause construct a cage strongly latticed with wood, (*de fusts*, i. e. beams of timber or palisades), cross-barred, and secured with iron, in which he shall put the countess of Buchan. And that he take care that she be so well and safely guarded therein, that in no sort she may issue therefrom. And that he appoint one or more women of Berwick, of English extraction, and liable to no suspicion, *who shall minister to the said countess in eating and drinking, and in all things else convenient, in her said lodging-place.* And that he do cause her to be so well and strictly guarded in the cage, that she may not speak with any one, man or woman, of the Scottish nation, or with any one else, saving with the women who shall be appointed to attend her, or with the guard who shall have the custody of her person. And that the cage be so constructed *that the countess may have therein the convenience of a decent chamber*, (esement de chambre courtoise); nevertheless, that all things be so well and surely ordered, that no peril arise touching the right custody of the said countess. And that he to whom the charge of her is committed shall be responsible, body for body; and that he be allowed his charges." *Fœdera*, T. ii. p. 1014.

Such were the orders of Edward I. and *he* surely was not a man who would suffer his orders to be disobeyed. Here, indeed, there is a detail concerning the custody of a female prisoner, which may seem ridiculously minute, but which is inconsistent with the story related by M. Westminster and other historians. To those who have no notion of any cage but one for a parrot or a squirrel, hung out at a window, we despair of rendering this mandate intelligible.

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nerally credited among his friends in Scotland, it was resolved to attempt the surprise of a fort held by the English under Sir John Hastings, on the isle of Arran. This was performed with success by his two friends Douglas and Sir Robert Boyd, who put the greatest part of the garrison to the sword. The king, hearing of their success, passed over into Arran; but, not knowing where his people resided, is said to have found them out by blowing a horn. He then sent a trusty servant, one Cuthbert, into his own country of Carrick; with orders, in case he found it well affected to his cause, to light a fire on a certain point near his castle of Tunberry, whence it could be discerned in Arran. Bruce and his party perceived the signal, as they thought, and immediately put to sea. Their voyage took up but little time; and as Bruce had now 400 men along with him, he resolved immediately to act on the offensive. His first exploit was to surprise his own castle of Tunberry, which had been given, along with Bruce's estate, to lord Henry Percy. Him he drove out, along with the English garrison; but in the mean time he met with his servant Cuthbert, who gave him disagreeable intelligence. This man had met with very little encouragement on his landing in Scotland; in consequence of which he had not lighted the fire agreed upon as a signal of his success, that which Bruce had observed having been kindled by accident. He also told him, that the English were in full possession of the country, and advised his master to be upon his guard. Soon after this the king was joined by a lady of fortune, who brought along with her 40 warriors. By her he was first particularly informed of the miserable fate of his family and relations; which, instead of disheartening, animated him the more with a desire of revenge. However, he did not immediately attempt any thing himself, but allowed Douglas to attempt the recovery of his estate of Douglas-dale, as Bruce himself had recovered his in Carrick. In this expedition Douglas was joined by one Thomas Dickson, a man of considerable fortune, and who gave him intelligence concerning the state of the country. By his advice he kept himself private till Palm Sunday; when he and his followers, with covered armour, repaired to St Bride's church, where the English were performing divine service. The latter were surprised, but made a brave defence; though, being overpowered by numbers, they were at last obliged to yield. Douglas, without farther resistance, took possession of his own castle, which he found well furnished with arms, provisions, and money. He destroyed all that he could not carry with him, and also the castle itself, where he knew that he must have been besieged if he had kept it.

143 He takes a fort on the isle of Arran.

144 And the castle of Tunberry in Carrick.

145 Douglas recovers his own estate.

While Bruce and his friends were thus signalizing themselves, and struggling with the English under so many disadvantages, it is natural to think that they must have metwith many dangerous and difficult adventures. Many of these indeed are related by the Scots historians; but most of them have the appearance of fables, and it is now impossible to distinguish the true from the false; for which reason we shall pass them all over in silence, confining ourselves only to those facts which are at once important and well authenticated.

In 1307, the earl of Pembroke, advanced into the west of Scotland to encounter Bruce. The latter did not decline the combat; and Pembroke was defeated. Three days after this, Bruce defeated with great slaughter another English general named Ralph de Monthermer, and obliged him to fly to the castle of Air. The king laid siege to the castle for some time, but retired at the approach of succours from England. This year the English performed nothing but of burning the monastery at Paisley. Edward, however, resolved still to execute his utmost vengeance on the Scots, tho' he had long been retarded in his operations by a tedious and dangerous indisposition. But now, supposing that his malady was decreased so far that he could safely proceed on his march, he offered up the horse-litter, in which he had hitherto been carried, in the cathedral church of Carlisle; and, mounting himself on horseback, proceeded on the way towards Solway. He was so weak, however, that he could advance no farther than six miles in four days; after which he expired in sight of Scotland, which he had so often devoted to destruction. With his dying breath he gave orders that his body should accompany his army into Scotland, and remain unburied until the country was totally subdued; but his son, disregarding this order, caused it to be deposited in Westminster abbey.

146 The English twice defeated by Robert.

147 Death of Edward I.

The death of such an inveterate enemy to the Scottish name could not fail of raising the spirits of Bruce and his party; and the inactive and timid behaviour of his son Edward II. contributed not a little to give them fresh courage. After having granted the guardianship of Scotland to his favourite Piers de Gaveston earl of Pembroke, whom his father had lately banished, he advanced to Cumnock, on the frontiers of Airshire, and then retreated into England; conferring the office of guardian of Scotland upon John de Bretagne earl of Richmond, a fortnight after he had bestowed it on Gaveston. He was no sooner gone than Bruce invaded Galloway. The inhabitants refusing to follow his standard, he laid waste the country; but was defeated, and obliged to retire northwards, by the guardian. In the north he over-ran the country without opposition; and soon began to move southwards again, in order to repair his late disgrace. He was encountered by Comyn earl of Buchan with an undisciplined body of English, whom he entirely defeated and dispersed. But about this time he was seized with a grievous distemper, which weakened him so much, that no hopes were left of his recovery. In this enfeebled situation he was attacked by the earl of Buchan and John Mowbray an English commander, who had assembled a body of troops with design to efface their late disgrace. The armies met at Inverury in Aberdeenshire. Bruce was too weak to support himself, and therefore was held upon horseback by two attendants: but he had the pleasure of seeing his enemies totally defeated, and pursued with great slaughter for many miles; and it is reported, that the agitation of his spirits on that day proved the means of curing him of his disease. This battle was fought on the 22d day of May 1308.

148 Robert defeated in Galloway.

149 He defeats the English in his turn, and recovers from a dangerous disease.

The king of Scotland now took revenge of his enemies, after the manner of that barbarous age, by wasting the country of Buchan with fire and sword. His successes had so raised his character, that many of the Scots who had hitherto adhered to the English cause, now

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now came over to that of Robert. Edward, the king's brother, invaded Galloway, and defeated the inhabitants of that country. John de St John, an English commander, with 1500 horsemen, attempted to surprise him; but Edward having received timely information of his designs, ordered the infantry and meaner part of his army to entrench themselves strongly, while he himself, with no more than 50 horsemen, well armed, under cover of a thick mist, attacked his enemies, and put them to flight. After this he reduced all the fortresses in the country, and totally expelled the English from it. About this time also, Douglas, when roving about the mountainous parts of Tweedale, surprised and made prisoners Thomas Randolph the king's nephew, and Alexander Stewart of Bonkhill, who had hitherto continued inimical to the interests of Robert. Randolph was conducted to the king, but talked to him in an haughty strain; upon which his uncle put him into close confinement.

150 Successes of Edward Bruce.

151 The lord of Lorn defeated, and his castle taken.

The next exploit of Robert was against the lord of Lorn, a division of Argyleshire. It was this nobleman who had reduced the king to such straits after his defeat at Methven; and he now resolved to take ample revenge. Having entered the country, the king arrived at a narrow pass, where the troops of Lorn lay in ambush. This pass had a high mountain on the one side, and a precipice washed by the sea on the other; but Robert having ordered Douglas to make a circuit and gain the summit of the mountain with part of the army, he entered himself with the rest. He was immediately attacked: but Douglas with his men rushed down the hill, and decided the victory in favour of the king; who soon after took the castle of Dunstaffnage, the chief residence of this nobleman.

152 Unsuccessful negociations for peace.

While Robert and his associates were thus gaining the admiration of their countrymen by the exploits which they daily performed, the English were so unsettled and fluctuating in their counsels, that their party knew not how to act. Edward still imagined that there was a possibility of reconciling the Scots to his government: and for this purpose he employed William de Lambyrton, bishop of St Andrew's; who, after having been taken prisoner, and carried from one place of confinement to another, had at last made such submissions, as procured first his liberty, and then the confidence of Edward. This ecclesiastic having taken a most solemn oath of fidelity to Edward, now resolved to ingratiate himself, by publishing against Robert and his adherents a sentence of excommunication, which had been resolved on long before. This, however, produced no effect; and the event was, that, in 1309, through the mediation of the king of France, Edward consented to a truce with the Scots. This pacific disposition, however, lasted not long. The truce was scarcely concluded, when Edward charged the Scots with a breach of it, and summoned his barons to meet him in arms at Newcastle: yet, probably being doubtful of the event of the war, he empowered Robert de Umfraville, and three others, to conclude a new truce; declaring, however, that he did this at the request of Philip king of France, as his dearest father and friend, but who was in no sort to be considered as the ally of Scotland.

The new negociations were soon interrupted. They were again renewed; and in the beginning of the year 1310 the truce was concluded, but entirely disregarded by the Scots. The progress of Bruce now became very alarming. The town of Perth, a place at that time of great importance, was threatened; and to relieve it, Edward ordered a fleet to sail up the river Tay: he also commanded the earl of Ulster to assemble a body of troops at Dublin, and from thence to invade Scotland; his own barons were ordered to meet him in arms at Berwick. About the end of September, he entered Scotland; passed from Roxburgh, through the forest of Selkirk, to Biggar; from thence he penetrated into Renfrew; and turning back by the way of Linlithgow, he retreated to Berwick, where he continued inactive for eight months.

153 Edward invades Scotland without success.

During this invasion, Robert had carefully avoided a battle with the English; well knowing, that an invasion undertaken in autumn would ruin the heavy-armed cavalry, on which the English placed their chief dependence. His cause was also favoured by a scarcity which prevailed at this time in Scotland; for thus, as magazines and other resources of modern war were then unknown, the English army were greatly retarded in their operations, and found it impossible to subsist in the country.

154 Linlithgow castle surprised by the Scots.

The spirit of enterprise had now communicated itself to all ranks of people in Scotland. In 1311, the castle of Linlithgow was surprised by a poor peasant, named *William Binnock*. The English garrison were secure, and kept but a slight guard; of which Binnock being informed, concealed eight resolute men in a load of hay, which he had been employed to drive into the castle. With these, as soon as the gate was opened, he fell upon the feeble guard, and became master of the place; which was dismantled by Robert, as well as all the other castles taken in the course of the war.

155 Robert invades England, and takes Perth on his return.

Edward now resolved to invade Scotland again; and for this purpose ordered his army to assemble at Roxburgh. But Robert, not contented with defending his own country, resolved in his turn to invade England. He accordingly entered that country, and cruelly ravaged the bishopric of Durham. He returned loaded with spoil, and laid siege to Perth. Having remained six weeks before the place, he raised the siege, but returned in a few days; and having provided scaling ladders, approached the works with a chosen body of infantry. In a dark night he made the attack; and having waded through the ditch, though the water stood to his throat, he was the second man who reached the top of the walls. The town was then soon taken; after which it was plundered and burnt, and the fortifications levelled with the ground. This happened on the 8th of January 1312.

156 Invades England a second time with great success.

Edward was now become averse to the war, and renewed his negociations for a truce; but they still came to nothing. Robert again invaded England; burnt great part of the city of Durham; and even threatened to besiege Berwick, where the king of England had, for the time, fixed his residence. He next reduced the castles of Butel, Dumfries, and Dalswinton, with many other fortresses. The castle of Roxburgh, a place of the utmost importance, next fell into his hands. The walls were scaled while the garrison were revelling on the eve of Lent. They retreated into the inner

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inner tower; but their governor, a Frenchman, having received a mortal wound, they capitulated.

157 The Castle of Edinburgh taken by Randolph,

Randolph, the king's nephew, who had been imprisoned, as we have already observed, was now received into favour, and began to distinguish himself in the cause of his country. He blockaded the castle of Edinburgh so closely, that all communication with the neighbouring country was cut off. The place was commanded by one Leland, a knight of Gascony; but the garrison suspecting his fidelity, imprisoned him in a dungeon, and chose another commander in his stead. One William Frank presented himself to Randolph, and informed him how the walls might be scaled. This man in his youth had resided in the castle; and having an intrigue with a woman in the neighbourhood, had been accustomed to descend the wall, during the night, by means of a ladder of ropes; whence, by a steep and difficult path, he arrived at the foot of the rock. Randolph himself, with 30 men, undertook to scale the castle-walls at midnight. Frank was their guide, who still retained a perfect memory of the path, and who first ascended the wall. But before the whole party could reach the summit, an alarm was given, the garrison ran to arms, and a desperate combat ensued. The English fought valiantly till their commander was killed; after which they threw down their arms. Leland, the former governor, was released from his confinement, and entered into the Scottish service.

158 Robert invades England, and reduces the isle of Man.

In 1313, king Robert found the number of his friends increasing with his successes. He was now joined by the earl of Athol, who had lately obtained a grant of lands from Edward. This year, thro' the mediation of France, the conferences for a truce were renewed. These, however, did not retard the military operations of the Scots. Cumberland was invaded and laid waste: the miserable inhabitants besought Edward's protection; who commended their fidelity, and desired them to defend themselves. In the mean time Robert, leaving Cumberland, passed over into the isle of Man, which he totally reduced. Edward found great difficulties in raising the supplies necessary for carrying on the war; but at last overcame all these, and, by the beginning of the year 1314, was prepared to invade Scotland with a mighty army. In March he ordered his ships to be assembled for the invasion; invited to his assistance Eth O'Connor, chief of the Irish of Connaught, and 26 other Irish chiefs; summoned them and his subjects in Ireland to attend his standard, and gave the command of these auxiliaries to the earl of Ulster. His barons were summoned to meet him at Berwick on the 11th of June; and 22,000 foot-soldiers, from the different counties of England and Wales, were required by proclamation to assemble at Wark.

159 Edward Bruce enters into an imprudent treaty with the governor of Stirling.

In the mean time the successes of the Scots continued. Edward Bruce had reduced the castles of Rutherglen and Dundee, and laid siege to the castle of Stirling. The governor of the place agreed to surrender, if he was not relieved before the 24th of June 1314; and to this Edward agreed, without consulting his brother. The king was highly displeased with this rash treaty, which interrupted his own operations, allowed the English time to assemble their utmost force, and at last obliged him either to raise the siege or to put all on the event of a single battle. However, he resolved to abide by the agreement, and to meet the English by the appointed day. Having appointed a general rendezvous of his forces between Falkirk and Stirling, he found their number to amount to somewhat more than 30,000, besides upwards of 15,000 of an undisciplined rabble that followed the camp. He determined to wait the English in a field which had the brook or *burn* of Bannock on the right, and Stirling on the left. His chief dread was the strength and number of the English cavalry, and these he took every method to oppose. The banks of the brook were steep in many places, and the ground between it and Stirling was partly covered with wood. The king commanded many pits, of about a foot in breadth and two or three feet deep, to be dug in all places where cavalry could have access. From the description given of them by the historians of those times, there seem to have been many rows of them, with narrow intervals. They were carefully covered with brushwood and sod, so that they would easily be overlooked by a rash and impetuous enemy. It is said by some authors, that he also made use of calthrops, to annoy the horses in the most effectual manner.

160 Which brings on the decisive engagement of Bannockburn.

161 Disposition of the Scots.

On the 23d of June, the Scots received intelligence of the approach of Edward, and prepared to decide of the fate of their country. The front of their army extended from the brook called *Bannockburn* to the neighbourhood of St Ninians, pretty nearly upon the line of the present turnpike-road from Stirling to Kilsyth; and the stone in which the king is said to have fixed his standard, is still to be seen. Robert commanded all his soldiers to fight on foot. He gave the command of the centre to Douglas, and Walter the young steward of Scotland; his brother Edward had the command of the right wing, and Randolph of the left; the king himself taking charge of the reserve, which consisted of the men of Argyle, Carrick, and the islanders. In a valley to the rear, said to be to the westward of a rising ground now called *Gillies-hill*, he placed the baggage, and all the useless attendants on his army.

162 A party of English cavalry defeated by Randolph.

Randolph was commanded to be vigilant in preventing the English from throwing succours into the castle of Stirling; but 800 horsemen, commanded by Sir Robert Clifford, made a circuit by the low grounds to the east, and approached the castle. The king, perceiving their motions, chid Randolph for his inadvertency, on which the latter hasted to encounter that body. As he advanced, the English wheeled to attack him. Randolph drew up his men in a circular form, with their spears protended on every side. At the first onset Sir William Daynecourt, an English commander of distinguished valour, was killed; but Randolph, who had only a small party with him, was surrounded on all sides, and in the utmost danger. Douglas perceived his danger, and requested the king to let him go to his assistance. Robert at first refused, but afterwards consented with reluctance. Douglas set out without delay: but, as he approached he saw the English falling into disorder; upon which he called to his men to stop, and not diminish the glory of Randolph and his men by sharing their victory.

163 An English knight killed in single combat by King Robert.

Robert was in the front of the line when the vanguard of the English appeared. He was meanly dressed, with a crown above his helmet, and a battle-

ax

Scotland. ax in his hand. Henry de Bohun, an Engliſh knight, armed cap-a-pee, rode forward to encounter him. Robert did not decline the combat, and ſtruck his antagoniſt ſo violently with his battle-ax, that he is ſaid to have cleft him down to the chin; after which the Engliſh vanguard retreated in confuſion. The Scottiſh generals are ſaid to have blamed their king for his raſhneſs in thus encountering Bohun; and he himſelf, conſcious of the juſtice of their charge, only replied, "I have broke my good battle-ax."

164 Commanders of the Engliſh army.

On Monday the 24th of June, the whole Engliſh army moved on to the attack. The van, conſiſting of archers and lancemen, was commanded by Gilbert de Clare earl of Glouceſter, nephew to the Engliſh king, and Humphry de Bohun conſtable of England: but the ground was ſo narrow, that the reſt of the army had not ſufficient room to expand itſelf; ſo that it appeared to the Scots as conſiſting of one great compact body. The main body was brought up by Edward in perſon, attended by Aymer de Valence earl of Pembroke, and Sir Giles d'Argentine, two experienced commanders. Maurice abbot of Inchaffray, placing himſelf on an eminence, celebrated maſs in the ſight of the Scottiſh army. He then paſſed along the front, barefooted, with a crucifix in his hands, and in few words exhorted the Scots to fight for their rights and liberty. The Scots fell down on their knees; which being perceived by Edward, he cried out, "They yield! See, they implore mercy." "They do," anſwered Umfraville, one of his commanders, "they do implore mercy, but not from us. On that field they will be victorious or die."

165 The Engliſh entirely defeated.

As both parties were violently exaſperated againſt each other, the engagement began with great fury. The king of Scotland, perceiving that his troops were grievouſly annoyed by the Engliſh archers, ordered Sir Robert Keith the mariſchal, with a few armed horſemen, to make a circuit and attack the archers in flank. This was inſtantly accompliſhed; and as the weapons of the archers were uſeleſs in a cloſe encounter, they could make very little reſiſtance, at the ſame time that their flight ſpread diſorder thro' the whole army.

Robert now advanced with the reſerve: the whole Engliſh army was in the utmoſt confuſion; for the defeat of the archers had decided the victory in favour of the Scots. The young and gallant earl of Glouceſter attempted to rally the fugitives, but was thrown from his horſe and cut in pieces, which increaſed the general confuſion. At this critical moment, the numerous attendants on the Scottiſh camp, prompted by curioſity or the deſire of plunder, iſſued from their retirement. The Engliſh miſtook them for a body of freſh troops coming to the aſſiſtance of their enemies, and fled with precipitation on all ſides. Many ſought refuge among the rocks in the neighbourhood of Stirling caſtle; and many were drowned in the rivers. Pembroke and Sir Giles d'Argentine had never quitted Edward during the action; but now, ſeeing the battle irretrievably loſt, Pembroke conſtrained the king to quit the field. D'Argentine refuſed to fly. He was a man of great valour, and had a high reputation in Scotland. According to the vulgar opinion, the three moſt eminent worthies in that age were the emperor Henry of Luxemburg, Robert Bruce, and Giles d'Argentine. He is ſaid to have thrice encountered two Saracen warriors in Paleſtine, and to have killed them both each time. His valour now availed him but little; for ruſhing into the midſt of the Scots army, he was inſtantly cut in pieces. Douglas, with 60 horſemen, purſued Edward cloſe. At the Torwood he met Sir Lawrence Abernethy, who was haſtening to the Engliſh rendezvous with twenty horſemen. The latter ſoon abandoned the cauſe of the vanquiſhed, and joined Douglas in the purſuit of Edward, who fled to Linlithgow. He had ſcarcely arrived there, when he was alarmed by the approach of the Scots, and again obliged to fly. Douglas and Abernethy followed him with ſuch aſſiduity, that (as Lord Hailes chooſes to Latinize the expreſſion of an ancient hiſtorian) *ne vel mingendi locus concederetur;* but, notwithſtanding their utmoſt efforts, Edward got ſafe to Dunbar, where he was received by the earl of March, who protected him till he could be conveyed by ſea to England.

166 Edward eſcapes to Dunbar, and thence to England.

Such was the deciſive battle of Bannockburn, the greateſt defeat the Engliſh ever ſuſtained from the Scots. On the ſide of the latter no perſons of note were ſlain excepting Sir William Vipont, and Sir Walter Roſs the favourite of Edward Bruce; and ſo grievouſly was Edward afflicted by the death of this man, that he exclaimed "O that this day's work were undone, ſo Roſs had not died!" On the Engliſh ſide were ſlain 27 barons and bannerets, and 22 taken priſoners; of knights there were killed 42, and 60 taken priſoners; of eſquires there fell 700; but the number of the common men who were killed or taken, was never known with any certainty. The Welſh who had ſerved in the Engliſh army were ſcattered over the country, and cruelly butchered by the Scottiſh peaſants. The Engliſh, who had taken refuge among the rocks in the neighbourhood of Stirling, ſurrendered at diſcretion: the caſtle was ſurrendered, and the privyſeal of England fell into the hands of the king of Scots. The ſpoils of the Engliſh camp were immenſe, and enriched the conquerors, along with the ranſom of many noble priſoners who fell into their hands. Robert ſhowed much generoſity in his treatment of the priſoners who fell to his ſhare. He ſet at liberty Ralph de Monthermer, and Sir Marmaduke Twerge, two officers of high rank, without ranſom; and by humane and generous offices alleviated the misfortune of the reſt. The dead bodies of the earl of Glouceſter and the lord Clifford were ſent to England, that they might be interred with the uſual ſolemnity. There was one Baſton, a Carmelite frier and poet, whom Edward is ſaid to have brought with him in his train to be ſpectator of his atchievements, and to record his triumphs. Baſton was made priſoner, and obliged to celebrate the victory of Robert over the Engliſh. This he did in wretched Latin rhymes; which, however, procured his liberty. After the battle of Bannockburn, the earl of Hereford retreated to the caſtle of Bothwell, where he was beſieged by Edward Bruce, and ſoon obliged to ſurrender. He was exchanged for the wife, ſiſter, and daughter of the king, the young earl of Marr, and the biſhop of Glaſgow.

167 Loſs of the Engliſh in the battle of Bannockburn.

168 The king's family ſet at liberty.

The terror of the Engliſh after the defeat at Bannockburn is almoſt incredible. Walſingham aſſerts, that

Scotland.

169 Consternation of the English.

that many of them revolted to the Scots, and assisted them in plundering their own country. "The English," says he, "were so bereaved of their wonted intrepidity, that an hundred of that nation would have fled from two or three Scotsmen." Edward Bruce and Douglas entered England on the eastern side, ravaged Norththumberland, and laid the bishopric of Durham under contribution. From thence they proceeded to Richmond, laid Appleby and some other towns in ashes, and returned home loaded with plunder. Edward summoned a parliament at York, in order to concert means for the public security; and appointed the earl of Pembroke, formerly the guardian of Scotland, to be guardian of the country between the Trent and the Tweed. Robert, however, sent ambassadors to treat of a peace; but the Scots were too much elated with their good fortune to make concessions, and the English were not yet sufficiently humbled to yield to all their demands. The ravages of war were again renewed; the Scots continued their incursions into England, and levied contributions in different places.

170 Expedition of Edward Bruce into Ireland.

In 1315, the English affairs seemed a little to revive. The Scots indeed plundered Durham and Hartlepool; but they were repulsed from Carlisle, and failed in an attempt on Berwick. The Irish of Ulster, oppressed by the English government, implored the assistance of Robert, and offered to acknowlege his brother Edward as their sovereign; who accordingly landed at Carrickfergus on the 25th of May 1315, with 6000 men. This was an enterprise evidently beyond the power of Scotland to accomplish, and which could not but be perceived by Robert. However, there were motives which induced him to consent. The offer of a crown, though ever so visionary, inflamed the ambition of Edward Bruce, whose impetuous valour made no account of difficulties, however great. It might have been deemed ungenerous, and perhaps would not have been politic or safe, to have rejected the proposals of the Irish for the advancement of his brother, to whom the king owed more than he could repay. Besides, the invasion of Ireland seemed a proper expedient for dividing the English forces. The event proved unfortunate. Edward, after performing and suffering more than could almost have been expected from human nature, was at last defeated and killed by the English, as is related under the article IRELAND, n° 42.

171 He is defeated and killed.

172 Unsuccessful attempts of the English on Scotland.

The king himself had gone over into Ireland, in order to assist his brother in attempting the subjection of that country; but during his absence the English had made several attempts to disturb the tranquillity of Scotland. The earl of Arundel invaded the forest of Jedburgh with a numerous army; but being drawn into an ambuscade by Douglas, he was defeated with great loss. Edmund de Cailaud, a knight of Gascony and governor of Berwick, invaded and wasted Teviotdale; but while he was returning home loaded with spoil, he was attacked, defeated, and killed by Douglas. Soon after this, intelligence was conveyed to Douglas that one Robert Neville had boasted that he would encounter him whenever he saw his banner displayed. Douglas did not long delay to give him an opportunity. He advanced to the neighbourhood of Berwick, displayed his banner, and burnt some villages. Neville, provoked at these ravages, took the field, encountered Douglas, and was defeated and killed. By sea the English invaded Scotland, and anchored off Inverkeithing in the frith of Forth, where they soon after landed. Five hundred men, under the command the of Earl of Fife and the sheriff of that country, attempted to oppose their landing, but were intimidated by the number of their enemies. William Sinclair bishop of Dunkeld happened to meet the fugitives; and having by his reproaches obliged them to rally, he led them on again to the charge, and drove the English to their ships with considerable loss. For this exploit Robert conferred the title of *the king's bishop* on Sinclair; and he was long remembered by his countrymen on this account.

173 Negociations with the Pope.

In 1317, after king Robert had returned from his Irish expedition, a bull was issued by the pope (John XXII.) commanding a two years truce between England and Scotland, under pain of excommunication. Two cardinals were dispatched into Britain to make known his commands; and they were privately empowered to inflict the highest spiritual censures on Robert Bruce, or whomsoever else they thought proper. About the beginning of September 1317, two messengers were sent to Robert by the cardinals. The king gave them a gracious reception; and after consulting with his barons, returned for answer, that he very much desired a good and perpetual peace, either by the mediation of the cardinals, or by any other means. He allowed the *open* letters from the pope, which recommended peace, to be read in his presence, and listened to them with due respect. But he would not receive the *sealed* letters addressed to *Robert Bruce governor of Scotland;* alleging, that there might be many of his barons whose names were *Robert Bruce*, and that these barons might probably have some share in the government. Unless, therefore, the letters were addressed to him as *king of Scotland*, he could not receive them without advice of his parliament, which he promised immediately to assemble on the occasion. The messengers attempted to apologize for the omission of the title of KING. "The holy church was not wont, "they said," during the dependence of a controversy, to write or say any thing which might be interpreted as prejudicial to the claims of either of the contending parties." "Since then," answered the king, "my spiritual father and my holy mother would not *prejudice* the cause of my adversary by bestowing on me the appellation of *king* during the dependence of the controversy, they ought not to have *prejudiced* my cause by withdrawing that appellation from me. I am in possession of the kingdom of Scotland; all my people call me king; and foreign princes address me under that title; but it seems that my parents are partial to their English son. Had you presumed to present letters with such an address to any other sovereign prince, you might perhaps have been answered in a harsher style; but I reverence you as the messengers of the holy see."

174 Spirited behaviour of Robert.

The messengers, quite abashed with this reply, changed the discourse, and requested the king that he would consent to a temporary cessation of hostilities; but to this he declared, that he never would consent, while the English daily invaded and plundered his people. His counsellors, however, informed the messengers, that if the letters had been addressed to the *king of Scots*, the negociations would instantly have been

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been opened. This slighting omission they imputed to the intrigues of the English at the court of Rome, hinting at the same time that they had received this intelligence from Avignon.

175 A papal truce proclaimed in Scotland.

When the messengers had informed the cardinals of these proceedings, the latter determined to proclaim the papal truce in Scotland; in which hazardous office they employed Adam Newton, guardian of the monastery of Minorites at Berwick, who was charged with letters to the clergy of Scotland, particularly to the bishop of St Andrew's. The monk found the king encamped with his army in a wood near Old Cambus, making preparations for assaulting Berwick. Personal access was denied to the king; but the monk, in obedience to his masters, proclaimed the truce by the authority of the pope. The king sent him for answer, that he would listen to no bulls, till he was treated as king of Scotland, and had made himself master of Berwick.

176 Which is disregarded by the king.

The poor monk, terrified at this answer, requested either a safe-conduct to Berwick, or permission to pass into Scotland, and deliver his letters to the Scottish clergy. Both were refused; and he was commanded to leave the country without loss of time. He set out for Berwick; but in his way thither was attacked by robbers, or some who pretended to be so. By them he was stripped and robbed of all his parchments, together with his letters and instructions; the robbers also, it is said, tore the pope's bull, without any regard to its sanctity.

177 Berwick besieged and taken by the Scots.

In 1318, king Robert proceeded in his enterprise against Berwick, but resolved to employ artifice as well as force in the reduction of it. A citizen of Berwick, by name *Spalding*, having been ill used by the governor, resolved to revenge himself; and therefore wrote a letter to a certain Scottish lord, whose relation he had married, offering on a certain night to betray the post where he kept guard. The nobleman communicated this important intelligence to the king. "You did well," said Robert, "in making me your confident; for if you had told this either to Randolph or Douglas, you would have offended the one whom you did not trust: Both of them, however, shall aid you in the execution of the enterprise." The king then commanded him to repair to a certain place with a body of troops; to which place he also gave separate orders to Douglas and Randolph to repair at the same hour, each with a body of troops under his command. The forces thus cautiously assembled, marched to Berwick, and, assisted by Spalding, scaled the walls, making themselves masters of the town in a few hours. The garrison of the castle, perceiving that the number of Scots was but small, made a desperate sally, with the men who had fled into the castle from the town; but, after an obstinate conflict, they were defeated and driven back, chiefly by the extraordinary valour of a young knight named *Sir William Keith of Galston*.—This happened on the 28th of March 1318.

178 Whoinvade England with great success.

King Robert no sooner heard of the success of his forces against the town, than he hastened to lay siege to the castle of Berwick. This was soon obliged to capitulate; after which the Scots entered Northumberland, and took the castles of Wark, Harbottle, and Mitford. In May, they again invaded England, and penetrated into Yorkshire. In their progress they burnt the towns of Northallerton, Boroughbridge, Scarborough, and Skipton in Craven, forcing the inhabitants of Rippon to redeem themselves by paying 1000 merks: after which they returned to Scotland with much booty; and, as an English historian expresses it, "driving their prisoners before them like flocks of sheep."

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This year the interposition of the pope was obtained against Robert, with a view to intimidate the Scottish nation; and the two cardinals residing in England were commanded to excommunicate *Robert Bruce and his adherents*, on account of his treatment of the messengers of the holy see, and his assault of Berwick, after a truce had been proclaimed by the papal authority. This sentence was accordingly put in execution; though Robert had certainly been excommunicated *once*, if not oftener, before. Messengers were sent from Scotland to Rome, in order to procure a reversal of the sentence: but Edward dispatched the bishop of Hereford, and Hugh d'Espencer the elder, to counteract this negociation, informing his holiness at the same time of certain intercepted letters which had been written from Avignon to Scotland; upon which the pope ordered all the Scots residing at Avignon, and all of that place who had corresponded with Scotland, to be taken into custody.

179 King Robert excommunicated by the Pope.

The most remarkable transaction of this year, however, was the defeat and death of Edward Bruce in Ireland; of which an account is given under the article IRELAND, n° 42. His body was quartered, and distributed for a public spectacle over Ireland; and his head was presented to Edward by John lord Bermingham the commander of the English army; in return for which service, he was rewarded with the title of *earl of Lowth*.

In the mean time Edward, who had summoned a parliament to meet at Lincoln, was obliged to prorogue it on account of the Scottish invasion, and to assemble an army at York for the defence of his country. At Michaelmas it was determined, in a parliament held at London, that every city and town in England should furnish a certain proportion of men completely armed. Thus a considerable body of troops was soon raised; but, when they assembled at York, their party-animosities and mutual distrust rose to such an height, that it was found necessary to send them back to their habitations.

In 1319, Edward, having succeeded so well in his negociations with the court of Rome, resolved to make similar attempts with other powers to the prejudice of the Scottish nation. Accordingly he requested the count of Flanders to prohibit the Scots from entering his country: but to this request he received the following remarkable reply: "Flanders is the common country of all men; I cannot prohibit any merchants from trafficking thither, for such prohibition would prove the ruin of my people." Finding himself baffled in this attempt, the English monarch once more determined to have recourse to war; and with this view commanded his army to assemble at Newcastle upon Tyne, on the 24th of July 1319: but before he proceeded, he requested the prayers of the clergy for the success of his expedition; and, to render their

180 Edward again invades Scotland.

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prayers the more effectual, he at the same time demanded from them a great sum of money by way of loan.

181 Berwick besieged by the English.

Every thing being now in readiness, the English army approached Berwick, which was commanded by Walter the Steward of Scotland. This nobleman had long apprehended an attack from the English, and had taken every means of defence in his power. The enemy, however, confiding in their numbers, made a general assault; but were repulsed on the 7th of September, after a long and obstinate contest. Their next attempt was on the side towards the river. At that time the walls of Berwick were of an inconsiderable height; and it was proposed to bring a vessel close to them, from whence the troops might enter by a drawbridge let down from the mast. But the Scots annoyed the assailants so much, that they could not bring this vessel within the proper distance; and at the ebb of the tide it grounded, and was burnt by the besieged.

182 A new invented engine called a *sow*.

—The English had then recourse to a new-invented engine which they called a *sow*, but for what reason is unknown. In many particulars it resembled the *testudo arietaria* of the ancients. It appears to have been a large fabric composed of timber, and well-roofed, having stages within it, and in height surpassing the wall of the town. It was moved upon wheels, and served for the double purpose of conducting the miners to the foot of the wall, and armed men to the storm. This machine was counteracted by one constructed by John Crab, a Flemish engineer in the Scots service. This was a kind of moveable crane, whereby great stones might be raised on high, and then let fall upon the enemy. The English made a general assault on the quarter towards the sea, as well as on the land side; so that the garrison, exhausted by continual fatigue, could scarce maintain their posts. The great engine moved on to the walls; and, though stones were incessantly discharged against it from the crane,

183 Destroyed by the Scots.

their effect was so small, that all hope of preserving Berwick was lost. At length a huge stone struck it with such force, that the beams gave way, and the Scots pouring down combustibles upon it, it was reduced to ashes. The English, however, still continued the attack. The Steward, with a reserve of 100 men, went from post to post, relieving those who were wounded or unfit for combat. One soldier of the reserve only remained with him when an alarm was given that the English had burnt a barrier at the port called *St Mary's*, possessed themselves of the drawbridge, and fired the gate. The Steward hastened thither, called down the guard from the rampart, ordered the gate to be set open, and rushed out upon the enemy. A desperate combat ensued, and continued till the close of day, when the English commanders withdrew their troops.

184 Who invade England.

Notwithstanding this brave defence, it was evident that the town could not hold out long without a speedy relief; and Robert could not, with any probability of success, attack the fortified camp of the English. He therefore determined to make a powerful diversion in England, in order to oblige Edward to abandon the undertaking. By order of the king, 15,000 men entered England by the western marches. They had concerted a plan for carrying off the queen of England from her residence near York; but being disappointed in this attempt, they laid waste Yorkshire. The archbishop of York hastily collected a numerous body of commons and ecclesiastics, with whom he encountered the Scots at Mitton, near Boroughbridge, in the north-riding of Yorkshire. The English were instantly routed; 3000 were left dead on the field, and great part of those who fled perished in the river Swale. In this action 300 ecclesiastics lost their lives. The news of this successful inroad alarmed the besiegers of Berwick. The barons whose estates lay to the southward remote from the Scottish depredations, were eager for continuing the siege. But they were opposed by those of the north; who were no less eager to abandon the enterprise, and return to the defence of their own country. With them the earl of Lancaster concurred in opinion; who, understanding that his favourite manor of Pontefract was exposed to the ravages of the Scots, departed with all his adherents. Edward, upon this, drew off the remainder of his army, and attempted to intercept Randolph and Douglas; but they eluded him, and returned in safety to Scotland.

185 The English defeated, and the siege of Berwick raised.

The unsuccessful event of this last attempt, induced Edward seriously to think of peace; and accordingly a truce between the two nations was concluded on the 21st of December 1319, which interval of tranquillity the Scots made use of in addressing a manifesto to the pope in justification of their cause. This was drawn up in a spirited manner, and made a very considerable alteration in the councils of Rome. The pope, foreseeing that Robert would not be terrified into submissions, ordered Edward to make peace with him in the best manner he could. A negociation was accordingly set on foot, which soon terminated ineffectually; the time was not renewed, and in 1322 a mutual invasion took place. The Scots penetrated into Lancashire by the western marches; and, after plundering the country, returned home with an extraordinary booty: while Edward made great preparations for an expedition into Scotland, which took place in August the same year. In this, however, he was not attended with success. Robert had caused all the cattle to be driven off, and all the effects of any value to be removed from Lothian and the Merse; fixing his camp at Culross, on the north side of the Frith of Forth. His orders for removing the cattle were so punctually obeyed, that, according to common tradition, the only prey which fell into the hands of the English was a lame bull at Tranent in East Lothian. Edward, however, still proceeded, and penetrated as far as Edinburgh, but without any hopes of subduing the kingdom. His provisions being consumed, many of his soldiers perished for want; and he was obliged at last to retire without having seen an enemy. On their return, his soldiers burnt the abbeys of Holyrood, Melrose, Dryburgh, &c. killed many of the monks, and committed other sacrileges: but when they returned to their own country, and began again to enjoy a plentiful living, they indulged themselves in such excesses as were productive of mortal diseases; insomuch, that according to an English historian, almost one half of the great army which Edward had brought from England with him were destroyed either by hunger or gluttony.

186 England again invaded by the Scots, and Scotland by the English.

187 Great part of Edward's army destroyed.

No sooner were the English retired than they were pursued by the Scots, who laid siege to the castle of Norham.

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Norham. Edward lay at the abbey of Biland in Yorkſhire, with a body of troops advantageouſly poſted in the neighbourhood. The Scots, invited, as is ſaid, by ſome traitors about the king's perſon, attempted to ſurpriſe him; and it was the utmoſt difficulty that he made his eſcape to York, abandoning all his baggage and treaſure to the enemy. The Engliſh camp was ſuppoſed to be acceſſible only by a narrow paſs; but Douglas undertook to force it, and Randolph preſented himſelf as a volunteer in this dangerous ſervice under his friend Douglas. The Highlanders and men of the Iſles climbed the precipice on which the Engliſh camp ſtood, and the enemy were driven out with great loſs. The Scots purſued them to the very gates of York, waſted the country without controul, and returned home unmoleſted.

188 The Engliſh defeated and driven out of their camp.

Edward, diſheartened by repeated loſſes, agreed to a ceſſation of arms "with the men of Scotland who were engaged in war with him." But the king of Scotland would not conſent to it in that form; however, he gave his conſent, on the proper form being employed, to which Edward now made no objection. This treaty was concluded on the 30th of March 1323, and was to endure until the 12th of June 1336. It was agreed, that, during the continuance of it, no new fortreſſes ſhould be erected in Cumberland, to the north of the Tyne, or in the counties of Berwick, Roxburgh, or Dumfries; and by a very ſingular article it was provided, that "Bruce and the people of Scotland might procure abſolution from the pope; but in caſe there was no peace concluded before the expiration of the truce, that the ſentence of excommunication ſhould revive." The treaty was ratified by Robert, under the ſtyle of the *king of Scotland*, 7th June 1323.

189 A truce concluded between England and Scotland.

The next care of Robert was to reconcile himſelf to the church, and to obtain from the pope the title of *king*, which had been ſo long denied him; which at laſt, though not without great difficulty, was obtained. This year a ſon was born to the king of Scotland at Dunfermline, and named *David*. The court-poets of this time foretold, that this infant would one day rival his father's fame, and prove victorious over the Engliſh. But ſcarce had this future hero come into the world, when a rival began to make his appearance. John Baliol, the unfortunate king of Scotland, had long been dead; but left a ſon named *Edward*, heir to his pretenſions to the crown. The young prince had reſided on his paternal eſtate in Normandy, neglected and forgotten; but in 1324 was called to the court of England, for the purpoſe, undoubtedly, of ſetting him up as a rival to young David Bruce, in caſe his father, now broken with fatigues, ſhould die in a ſhort time. The negociations for peace, however, ſtill went on; but the commiſſioners appointed for this purpoſe made little progreſs, by reaſon of demands for feudal ſovereignty ſtill made by the Engliſh. The reconciliation with the church was alſo broken off, by reaſon of the Scots keeping poſſeſſion of Berwick. This had been taken during the papal truce; and Robert thought proper ſtill to lie under the ſentence of excommunication, rather than to part with ſuch an important fortreſs.

190 Birth of David Bruce.

191 Edward Baliol makes his appearance at the court of England.

In the beginning of the year 1327, Edward II. was depoſed, and ſucceeded by his ſon Edward III. then in his 15th year. He renewed the negociations for peace, and ratified the truce which his father had made; but, hearing that the Scots had reſolved to invade England if a peace was not immediately concluded, he ſummoned his barons to meet him in arms at Newcaſtle, and fortified York.—We are not certainly informed of the reaſons which induced the Scots at this time to diſregard the truce; however, it is certain, that on the 15th of June 1327, Douglas and Randolph invaded England by the weſtern marches, with an army of 20,000 horſemen. Againſt them Edward III. led an army, conſiſting, at the loweſt calculation, of 30,000 men, who aſſembled at Durham on the 13th of July. The Scots proceeded with the utmoſt cruelty, burning and deſtroying every thing as they went along; and on the 18th of the ſame month, the Engliſh diſcovered them by the ſmoke and flames which marked their progreſs. They marched forward in order of battle towards the quarter where the ſmoke was perceived; but, meeting with no enemy for two days, they concluded that the Scots were about to retire. Diſencumbering themſelves then of their heavy baggage, they reſolved by a forced march to reach the river Tyne, and, by poſting themſelves on the north bank of that river, to intercept the Scots on their return. On the 20th of July, the cavalry having left the infantry behind, croſſed the river at Haidon: but before the reſt of the army could come up, the river was ſo ſwelled by ſudden rains, that it could no longer be forded; and thus the troops remained divided for ſeveral days, without any accommodation for quarters, and in the greateſt want of proviſions and forage. The ſoldiers now began to murmur; and it was reſolved again to proceed ſouthwards. The king proclaimed a reward of lands, to the value of 100 l. yearly for life, to the perſon who ſhould firſt diſcover the enemy "on dry ground, where they might be attacked;" and many knights and eſquires ſwam acroſs the river on this ſtrange errand. The army continued its march for three days without any news of the Scots; but on the fourth day, certain accounts of them were brought by an eſquire, Thomas Rokeſby: who reported, that "the Scots had made him priſoner; but that their leaders, underſtanding his buſineſs, had ſet him at liberty; ſaying, that they had remained for eight days on the ſame ground, as ignorant of the motions of the Engliſh as the Engliſh were of theirs, and that they were deſirous and ready to combat." With this man for their guide, the Engliſh ſoon came in view of the Scots. They were advantageouſly poſted on a riſing ground, having the river Were in front, and their flanks ſecured by rocks and precipices. The Engliſh diſmounted and advanced, hoping to allure the Scots from their ſtrong poſt; but in vain. Edward then ſent a herald to Randolph and Douglas, with a meſſage in the ſtyle of chivalry: "Either," ſays he, "ſuffer me to paſs the river, and leave me room for ranging my forces; or do you paſs the river, and I will leave you room to range yours; and thus ſhall we fight on equal terms." To this the Scottiſh commanders anſwered, "We will do neither. On our road hither we have burnt and ſpoiled the country; and here we are fixed while to us it ſeems good; and if the king of England is offended, let him come over and chaſtiſe us."

Scotland.

192 Douglas and Randolph invade England.

193 Edward III. marches againſt them.

194 Is obliged to offer a reward for diſcovering where they are.

The

Scotland.

The armies continued in ſight of each other for two days; after which the Engliſh, underſtanding that their enemies were diſtreſſed for proviſions, reſolved to maintain a cloſe blockade, and to reduce them by famine. Next day, however, they were ſurpriſed to find that the Scots had ſecretly decamped, and taken poſt two miles up the river in ground ſtill ſtronger, and of more difficult acceſs, amidſt a great wood. The Engliſh encamped oppoſite to them near Stanhope park. At midnight Douglas undertook a moſt deſperate enterpriſe, ſomewhat reſembling thoſe of the ancient heroes. With 200 horſemen he approached the Engliſh camp, and entered it under the guiſe of a chief commander calling the rounds. Having thus eluded the centinels, he paſſed on to the royal quarters, overthrew every thing that oppoſed him, and furiouſly aſſaulted the king's tent. The domeſtics of Edward deſperately defended their maſter; and his chaplain, with many others of his houſehold, were ſlain. However, the king himſelf eſcaped; and Douglas, diſappointed of his prey, ruſhed through the enemy, and effected a retreat with inconſiderable loſs.—The following day, the Engliſh learned from a priſoner, that orders had been iſſued in the Scottiſh camp for all men to hold themſelves in readineſs that evening to follow the banner of Douglas: on which, apprehending an attack in the night, they prepared for battle, lighting great fires, and keeping a ſtrict watch; but in the morning, they were informed by two trumpeters whom they had taken priſoners, that the Scots had decamped before midnight, and were returning to their own country. This report could ſcarcely be credited, and the army remained for ſome hours in order of battle; but at length ſome ſcouts having croſſed the river, returned with certain intelligence that the Scottiſh camp was totally deſerted: which when the young king of England was certainly informed of, he burſt into tears; for the enterpriſe, which thus terminated in diſappointment and diſhonour, had coſt an immenſe ſum. Every preparation had been made for oppoſing an enemy, and auxiliaries had even been procured at a moſt enormous expence from Hainault. Theſe auxiliaries conſiſted of heavy-armed cavalry; and they were now ſo much worn out that they could ſcarce move. Their horſes were all dead, or had become unſerviceable, in a campaign of three weeks; ſo that they were obliged to procure horſes to convey themſelves to the ſouth of England. Edward having reſted at Durham for ſome days, marched to York, where he diſbanded his army. Barbour, a Scots hiſtorian, relates, that there was a moraſs in the rear of the Scottiſh camp, which he calls the *two-mile moraſs*; that the Scots made a way over it with bruſhwood, removing it as they went along, that the Engliſh might not purſue them by the ſame way. The Engliſh hiſtorians are filled with deſcriptions of the ſtrange appearance of the deſerted camp of the Scots. They found there a number of ſkins ſtretched between ſtakes, which ſerved for kettles to boil their meat; and for bread, each ſoldier carried along with him a bag of oatmeal, of which he made cakes, toaſting them upon thin iron plates, which appear to have been part of their armour.

195 Deſperate attempt of Douglas to carry off the king of England.

196 The Scots decamp, and return to their own country.

On the return of Douglas and Randolph, the king led his army againſt the eaſtern borders, and beſieged the caſtle of Norham. However, in 1328, Edward, wearied out with continual loſſes and diſappointments, conſented to a perpetual peace between the two kingdoms on the following conditions. 1. The ſtone on which the kings of Scotland were wont to ſit at the time of their coronation, ſhall be reſtored to the Scots. 2. The king of England engages to employ his good offices at the papal court for obtaining a revocation of all ſpiritual proceſſes depending before the holy ſee againſt the king of Scots, or againſt his kingdom or ſubjects. 3. For theſe cauſes, and in order to make reparation for the ravages committed in England by the Scots, the king of Scots ſhall pay 30,000 merks to the king of England. 4. Reſtitution ſhall be made of the poſſeſſions belonging to eccleſiaſtics in either kingdom, whereof they may have been deprived during the war. 5. But there ſhall not be any reſtitution made of inheritances which have fallen into the hands of the king of England or of the king of Scots, by reaſon of the war between the two nations, or through the forfeiture of former poſſeſſors. 6. Johanna, ſiſter of the king of England, ſhall be given in marriage to David, the ſon and heir to the king of Scots. 7. The king of Scots ſhall provide the princeſs Johanna in a jointure of 2000 l. yearly, ſecured on lands and rents, according to a reaſonable eſtimation. 8. If either of the parties ſhall fail in performing theſe conditions, he ſhall pay 2000 pounds of ſilver to the papal treaſury.

Scotland.

197 The treaty of Northampton.

This peace, ratified at Northampton, is ſtyled *ignominious* by the Engliſh hiſtorians, and the marriage of the Scots prince to the king of England's ſiſter, denominated *that baſe marriage*; becauſe at this time all pretenſions to ſovereignty over Scotland were given up, though they had in vain attempted to eſtabliſh them by a ruinous war of 20 years. The marriage of the infant prince was celebrated on the 12th of July 1328.

198 King Robert dies.

On the 7th of June 1329 died Robert Bruce, unqueſtionably the greateſt of all the Scottiſh monarchs. His death ſeems to have been occaſioned by the exceſſive fatigues of military ſervice; and his diſeaſe, called by the hiſtorians of thoſe times a leproſy, was probably an inveterate ſcurvy, occaſioned by his way of living. He died at the age of 55. He was married to Iſabella, daughter of Donald the tenth earl of Marr; by whom he had a daughter named Marjory, married to Walter the ſteward of Scotland; whoſe huſband died in 1326. The ſecond wife of Robert was Eliſabeth, the daughter of Aymer de Burgh earl of Ulſter. By her he had a ſon, David II.; a daughter named Margaret, married to William earl of Sutherland; another, named Matilda, married to an eſquire named Thomas Iſaac; and Eliſabeth, married to Sir Walter Oliphant of Gaſk. He had alſo a natural ſon named Robert.

199 Account of a conſpiracy againſt him.

That king Robert I. was a man of unqueſtionable virtue and humanity, as well as unequalled in the knowledge of the military art, muſt be evident from many particulars already related. The only queſtionable part of his character is his ſevere puniſhment of a conſpiracy formed againſt him in the year 1320; a relation of which, to avoid interrupting our detail of more important matters, we have deferred till now.—The chief of the conſpirators were William de Soulis, whoſe anceſtor had been a candidate for the crown of Scotland;

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Scotland; the countess of Stathern, and some other persons of high rank. The Countess discovered the plot; after which Soulis confessed the whole, and was punished with perpetual imprisonment; as well as the countess, notwithstanding her having made the discovery. Gilbert de Malyerb and John de Logie, both knights, and Richard Brown an esquire, were put to death as traitors: but the person most lamented was Sir David de Brechin, for his bravery styled *the flower of chivalry*. He was nephew to the king, and served with great reputation against the Saracens. To him the conspirators, after having exacted an oath of secrecy, revealed their designs. He condemned their undertaking, and refused to share in it; but did not discover it, on account of the oath he had taken. Yet for this concealment he was tried as a traitor, condemned and executed, without regard to his personal merit or his relation to the king. The conspirators were tried before the parliament at Scone in 1320; and this session, in which so much blood was shed, was long remembered by the vulgar under the name of the *black parliament*. Whether there was any thing real in this conspiracy, or whether the king only made use of this pretence to rid himself of such as were obnoxious to him, cannot now be known with certainty.

200 Randolph appointed regent.

After the death of Robert, the administration was assumed by Randolph, in consequence of an act passed in 1318, by which he was appointed regent in case of the king's death. In his new character he behaved himself in a most exemplary manner; and by impartially discharging the duties of his station, and rigidly administering justice, he secured the public tranquillity in the most perfect manner. A severe exercise of justice was now rendered not only necessary, but indispensable. During a long course of war, the common people had been accustomed to plunder and bloodshed; and having now no English enemies to employ them, they robbed and murdered one another. The methods by which Randolph repressed these crimes, were much the same with those which have been adopted in later times; for he made the counties liable for the several robberies committed within their bounds. He even ordered the farmers and labourers not to house the tools employed by them in agriculture during the night-time, that the sheriff's officers might be the more vigilant in securing them. He gave orders for severely punishing all vagabonds, and obliged them to work for their livelihood; making proclamation, that no man should be admitted into a town or borough who could not earn his bread by his labour. These regulations were attended with the most salutary effects. A fellow who had secreted his own plough-irons, pretending that they were stolen, being detected by the sheriff's officers, was instantly hanged. A certain man having killed a priest, went to Rome, and obtained absolution from the pope; after which he boldly returned to Scotland. Randolph ordered him to be tried, and, on his conviction, to be executed: "Because, said he, although the pope may grant absolution from the spiritual consequences of sin, he cannot screen offenders from civil punishment."

201 His excellent administration.

King Robert, just before his death, had desired that his heart might be deposited in our Saviour's sepulchre at Jerusalem; and on this errand the great commander Douglas was employed, who set sail in June 1330 with a numerous and splendid retinue. He anchored off Sluys in Flanders, the great emporium of the low countries, where he expected to find companions in his pilgrimage; but learning that Alphonsus XI. the young king of Leon and Castile, was engaged in a war with Osmyn the Moor, he could not resist the temptation of fighting against the enemies of Christianity. He met with an honourable reception at the court of Spain, and readily obtained leave to enter into what was thought the common cause of Christianity. The Spaniards first came in sight of their enemy near Theba, a castle on the frontiers of Andalusia, towards the kingdom of Granada. The Moors were defeated; but Douglas giving way to his impetuous valour, pursued the enemy too eagerly, and throwing among them the casket which contained the heart of his sovereign, cried out, "Now pass thou onward as thou wert wont, Douglas will follow thee or die." The fugitives rallied and surrounded Douglas; who, with a few of his followers, was killed in attempting to rescue Sir Walter St Clair of Rosslin. His body was brought back to Scotland, and interred in the church of Douglas. His countrymen perpetuated his memory by bestowing upon him the epithet of *the good Sir James Douglas*. He was one of the greatest commanders of the age; and is said to have been engaged in 70 battles, 57 of which he gained, and was defeated in 13.—Of him it is reported, that meeting with an officer at the court of Alphonsus, who had his face quite disfigured with scars, the latter said to him, "It astonishes me, that you, who are said to have seen so much service, should have no marks of wounds on your face." "Thank heaven," answered Douglas, "I had always an arm to protect my face."

202 Douglas sets out for the holy land with King Robert's heart.

203 Is killed by the Moors in Spain.

204 Edward Baliol claims the crown of Scotland.

In 1331, Edward Baliol began to renew his pretensions to the crown of Scotland, about the same time that David II. and his consort Johanna were crowned at Scone; which ceremony was performed on the 24th of November. Some historians relate, that he was excited to this attempt by one Twynham Lowrison, a person who had been excommunicated for refusing to do penance for adultery, and afterwards was obliged to fly on account of his having way-laid the official, beat him, and extorted a sum of money from him. But however this may be, it is certain, that in this year differences began to arise with England, on the following account. It had been provided by an article of the treaty of Northampton, that "Thomas lord Wake of Ledel, Henry de Beaumont, called *earl of Buchan*, and Henry de Percy, should be restored to their estates, of which the king of Scots, by reason of the war between the two nations, had taken possession." This article had been executed with respect to Percy, but not to the other two; and though Edward had repeatedly complained of this neglect, he could not obtain any satisfaction (E.)

The

(E) As this is an important period of history, we shall here transcribe the opinion of lord Hailes concerning the causes of this strange delay of executing an article seemingly of little importance where a nation was concerned. "By the treaty of Northampton, "says he," all the claims of the English barons to inheritances in Scotland were disregarded,

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The disinherited barons now resolved to invade Scotland, though their force consisted of no more than 3000 infantry, and 400 men at arms. Edward would not permit them to enter Scotland by the usual way, as he himself did not yet choose openly to take part in their quarrel. For this reason they were obliged to take shipping, and landed at a place called *Ravenshare*, *Ravenspur*, or *Ravensburgh*, at the mouth of the Humber (B). Randolph, having intelligence of the English preparations, had marched an army to the frontiers of East Lothian; but, being afterwards informed of the naval armament, he marched northwards; but died at Musselburgh, five miles east of Edinburgh, on the 20th of July 1332. With him died the glory of Scotland. The earl of Marr, a man whose only merit consisted in his being related to the royal family, was chosen to succeed him in the regency.—Edward in the mean time fell upon a most curious expedient to shew the justice of his cause. In March 1332 he had published a prohibition for any person to infringe the treaty of Northampton. The disinherited lords had been suffered to embark, expressly for the purpose of invading Scotland, after this prohibition was published. *After they were gone*, Henry de Percy was empowered to punish those who should presume to array themselves in contempt of his prohibition; and because he understood that the Scots were arming in order to repel those invaders whom Edward had indirectly sent against them, he empowered Henry de Percy to arm against them.

205 Randolph the regent dies.

On the 31st of July, Edward Baliol and his associates landed in the neighbourhood of Kinghorn, on the Forth; routed the earl of Fife, who opposed them; and marched next day to Dunfermline. Having then ordered his fleet to wait for him at the mouth of the Tay, he proceeded northwards, and encamped on the Miller's acre at Forteviot, with the river Earn in front. Nothing, however, could be more dangerous than his situation at present, and his destruction would have inevitable. The earl of Marr was encamped with a numerous army, on the opposite bank of the river Earn, in the neighbourhood of Duplin; and another, nearly as numerous, had advanced from the south, through the Lothians and Stirlingshire, and fixed its quarters at Auchterarder, eight miles to the west of Forteviot. Historians differ as to the number of the two armies. Fordun says, that the regent had with him 30,000 men, and the earl of March as many; and that Baliol had between 500 and 600 men at arms, that is, horsemen completely armed. Hemingford reckons each of the Scots armies at 40,000, and Baliol's at 500 armed men. Knyghton says, that Baliol, when he landed in Fife, had 300 armed men, and 3000 more of different sorts; but that he had in all only 2500 men in his camp at Earn. In this desperate situation the English general formed a design of attacking the Scots in their camp. They were directed to a ford by Andrew Murray of Tullibardine. The Scots kept no watch, but abandoned themselves to intemperance and riotous mirth; while their enemies, excepting those of Henry de Percy, Thomas lord Wake of Ledel, and Henry de Beaumont. Percy procured satisfaction; but the others did not.

Scotland.

206 Baliol lands at Kinghorn, and defeats the Scots.

207 Is in the utmost danger in the neighbourhood of Duplin.

Henry de Beaumont, in the reign of Edward II. had associated himself with the nobility against the D'Espensers, and on that account had suffered imprisonment and exile. He aided queen Isabella in the invasion which proved the cause of the deposition, captivity, and death of her husband. Although, under the administration of Mortimer, he had obtained a share in the partition of the spoils of the D'Espensers, he persisted in opposing the measures of the new favourite; and, although his own interests were secured by the treaty of Northampton, he boldly exclaimed against the injustice done to the other barons by that treaty. He joined the princes of the blood-royal in their attempt to rescue the young king from the hands of Isabella and her minion, and place him in their own; and, on the failure of that ill-advised conspiracy, he again took refuge in foreign parts. It appears that lord Wake, having followed the political opinions of Henry de Beaumont, was involved in like calamities and disgrace. While the queen-dowager and Mortimer retained their influence, the claims of those two barons were altogether overlooked: But, within forty-eight hours after the execution of Mortimer, a peremptory demand was made by Edward III. to have their inheritance restored.

The demand was unexpected and alarming. Made at the very moment of the fall of Isabella and Mortimer, and in behalf of men who had loudly protested against the treaty of Northampton, it indicated a total and perilous change in the system of the English.

Randolph, of late years, had beheld extraordinary vicissitudes in England. The D'Espensers alternately persecuted and triumphant, and at length abased in the dust: The fugitive Mortimer elevated to supreme authority, victorious over the princes of the blood-royal, and then dragged to a gibbet. Hence it was natural for Randolph to wish, and even to look, for some new revolution, which might prove more favourable to the Scottish interests. Meanwhile, with great reason and good policy, he delayed the restitution of the inheritances claimed under the treaty of Northampton, in behalf of the avowed oppofers of that treaty.

Besides, it was necessary for Randolph to be assured that the English, while they urged the performance of one article of that treaty, did, on their part, sincerely purpose to perform its more important articles, by continuing to acknowledge the succession in the house of Bruce, and the independency of the Scottish nation.

Of this, however, there was much reason to doubt. For the English king had taken Baliol under his protection, and had granted him a passport to come into England, with permission to reside there during a whole year, (10th October 1330). These things had no friendly or pacific appearance.

Be this as it will, the event too fatally justified the apprehensions of Randolph; for, while Edward III. was demanding restitution of the estates reserved by the treaty of Northampton, his subjects were arming in violation of that treaty.

It is remarkable, that, on the 24th March 1331-2, Edward appears to have known of the hostile association of the disinherited barons. His words are, "Quia ex relatu accepimus plurimorum, quod diversi homines de regno nostro, et alii (meaning Baliol and his attendants,) pacem inter nos, et Robertum de Brus, nuper Regem Scotorum, initam et confirmatam infringere machinantes, diversas congregationes hominum ad arma indies faciunt, et, *per marchias regni nostri, dictam terram* Scotiæ, *ad eam modo guerrino impugnandum, ingredi intendunt*;" *Foedera*, T. iv. p. 511. And yet, on the 22d April following, he demanded restitution of the inheritance of lord Wake, one of the barons in arms; *Foedera*, T. iv. p. 518.

(B) This place does not now exist; having been overwhelmed by the sea many centuries ago.

Scotland. mies, led by Alexander Moubray, crossed the river at midnight. They ascended a rising ground, came unperceived on the right flank of the Scottish army, and made a dreadful slaughter. At the first attack, young Randolph hasted with 300 men at arms to oppose the enemy; and being seconded by Murdoch earl of Menteith, Alexander Fraser, and Robert Bruce natural son to the late king, he gave a check to the English, and maintained the combat on equal terms. But now the regent himself, along with the whole multitude, rushed forward to battle without the least order; so that while the hindmost pressed on, the foremost were thrown down, trodden upon, and suffocated. The slaughter lasted many hours, and the remains of this vast army were utterly dispersed. Many men of eminence were killed; among whom were Donald earl of Marr, author of the whole catastrophe; Thomas earl of Moray, Murdoch earl of Menteith, Robert earl of Carrick, Alexander Fraser, and Robert Bruce. The slaughter of the infantry and of the men at arms was very great; the most probable accounts make it 2000 men at arms, and upwards of 13,000 common soldiers. The loss of the English was inconsiderable.

208 Farther successes of Baliol.

The day after this victory, Baliol took possession of Perth; and, apprehending an attack from the earl of March, caused the ditch to be cleared, and the town to be fortified with pallisadoes. The first information which the earl received of this dreadful defeat was from a common soldier, who fled from the place mortally wounded. When this poor wretch came up, he had time to do no more than to show his wounds; after which he fell down, and expired. On his arrival at the field of battle, he found a dreadful confirmation of the intelligence given by the soldier; but instead of taking his measures with any prudence, he and his men hurried on headlong to Perth, actuated only by a blind impulse to revenge. At first they designed to assault the place; but their hearts failing them, they next determined to reduce it by famine. This, however, could not be done unless the Scots were masters at sea. One John Crab, a Flemish engineer, (who had distinguished himself by destroying the famous engine called *the sow* at the siege of Berwick) had continued for many years to annoy the English on the eastern coasts. After the blockade of Perth was formed, he came with ten vessels to the mouth of the Tay, where the English fleet was, and took the ship belonging to Henry de Beaumont; but soon after all his ten vessels were burnt by the English in a general engagement.

209 He is crowned king of Scotland.

After this the blockade of Perth was raised, the earl of March disbanded his army, and Edward Baliol was crowned king of Scotland at Scone, on the 24th of September 1332.

The new monarch was no sooner put in possession of the kingdom, than he left Perth in the hands of the earl of Fife, while he himself repaired to the southern parts of the kingdom. But the party of king David was far from being extinguished. Baliol was scarce gone, when the town of Perth was surprised, and its fortifications razed, by James Fraser, Simon Fraser, and Robert Keith. The earl of Fife was made prisoner, with his family and vassals. Andrew Murray of Tullibardine, who had directed the English to a ford on the river Earn, was put to death as a traitor. Such of the Scots as still adhered to the interest of their infant prince, chose Sir Andrew Murray of Bothwell regent. He was a brave and active man, but had not as yet sufficient force to attempt any thing considerable.

210 His shameful behaviour.

In the mean time, Baliol behaved in a most scandalous manner. At Roxburgh he made a solemn surrender of the liberties of Scotland; acknowledged Edward for his liege-lord; and, as if this had not been sufficient, he became bound to put him in possession of the town, castle, and territory of Berwick, and of other lands on the marches, extending in all to the yearly value of 2000l. "on account," as the instrument bears, "of the great honour and emoluments which we have procured through the *sufferance* of our lord the king, and by the powerful and acceptable aid which we have received from his good subjects." He also proffered to marry the princess Johanna, whom he considered as only betrothed to David Bruce, and to add 500 l. to her jointure; and this under the penalty of 10,000 l. to be appropriated as a portion to the young lady, or otherwise disposed of for her behoof. He further engaged to provide for the maintenance of David Bruce as the king of England should advise; and, lastly, he became bound to serve Edward in all his wars, excepting in England, Wales, and Ireland, for the space of a year together, with 200 men at arms, and all at his own charges; and he bound his successors to perform the like service with 100 men at arms. But afterwards, Edward having engaged to maintain him on the throne of Scotland, Baliol bound himself to serve him in all his wars whatever.

Though the greatest part of the nation submitted to this shameful treaty, it roused the indignation of those who wished well to the liberties of their country. John, the second son of Randolph, now earl of Moray by the death of his brother; Archibald, the youngest brother of the renowned Douglas; together with Simon Fraser, assembled a body of horsemen at Moffat in Annandale; and, suddenly traversing the country, assaulted Baliol unexpectedly at Annan. His brother Henry made a gallant resistance for some time; but was at last overpowered with numbers, and killed, together with several other persons of distinction. Baliol himself escaped almost naked, with scarce a single attendant, and fled to England. After his departure, the Scots began to make depredations on the English frontiers. Edward issued a proclamation, in which he solemnly averred, that the Scots, by their hostile depredations, had violated the peace of Northampton. Baliol in the mean time being joined by some English barons, returned to Scotland; took and burnt a castle where Robert de Colville commanded; and, establishing his quarters in the neighbourhood of Roxburgh, began to make preparations for besieging Berwick. Just after his arrival, Archibald Douglas, with 3000 men, invaded England by the western marches, plundered the country, and carried off much booty; in revenge for which, Sir Anthony de Lucy made an inroad into Scotland, defeated and took prisoner Sir William Douglas, celebrated in history by the appellation of *the knight of Liddesdale*, whom Edward caused to be put in irons. About the same time Sir Andrew Murray, the regent, attacked Baliol, with a view to discomfit him before the reinforcements which he

211 Baliol surprised, and driven out of Scotland.

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expected out of England could arrive. A sharp conflict ensued at Roxburgh, in which the regent, attempting to rescue a soldier, was taken prisoner: and thus Scotland was at once deprived of its two ablest commanders.

212 The Scots regent defeated and taken prisoner.

Archibald Douglas was now declared regent; and Edward prepared to invade Scotland, in order to take vengeance on its inhabitants, as he said, for the wrongs they had done, and to seek such redress as might seem good to himself. He ordered possession to be taken of the isle of Man in his own name; and soon after made it over to Sir William de Montague, who had some claim of inheritance in it. The chief design of Edward in this expedition, however, was to obtain possession of the town of Berwick, which had been already ceded to him by Baliol. This appeared to the Scots a place of no less importance than it did to Edward; and therefore they took all the precautions in their power to prevent the loss of it. The earl of March was appointed to command the castle, and Sir William Keith the town. The Scots made an obstinate defence; yet it was evident that they must soon have yielded unless they were relieved by an army. At length the regent, with a numerous army, appeared in the neighbourhood. He endeavoured to convey succours into the town, or to provoke the enemies to quit the advantage of the ground, and engage in battle. But all his efforts were vain; the English obstructed every passage, and stood on the defensive.

213 Berwick besieged by the English.

The regent then entered Northumberland, wasted the country, and even assaulted Bamburgh castle, where Philippa the young queen of England had her residence. He fondly imagined that Edward III. would have abandoned the siege of Berwick, after the example of his father, in circumstances not dissimilar. Edward nevertheless persevered in his enterprise.

214 The Scots invade Northumberland in vain.

During a general assault, the town was set on fire, and in great measure consumed. The inhabitants having experienced the evils of a siege, and dreading the worse evils of a storm, implored the earl of March and Sir William Keith to seek terms of capitulation. A truce was obtained; and it was agreed, that the town and castle should be delivered up on terms fair and honourable, unless succours arrived before the hour of vespers on the 19th July.

It was specially provided, "that Berwick should be held as relieved, in case 200 men at arms, in a body, should force their passage into the town."

By the treaty, Sir William Keith was permitted to have an interview with the regent. He found him with his army in Northumberland; urged the necessity of his return; and showed him, that Berwick, if not instantly relieved, was lost for ever. Persuaded by his importunities, the regent resolved to combat the English, and either to save Berwick or lose the kingdom.

215 The Scots resolve to come to an engagement.

On the afternoon of the 19th of July the regent prepared for battle. He divided his army into four bodies. The first was led by John earl of Moray, the son of Randolph; but as he was young and inexperienced in war, James and Simon Frasers, soldiers of approved reputation, were joined with him in the command. The second body was led by the Steward of Scotland, a youth of 16, under the inspection of his uncle Sir James Stewart of Rosyth. The third body was led by the regent himself, having with him the earl of Carrick and other barons of eminence. The fourth body, or reserve, appears to have been led by Hugh Earl of Ross.

The numbers of the Scottish army on that day are variously reported by historians. The continuator of Hemingford, an author of that age, and Kayghton, who lived in the succeeding age, ascertain their numbers with more precision than is generally required in historical facts.

The continuator of Hemingford minutely records the numbers and arrangement of the Scottish army. He says, that, besides earls and other lords or great barons, there were 55 knights, 1100 men at arms, and 13,500 of the commons lightly armed, amounting in all to 14,655.

With him Koyghton appears to concur, when his narrative is cleared from the errors of ignorant or careless transcribers.

It is probable, however, that the servants who tended the horses of persons of distinction and of the men at arms, and the useless followers of the camp, were more numerous than the actual combatants.

The English were advantageously posted on a rising ground at Halidon, with a marshy hollow in their front. Of their particular disposition we are not informed, further than that Baliol had the command of one of the wings.

It had been provided by the treaty of capitulation, "That Berwick should be considered as relieved, in case 200 men at arms forced their passage into the town." This the Scottish men at arms attempted; but Edward, aware of their purpose, opposed them in person, and repulsed them with great slaughter. The Scottish army rushed on to a general attack; but they had to descend into the marshy hollow before mounting the eminences of Halidon. After having struggled with the difficulties of the ground, and after having been incessantly galled by the English archers, they reached the enemy. Although fatigued and disordered in their ranks, they fought as it became men who had conquered under the banners of Robert Bruce. The English, with equal valour, had great advantages of situation, and were better disciplined than their antagonists. The earl of Ross led the reserve to attack in flank that wing where Baliol commanded; but he was repulsed and slain. There fell with him Kenneth earl of Sutherland, and Murdoch earl of Menteith.

216 Battle of Halidon.

217 The Scots defeated, and the regent killed.

In the other parts of the field, the events were equally disastrous. The regent received a mortal wound, and the Scots every where gave way. In the field, and during a pursuit for many miles, the number of slain and prisoners was so great, that few of the Scottish army escaped.

Besides the earls of Ross, Sutherland, and Menteith, there were among the slain Malcolm earl of Lenox, an aged baron; he had been one of the foremost to repair to the standard of Robert Bruce, and he now paid the last duties to his country: Alexander Bruce earl of Carrick, who atoned for the short defection from the family of his benefactor; John Campbell earl of Athole, nephew of the late king; James Fraser,

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Fraser, and Simon Fraser; John de Graham, Alexander de Lindesay, Alan Stewart, and many other persons of eminent rank.

The Steward had two uncles, John and James, John was killed, and James mortally wounded and made prisoner (H).

The regent, mortally wounded, and abandoned on the field of battle, only lived to see his army discomfited and himself a prisoner.

This victory was obtained with very inconsiderable loss. It is related by the English historians, that, on the side of their countrymen, there were killed one knight, one esquire, and 12 foot-soldiers. Nor will this appear altogether incredible, when we remember that the English ranks remained unbroken, and that their archers, at a secure distance, incessantly annoyed the Scottish infantry.

218 Berwick surrenders, and almost all Scotland submits.

According to capitulation, the town and castle of Berwick surrendered. The English king took twelve hostages for securing the fidelity of the citizens of Berwick.

Thus was the whole of Scotland reduced under the subjection of Baliol, excepting a few fortresses; so that it became necessary to provide for the safety of the young king and queen. Accordingly, they were conveyed to France, where they were honourably entertained. Mean while Baliol employed himself in making new concessions to his liege-lord Edward; and in 1334 the work of submission was completed by a solemn instrument drawn up by Baliol, in which he surrendered great part of the Scottish dominions, to be for ever annexed to the crown of England. In this instrument

219 Mean submissions of Baliol.

Baliol said, that "he had formerly become bound to make a grant to Edward of lands on the marches, to the amount of *two thousand-pound lands;* that the Scottish parliament had ratified his obligation; and that he had accordingly surrendered Berwick and its territory; and now, for completely discharging his obligation, he made an absolute surrender to the English crown of the forests of Jedburgh, Selkirk, and Ettrick; of the counties of Roxburgh, Peebles, and Dumfries; together with the county of Edinburgh and the constabularies of Linlithgow and Haddington." This extraordinary surrender was made with so much precipitation, that Baliol forgot to except his own private estate out of it. This, however, was generously restored to him by Edward; who proclaimed, that, "having already received satisfaction in full, he had too much reverence for God, justice, and good faith to man, that the cession should be prejudicial to the private rights of the king of Scots." At the same time Baliol presented himself before his liege-lord; did homage, and swore fealty, "for the whole kingdom of Scotland and the isles adjacent."

220 A quarrel among the English disinherited lords.

A quarrel now arose among the disinherited lords, to whom this revolution had been owing, which produced the worst consequences to the interest of Baliol. The brother of Alexander de Moubray died, leaving daughters, but no issue-male. Moubray having claimed a preference to the daughters of his brother, Baliol countenanced his suit, and, as it appears, put him in possession of the inheritance. Henry de Beaumont earl of Buchan, and David de Strathbolgie, or Hastings, earl of Athol, espoused the cause of the heirs-general; but perceiving that their solicitations were not heard, they left the court in disgust, and retired to their castles about the end of August 1334. Baliol soon perceived his error in offending these two powerful lords; and in order to regain their favour, dismissed Moubray, and conferred on David de Strathbolgie the whole estates of the young Steward of Scotland. Thus he alienated the affections of Moubray, and added to the power of the earl of Athol, who was by far too powerful before.

221 Baliol's party every where defeated.

About this time Sir Andrew Murray of Bothwell, having regained his freedom, began to assemble the friends of liberty, and was immediately joined by Moubray. In a moment every thing was in confusion. Geffrey de Moubray, governor of Roxburgh, revolted; Henry de Beaumont was besieged in his castle of Dundarg by Murray and Moubray, and forced to surrender, but obtained liberty to depart into England. Richard Talbot, endeavouring to pass into England with a body of troops, was defeated and taken prisoner by Sir William Keith of Galston. The Steward of Scotland, who had lain concealed in the isle of Bute ever since the battle of Halidon, now passed over to the castle of Dunbarton, which was one of the few forts remaining to king David. With the assistance of Dougal Campbell of Lochow, he made himself master of the castle of Dunoon in Cowal. His tenants of the isle of Bute attacked and slew Alan de Lile the governor, and presented his head to their master. John the son of Gilbert, governor of the castle of Bute, was made prisoner in the action. He ordered the garrison to surrender, and attached himself to the Scottish interest. Encouraged by these successes, the Steward entered his ancient inheritance of Renfrew, and compelled the inhabitants to acknowledge the sovereignty of David. Godfrey de Ross, the governor of Ayrshire, submitted to the Steward. The earl of Moray returned from France, whither he had fled after the battle of Halidon, and was acknowledged regent along with the Steward. The earl, having raised a body of troops, marched against the earl of Athol, compelled him to retire into Lochaber, and at last to surrender; after which he embraced the party of the conquerors. Baliol was now obliged to retire again into England, in order to solicit assistance from Edward; and this was readily granted. Edward himself took the field at a very unfavourable season for military enterprises. His army was divided into two parts. With the one Edward wasted Lothian, while Baliol did the like in Avondale with the other; and in the mean time Patrick earl of March, notwithstanding the unfavourable posture of affairs, renounced the allegiance he had sworn to England. His motive for this was, that though the kings of England had maintained him in an independency dangerous to Scotland, he was assured that they would never permit him to become formidable in a country which they themselves possessed.

222 He retires into England, and obtains the assistance of Edward.

The

(H) *Fordun*, l. xii. c. 28. relates, that Sir James Stewart was slain; the English historians, that he was mortally wounded and made prisoner. It may be remarked, that at Halidon two Stewarts fought under the banner of their chiefs; the one Alan of Dreghorn, the paternal ancestor of Charles I. and the other James of Rosyth, the paternal ancestor of Oliver Cromwell.

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223 Lochleven castle unsuccessfully besieged by the English.

The year 1335 is remarkable for the siege of Lochleven castle by the English, under John de Strivelin. This fort was built on a small island, and very difficult of access. The English commander erected a fort in the cemetry of Kinross; and at the lower end of the lake, from whence runs the stream called *the Water of Leven*, he raised a strong and lofty bulwark, by means of which, he hoped to lay the island under water, and oblige the garrison to surrender. But four of the Scots soldiers, having found means to approach the bulwark undiscovered, pierced it so dexterously, that the waters, rushing out with a prodigious force, overflowed part of the English camp; and the garrison sallying out during the confusion occasioned by this unexpected inundation, stormed and plundered the fort at Kinross. At this time the English commander, with many of his soldiers, happened to be absent at Dumfermline, celebrating the festival of St Margaret. On his return he swore that he would never desist till he had taken the place, and put the garrison to the sword; however, his utmost efforts were at last baffled, and he was obliged, notwithstanding his oath, to desist.

In the mean time the regents assembled a parliament at Dairsy near Coupar in Fife; but no plan of defence could be fallen upon, by reason of the animosities and factions which prevailed among the barons. Through the mediation of the French, some terms of peace were proposed; but being rejected by the English, Edward again invaded Scotland, cruelly ravaging the country with one army, while Baliol and the earl of Warrene did the same with another. Soon after this invasion, Count Guy of Namur landed at Berwick with a considerable number of men-at-arms in the service of the English. He advanced to the neighbourhood of Edinburgh; but was defeated and taken prisoner by the earls of March and Moray, and Sir Alexander Ramsay. In this engagement one Richard Shaw, a Scottish esquire, was singled out by a combatant in the army of Sir Guy, and both pierced each other with their spears; the stranger being stripped, was discovered to be a woman. The earl of Moray treated Guy with the greatest respect, not only allowing him and the remainder of his troops to depart Scotland without molestation, but even attending him to the borders, accompanied by William Douglas and his brother James. On his return, William de Pressen, warden of the castle and forest of Jedburgh, attacked and defeated his party; James Douglas was killed, the earl himself taken prisoner and carried into England.

224 Count Guy of Namur defeated and taken prisoner

225 The Scots regent taken prisoner, in consequence of which a shameful treaty is concluded with England.

Thus was the Scottish nation once more reduced to the brink of ruin. Alexander de Mowbray, Geffrey de Mowbray, and some others, pretending powers from "the earl of Athol and Robert the Steward of Scotland," concluded a treaty with Edward at Perth; the substance of which was, that all the Scots should receive pardon, and have their fees, lands, and offices restored, excepting those who by *common assent* in parliament should be excluded. The liberties of the church, and the ancient laws and usages of Scotland, were to remain in full force. All offices were to be filled with Scotsmen, excepting that the king should appoint whom he pleased within his regalities.

The earl of Athol now began to persecute with the utmost fury those who wished well to the cause of Scotland. With 3000 men he besieged the castle of Kildrommey, which had hitherto been the great refuge of deking David's party. Sir Andrew Murray of Bothwell resolved at all events to attempt the rescue of his wife and family, who were shut up in this castle. With 1100 men he surprised Athol in the forest of Killblain. The earl's men, seized with a panic, fled and dispersed themselves; on which their commander, refusing to accept of quarter, was killed. Sir Andrew Murray then assembled a parliament at Dunfermline, where he was immediately appointed regent.

226 The earl of Athol defeated and killed.

In 1336, the king of England perceiving that the Scots were taken under the patronage of France, resolved to invade their country, and crush them at once before they could have any assistance from their new allies. In this expedition he penetrated as far as Inverness; but the Scots, commanded by Sir Andrew Murray, avoided coming to a general action; so that Edward could not effect any thing of consequence. The inhabitants of Aberdeen attacked one Thomas Rosheme, who had landed at Dunoter. They were defeated; but Rosheme fell in the action. Edward chastised the vanquished severely for their temerity, and laid the town in ashes. He then began to repair the castles whose fortifications had been demolished by king Robert. He put in a state of defence the castles of Dunoter, Kinclevin, Lawriestoun, Stirling, Bothwell, Edinburgh, and Roxburgh; greatly augmented the fortifications of Perth, and left a considerable body of troops in the place. The Scots began to reduce these castles as soon as Edward was departed; and in 1337, under Sir Andrew Murray, invaded Cumberland. No great exploits, however, were now performed on either side. Edward being employed in preparations for invading France, had little leisure to attend to the affairs of Scotland; and the Scots, divided among themselves, and destitute of these leaders under whom they had acquired so much glory, could not now annoy their enemies as formerly. The most remarkable transaction was the siege of the castle of Dunbar, belonging to the earl of March. The English commander was the earl of Salisbury. The earl of March was absent; but his wife, the daughter of Randolph, from her complexion commonly called *Black Agnes*, undertook to defend it in her husband's absence. The English again employed that huge machine called *a sow*, formerly mentioned in our account of the siege of Berwick: it met with the same fate now as at that time; an huge stone, let fall upon it from the top of the walls, crushed it to pieces. The English, baffled in every attack, turned the siege into a blockade; but Alexander Ramsay having found means to enter it with 40 resolute men, the garrison made a sally, and cut in pieces the advanced guard of the enemy. The English, disheartened by so many misfortunes, abandoned the enterprise.

227 Edward again invades Scotland.

228 Dunbar castle unsuccessfully besieged by the English.

In 1338, Sir Andrew Murray the regent died, and was succeeded in his office by Robert the Steward of Scotland. In 1339 he reduced the town of Perth and the castle of Stirling; and gained over to the Scottish interest William Bullock, governor of the castle of Coupar: after which, having expelled the enemy from every

229 Exploits of Robert the Steward.

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every poſt to the northward of the Forth, he employed himſelf in ſettling the affairs of the nation as well as he could.

230 Edinburgh caſtle ſurpriſed by Sir William Bullock.

In 1341, the caſtle of Edinburgh was ſurpriſed by a device of Sir William Bullock. According to his appointment, one Walter Currie of Dundee privately received into his ſhip the knight of Liddeſdale, with William Fraſer, Joachim of Kinbuck, and 200 reſolute men. Currie caſt anchor in Leith road, pretending to be an Engliſh ſhipmaſter, who had a cargo of wine and proviſions, with which he propoſed to furniſh the commander of the caſtle. His barrels and hampers were brought to the caſtle-gate, and ſuddenly thrown down in ſuch a manner as to obſtruct the ſhutting of it. Currie and his men then ſlew the centinels; and the knight of Liddeſdale, with a party who lurked in the neighbourhood, ruſhed in, overpowered the garriſon, and made themſelves maſters of the place.

231 King David arrives in Scotland.

—On the 4th of March this year, the king and queen arrived from France, and landed at Inverbervie in Kincardineſhire.

232 Miſerable end of Alexander Ramſay and Sir William Bullock.

In 1342, Alexander Ramſay took the ſtrong fortreſs of Roxburgh; for which important ſervice the king beſtowed on him the charge of ſheriff of Teviotdale, at that time held by William Douglas knight of Liddeſdale. The king's liberality proved fatal to Ramſay: for from that time Douglas became his implacable and inveterate enemy; and having, after a pretended reconciliation, unexpectedly ſurpriſed him with three of his friends, he put them inſtantly to death, carrying off Ramſay himſelf to his caſtle of the Hermitage, where he cauſed him to be ſtarved to death in a moſt barbarous manner. The unhappy man was confined in a room, over which was an heap of wheat; a few grains of which were let fall every day through a hole, not as many as would ſupport life, but as would protract it for a time, and make him longer ſenſible of the agonies of hunger; and in this miſerable ſituation he ſurvived for 17 days. About the ſame time Sir William Bullock was put to death by Douglas in a ſimilar manner; nor was king David at that time in a capacity to puniſh ſuch atrocious crimes committed by ſo powerful a ſubject.

233 David invades England, and behaves with the utmoſt cruelty.

In the mean time, David having raiſed a powerful army, prepared to take a ſevere revenge of the Engliſh, from whom he had ſuffered ſo much. Edward was at that time in France, but commanded Baliol to raiſe all the militia beyond the Trent: which order, however, produced but little effect; ſo much was this mean-ſpirited prince deſpiſed by the Engliſh. David invaded Northumberland without oppoſition, and ravaged the country; but was obliged to raiſe the ſiege of Newcaſtle, which was commanded by Sir John Nevil, an excellent officer. David, exaſperated at this repulſe, entered the biſhopric of Durham, which he ravaged in the moſt cruel manner. However, on the approach of Edward with a powerful army, the Scots thought proper to retire; and a two years truce was agreed upon.

234 Other invaſions.

This pacification was but ſhort-lived. In 1345 the Scots again prepared to invade England, while Edward took all neceſſary meaſures for oppoſing them: however, this year the Scots were ſucceſsful, ravaging Weſtmoreland, and burning ſeveral towns. The year ended with a new truce between the two nations; and hoſtilities were not renewed till 1346, when David entered England with an army of 50,000 men. His firſt exploit was the taking of the fortreſs of Liddel, and maſſacring all whom he found in it. The commander, Sir Walter Selby, capitulated with a Scots knight for his life; but the bargain being diſapproved of by David, he ordered two of Selby's ſons to be ſtrangled in his preſence, and then the father's head to be cut off. From thence the Scots marched to Lancroft, which they plundered; then paſſing into Northumberland, they pillaged the priory of Hexham, but ſpared the town, that it might ſerve as a magazine. Three other towns, Corbridge, Durham, and Darlington, were ſpared for the ſame reaſon. In his march to Durham, it is ſaid that he would have made the county a deſart, had not ſome of the monks paid him a contribution of a thouſand pounds to ſpare their eſtates: however, according to Knyghton, every Engliſhman who fell into David's hands was put to death, unleſs he could redeem his life by paying threepence.

235 Monſtrous cruelty of David.

To put a ſtop to the cruelties of this barbarous invader, the queen of England, in her huſband's abſence, aſſembled a powerful army, which was divided into four bodies; the firſt commanded by Lord Henry Percy; the ſecond by the archbiſhop of York; the third by the biſhop of Lincoln, the lord Moubray, and Sir Thomas Rokeby; and the fourth and principal diviſion was headed by Edward Baliol.—The king of Scotland headed a choſen battalion, compoſed of the flower of his nobility, and the auxiliaries with which he had been ſupplied by France. The high ſteward of Scotland headed the ſecond line; and the third was commanded by the earls of Moray and Douglas. While the Engliſh were approaching, Lord Douglas and Sir David Graham ſkirmiſhed with them, but were defeated with the loſs of 500 of their men; which ſeemed an omen of the diſaſter that was about to enſue. The general engagement began between the archers on both ſides; but the Engliſh being much ſuperior in the uſe of the bow, the ſteward of Scotland advanced to the relief of his countrymen. The Engliſh archers, unable to bear his attack, fell back upon Lord Henry Percy's diviſion, which was thus put in confuſion, and would have been totally defeated, had not Baliol advanced to their relief with a body of 4000 horſe. The ſteward was then obliged to retire; by which means he left the flank of that diviſion commanded by David, and which was then engaged with another line of the Engliſh, expoſed to an attack. Baliol perceived the advantage; and, without purſuing the ſteward, attacked the king's diviſion, which was immediately cut in pieces or diſperſed. David was left with about 80 noblemen and gentlemen, but ſtill maintained the fight with obſtinacy; nor would he yield even when wounded in the head with an arrow, expecting every moment to be relieved by the ſteward and that line of his army which was ſtill entire under the lords Murray and Douglas. At laſt, finding himſelf totally overpowered, he attempted to retreat, but was overtaken by a party under one John Copeland. This captain, endeavouring to ſeize the king, had two of his teeth ſtruck out by a blow of his gauntlet; but at laſt, finding it in vain to reſiſt, the king was obliged to yield his ſword and ſurrender himſelf a priſoner.—After he was taken, Baliol attacked.

236 The battle of Durham.

237 The Scots defeated, and their king taken priſoner.

Scotland. tacked and totally routed that division of the Scottish army which had hitherto remained entire under the lords Moubray and Douglas. In this battle the Scots lost a great number of their nobility, and 15,000 common soldiers. Many persons of the first distinction were also taken along with the king; and had it not been that the escape of the Scots was favoured by the avarice of the English soldiers, who neglected the pursuit in order to plunder, scarce a single Scotsman would have returned.

238 Account of king David after the battle.

King David, after this unfortunate battle, was carried to the castle of Bamborough, where he was kept with so much privacy, that for some time it was not known where he was, or that he had been taken prisoner. As soon as the truth was known, the queen of England demanded the royal prisoner from Copeland; but the latter positively refused to part with him even to the queen, unless she could produce an order to that purpose under Edward's hand and seal. This resolute behaviour was resented by the queen, and a complaint made to the king; in consequence of which, Copeland was summoned to appear before Edward, after having resigned David to the custody of lord Nevil. The English monarch, at that time in France, approved of all that he had done, rewarded him with 500 l. a-year, and sent him back to England with the honour of knighthood. David was then escorted by Copeland, attended, it is said, by 20,000 men from the castle of Ogle in Northumberland, till the lord Nevil, by indenture, delivered him into the hands of Sir Thomas Rokeby sheriff of Yorkshire. In the same pompous manner he was conducted all the way to London, which he entered on a black coursier. He was received in the capital with the greatest solemnity by the lord-mayor and other magistrates, the city-companies under arms lining all the streets through which he passed, the houses loaded with spectators, who expressed a generous concern for his captivity. Being arrived at the tower, he was delivered, by indenture likewise, to the custody of the constable, the lord John Darcy, on the 2d of January 1347.

239 Baliol makes another attempt on the crown of Scotland.

Baliol now, encouraged by the misfortune of his rival, made an effort once more to establish himself on the throne of Scotland; and before the end of the year reduced the castles of Hermitage and Roxburgh, the forest of Ettric, the Merse, with the counties of Annandale, Teviotdale, and Tweedale. The Scots continued faithful to the cause of their king, notwithstanding his misfortune, and chose the Steward for the guardian of the kingdom. He behaved with a prudence equal to the high station he filled: nevertheless the progress of Baliol was so rapid, that it is scarce probable he could have maintained his ground, had not Edward again consented to a truce; which, however, seems to have been ill observed on the part of the Scots. In fact, though both Scots and English historians are silent as to particulars, we find, that about the end of the year 1348, all Scotland was recovered out of the hands of the English; excepting Berwick, Roxburgh, Hermitage, and Lanric, which was part of Baliol's hereditary estate, and defended by him with an army. The Scots historians inform us, that the English, in revenge of the damages done to their country by the breach of the peace, proclaimed a tournament and other military exercises at Berwick, to which they invited the Scots; but in their way thither the latter fell into an ambuscade, and were all cut in pieces.

240 The Scots recover the greatest part of their country.

541 Scotland infested with a dreadful plague.

The years 1349 and 1350 were remarkable only for a dreadful plague which invaded Scotland, after having ravaged the continent of Europe. According to Fordun, one-third of the people of Scotland perished at this time. The patient's flesh swelled exceedingly, and he died in two days illness; but the mortality chiefly affected the middling and lower ranks of people. The same dreadful calamity continued throughout the years 1351 and 1352; occasioning a cessation of arms not only in Scotland, but throughout all Europe.

All this time king David remained a prisoner in England; for, though several treaties had been proposed, they had hitherto come to nothing, because the English monarch insisted upon being indemnified for the ravages the Scots had committed in his territories.

242 Terms proposed for release of the Scottish monarch.

At last it was agreed, that the king of Scotland should be immediately set at liberty, on paying 90,000 merks for his ransom, by equal proportions, within the space of nine years: That 10,000 merks, being the first proportion, should be paid at the feast of Candlemas next to come, the second at Candlemas 1357, and so on till complete payment should be made of the whole: That, during the said space of nine years, there should be a truce between the two kingdoms: That 20 Scots gentlemen, of the best families in the kingdom, should remain in England as hostages and sureties for the said sum; and that, if any part thereof was not paid at the precise time appointed, then David should remain a prisoner in England till it was paid; or, if he was detained by any just cause, that the lord high steward, the lord Douglas, John of the Isles, and others of the highest rank, should come and supply his place.

243 Rejected by the nobility, and war recommenced.

These terms were rejected by the Scots nobility; and, in 1355, war was re-commenced with England, at the instigation of France, who sent 40,000 crowns to Scotland as a supply for defraying the expences.

244 Berwick taken by the Scots.

With this sum the guardian, having raised an army, once more took the field; but not before the English had destroyed the Lothians and Douglasdale. A battle was fought on Nisbit-moor; in which the English being drawn into an ambuscade, were totally defeated. The next attempt of the Scots was against the town of Berwick, which they designed to surprise by an escalade. They met, however, with such a vigorous resistance, that many persons of distinction were killed. However, the attack proved successful; but the acquisition was of no great importance, as the castle still held out. Edward, in the mean time, hearing of the loss of the town, hurried back from France to London. Here he staid but three days, and marched northward to raise the siege. He reached Durham on the 23d of December 1355, where he appointed all his military tenants to meet him on the 1st of January 1356. On the 14th of the same month he arrived before Berwick, which was instantly retaken; but the Scots were allowed to depart for their own country. The reduction of this place produced an extraordinary effect: For Baliol now perceiving that Edward meant not to establish him on the throne of Scotland, but to retain in his own possession as many places of that country as he could, came at last

245 Re-taken by Edward.

Scotland.

to the resolution of giving up to the king of England the whole of Scotland. This indeed was no more than a form, because at that time he was not possessed of the kingdom. However, the ceremony was performed at Roxburgh; and Baliol presented his crown, and some earth and stones, by way of investiture. Baliol in return was to have a revenue of 2000 pounds a-year; and, as Edward was at the head of an excellent army, he had little doubt of being able to force the Scots to submit.

246 Baliol resigns the kingdom of Scotland to Edward.

The affairs of Scotland were now in a very critical situation; and it was necessary to gain time. For this reason Edward was amused with a negociation; and to this he the more willingly listened, as he was at that time waiting for his fleet, from which he great expectations. A little time, however, discovered the deceit. The Scots plainly told Edward, that they would die rather than submit to his demands; and he, in return, threatened a most dreadful revenge. His fleet in the mean time arrived in the frith of Forth; the mariners destroyed and pillaged all that was within their reach, without sparing even the sacred edifices, carrying off the statues of the blessed virgin, loading the monks with chains, and committing every thing in those days called impiety and sacrilege. Edward had by this time marched as far as Haddington, but was obliged to receive provisions all the way from his fleet; for the Scots had desolated the country through which he passed. During his march his army was harrassed, and his foragers cut off, so that he was reduced to distress; and at last, his fleet being totally destroyed by a storm, he was obliged to return to England without accomplishing any thing.

247 Who makes a furious invasion.

248 But is obliged to return without accomplishing any thing.

In the mean time the prince of Wales, who had been left by his father to carry on the war in France, defeated and took prisoner John king of France at the battle of Poictiers. In this battle were 3000 Scots, who had gone over as auxiliaries to the French monarch, and who suffered extremely. However, the success of Edward, instead of rendering him haughty, seemed to have a contrary effect; and, by the mediation of pope Innocent, a truce for two years was concluded with France, in which the Scots were comprehended. During this interval, the ransom of the king of Scots was settled at 100,000 marks to be paid in ten years; for which 20 hostages were to be given as formerly. In consequence of this treaty, David at last obtained his liberty in 1358; and Edward laid aside all hopes of ever subduing Scotland. As for Baliol, he was now sunk in oblivion; and it is not known what become of him, or when he died.

249 David obtains his liberty.

Scotland.

David, though now restored to liberty, found himself greatly embarrassed with the payment of such a large sum as had been stipulated for his ransom; the kingdom of Scotland being then in a most miserable and exhausted situation. After sending his queen, and going into England himself, he could obtain no greater favour than a respite of a few months for the payment of the second moiety; so that he was at last constrained to ask assistance from France. This could scarce be expected in the distressed situation of that kingdom; however, it was at last agreed, that 50,000 marks should be paid to Scotland, in case the Scots would consent to renew the war the following years. Neither party, however, kept their word; and David, being still greatly distressed about the remainder of his ransom, at last entered into a very extraordinary negociation with Edward, by which he consented that the king of England should be his successor to the throne of Scotland. But this negociation was defeated through the invincible hatred which the Scots bore to an English governor. David then, being entirely unable to discharge the remainder of his ransom, was obliged to enter into a new treaty; by which the kingdom of Scotland became indebted to Edward the sum of 100,000 pounds Sterling, to be paid by equal proportions within the space of 25 years, during which there should be a truce between the two nations.

250 Is embarrassed by the payment of his ransom.

251 Enters into a new treaty with Edward.

From this time we meet with little more of any moment in the reign of king David. After the death of his queen Johanna, the sister of Edward, he married a Scots woman, of mean birth, named Margaret Logie; but by neither of his wives had he any children. Queen Margaret he divorced, on what pretence is not known; however, she left the kingdom, and complained personally to the pope, who treated her as David's lawful wife, and enjoined her husband to receive her as such under the most severe penalties. What effect these threats had on the king, is not known; but it is certain that Margaret never returned to Scotland; and, on the 22d of February 1371, David himself died, leaving the kingdom to his nephew Robert Steward, the first of that family who sat on the throne of Scotland (G).

252 He dies, and is succeeded by Robert Stewart.

Some

(G) Concerning the origin of the Stewart family, we have the following account by the Scots historians. Fleance, the son of the celebrated Banquo, after his father's murder by Macbeth, fled into Wales, where he had a son named *Walter*, by a princess of that country. After the restoration of Malcolm Canmore, this Walter returned to Scotland, where he was promoted to the high stewardship, a dignity held by service, and which entitled the possessor to all the privileges of a baron. Walter was now distinguished from this office, by the title of *Walter the Stewart*, which descended to his posterity; and *Steward*, afterwards *Stewart*, or *Stuart*, became their surname.

On this account Lord Hailes has the following remarks. " Our historians have recorded the atchievements of Walter the Stewart of Scotland in the reign of Malcolm III. He is said to have been the father of Alan, and the grandfather of that Walter who was indeed Stewart of Scotland in the reign of David I. and Malcolm IV. It may perhaps be ascribed to strange prejudices, or to a spirit of scepticism, when I declare, that hitherto I have seen no evidence that such a person as Walter Stewart of Scotland, in the reign of Malcolm III. did ever exist.

" We are gravely told, ' That Walter the son of Fleance, the son of Banquho, Thane of Lochaber, having killed a man at the court of Griffith, prince of Wales, sought refuge with Edward the Confessor; ' and having killed another man at Edward's court, sought refuge with Alan the Red, earl of Britany: ' That, on the Norman invasion, he came to England with the earl of Britany, and signalized himself at the

" battle

Scotland. Some authors tell us, that at the accession of Robert II. his title was disputed by William earl of Douglas. If an such claim was preferred, an assembly of the States set it aside, and it was resolved that Robert should be crowned at Scone; and to take away for the future all disputes concerning the succession, Scotland.

'battle of Hastings in 1066: That the earl of Britany, by his first wife Emma, daughter of Siward earl 'of Northumberland, had an only child Christina; and that he bestowed her in marriage on the young hero." This is the story, which, after various improvements since the days of Boece, has had the good fortune to obtain credit.

" That Walter, before he had well attained to the age of manhood, should have slain two men in private quarrels, is a circumstance improbable, yet possible; and therefore I object not to it. But his alliance with the earl of Britany cannot be so easily admitted.

" Alan surnamed *le Roux*, a younger son of Eudo earl of Britany, was one of the gallant adventurers who came over with William the Conqueror; *he had neither territories nor court*. The historians of Britany positively assert that he had no children. Besides, it is hard to say, by what accident Alan *le Roux* should have become acquainted with Emma the daughter of Siward earl of Northumberland! I suppose that our historians invented this alliance, in order to strengthen the connection between Walter the Stewart and Malcolm III.

" According to one account, the genealogies of their families stand thus:

Siward earl of Northumberland *.
|
Emma=Alan earl of Britany. | Another daughter=Duncan king of Scots.
Christina=Walter the Stewart. | Malcolm III.

" Thus Walter the Stewart and Malcolm III. were cousins-german.

" According to another account, the genealogy of their families stands thus:

Siward earl of Northumberland. | His sister=wife of Duncan
Emma=Alan Earl of Britany. | Malcolm III.
Christina=Walter the Stewart.

" Thus the mother of Walter the Stewart, and Malcolm III. were cousins-german.

" It is said, 'That Walter the Stewart had a son, Alan, also Stewart of Scotland.' The evidence of this is to be found in a charter granted by earl Gospatrick, and in another charter granted by his son Waldeve earl of March, at Dunbar. In them Alden, or Aldan Dapifer, is mentioned as a witness; that is, say our antiquaries, *Allan, the stewart of Scotland.*

" This is the fundamental proposition on which the genealogy of the house of Stewart, as it is commonly understood, may be said to rest. It will be remarked, that this hypothesis takes it for granted, that *Alden* or *Aldan*, and *Alan*, are the same; upon what authority, I know not. The Alden mentioned in the two charters seems to have been the stewart of earl Gospatrick, and of earl Waldeve, not the stewart of Scotland.

To the charter by earl Gospatrick, there are eight witnesses: 'Andrew the arch-deacon; Adam his bro-'ther; Nigel the chaplain; Ketel the son of Dolphin; Ernald; *Alden the Stewart* [Dapifer]; Adam the 'son of Alden; Adam the son of Gospatrick.' Is it possible for credulity itself to believe, that *the Alden* placed so low in such company, was *the high stewart of Scotland*, a man at least as honourable as Gospatrick himself? I can have no doubt, that the witnesses to this charter were the dependents or household-servants of earl Gospatrick; and that if we interpret *Nigellus Capellanus* to be *Nigel the earl's chaplain*, we must interpret *Aldenus Dapifer* to be *Alden the earl's stewart*.

" To the charter granted by earl Waldeve, there are nine witnesses. *Alden Dapifer* is the seventh in order. There are only three among them who seem to have been landed men: 'Elias de Hadestandena, (probably Hassenden), William de Copland, and William de Hellebat, (q. Ellbottle); all the three are placed before *Alden Dapifer*.

It has been remarked, 'That in those days the title of *stewart*, or *dapifer*, was too high a title to be given 'to the retainer of an earl.' I answer, that the Saxon Chronicle, *anno* 1093, says, 'Morael of Boebbahurh 'was thaes eorles *stiward*,' i. e. Morel of Bamborough was this earl's *stewart*, or the stewart of Robert earl of Northumberland. Besides, to a charter granted by earl Gospatrick the elder, *Lambertus Dapifer* is a witness. If *Lambertus Dapifer*, in a charter of Gospatrick the elder, implies *Lambert the stewart of the family of March*, why should *Aldenus Dapifer*, in the charters of the son and grandson of Gospatrick, imply *the stewart of Scotland?*

" I

* There was a certain princess of Denmark, who brought forth a son to a *bear*. This son was called *Bern*, and, natural enough like, had ears like a bear. He was the father of Siward earl of Northumberland. *Brompton*, p. 945. ap. Twisden.

Scotland.

sion, a particular act was framed, by which the kingdom was secured to Robert and his heirs.

The new king being thus established on the throne, endeavoured to renew the war with the English, in order to recover from them the town of Berwick, and some other places on the borders. In this, however, he failed; and as 56,000 pounds of David's ransom still remained unpaid, Robert bound himself to discharge it at the rate of 4000 marks every midsummer. He then proposed an alliance with France; but the terms demanded by that kingdom being, that Scotland should be obliged to make war with England whenever France should require it, Robert could not by any means be induced to consent to such a requisition, which would have obliged him to break thro' the most solemn treaties, whenever the king of France should think proper to break with England. A new treaty therefore was entered into, by which it was provided, that neither Scotland nor France should be obliged to make war with England; and by another clause, that the dispensation or authority even of the pope himself, should never free the kings or kingdoms of France and Scotland from the obligations they lay under to assist one another, as often as required, in opposition to the kingdom of England. In case of a competition for the crown of Scotland, the king of France and his heirs were to take care that no English influence was used; but that the matter being by the greatest and best part of the nation decided conformably to the laws and establishments of Scotland, he should with all his power defend and assist the person so established. Lastly, it was agreed, that no Frenchman should ever henceforth serve for wages, or otherwise, against Scotland, nor any Scotsm an against France.

253 Treaty with France.

This last article occasioned a recal of all the Scots from the English armies, which Edward looked upon to be a prelude to an invasion. He accordingly issued writs for assembling all the militia in the north of England. At this time an invincible hatred subsisted between the neighbouring people of both nations, which extended not only through the lower ranks, but had pervaded the higher classes also. The inhabitants of the borders, indeed, paid very little regard to the orders of their respective sovereigns; so that daily hostilities were committed by them upon each other, when there was peace between the sovereigns. The inhabitants of these countries had established with one another certain conventions, which have since been collected, and go by the name of the *Border-laws*. The families of Douglas and Percy, whose estates lay contiguous to one another, were at perpetual variance. It had been common for the borderers of both kingdoms, during a truce, to frequent each others fairs; and a servant of the earl of March had been killed in a fray at that of Roxburgh, which was still in the hands of the English. Justice for this murder was demanded from lord Percy; but he slighted the complaint. On this the earl of March, with his brother the earl of Moray, assembling their followers, entered the next fair that was held in Roxburgh, plundered and burnt the town, and killed all the English who fell into their hands. The English borderers were ordered to lay waste the lands of the earl of March; but, in their way thither, destroyed the estate of Sir John Gordon, a man of great property in the south of Scotland. Sir John in his turn invaded England, from whence he drove off a large booty in cattle, and a number of prisoners. In his retreat he was attacked by a body of fresh troops under Sir John Lisburn, at

254 War betwixt the Scots and English borderers.

" I believe that no defender of the common hypothesis will answer this objection, by pretending that *Lambertus Dapifer* was indeed *steward of Scotland*. Such an answer would leave no room for Walter stewart of Scotland, who is held to have been a distinguished personage in the reign of Malcolm III.

" It is curious to see upon what slight grounds our antiquaries have established the connection between *Aldenus Dapifer* and the house of Stewart. *Walterus filius Alani* appears to have flourished in the reign of David I. In the reign of Malcolm IV. he is termed *Dapifer*. Hence it has been rashly concluded, that *Walterus Dapifer filius Alani* was the son of that *Aldenus Dapifer* who is a witness to the charters of Gospatric and Waldeve.

" I persuade myself, that *Alden Dapifer*, and *Alen the father of Walter* Stewart of Scotland, in the reign of Malcolm IV. were different persons; and that they had nothing in common but the Christian name, if indeed they had that in common.

" Some of my readers may demand, ' *Who* then was Alan the father of Walter, stewart of Scotland in the ' reign of Malcolm IV ?'

" I can only answer this question by demanding, ' *Who* was the father of Martach earl of Marre in the ' reign of Malcolm III.; of Gilchrist earl of Angus in the reign of Alexander I.; of Fergus lord of Gal- ' loway in the reign of Malcolm IV.; or of Friskinus de Moravia, ancestor of the family of Sutherland, in ' the reign of William the Lion ?' Or, to keep in the supposed line of the royal family of Stewart, ' *Who* ' was the father of Banquho Thane of Lochaber ?'

" Many answers may no doubt be made to this last question. Kennedy says, that the father of Banquho was one of the seven sons of Core king of Munster; Sir George M'Kenzie, Of Ferquhard, the son of Kenneth III; and Simpson, The son of Ferquhard Thane of Lochaber, the son of Kenneth, the son of Murdoch, the son of Doir, the son of Eth king of Scotland.

" It is remarkable, that Abercrombie relates all those contradictory stories, without ever suspecting the natural inference arising from them, ' That if noble persons are not satisfied with a long pedigree, proved by ' authentic instruments, they must believe in flattering and ignorant fictions; and that if they scorn to wait ' for the dawn of record to enlighten their descent, they must bewilder themselves in dark and fabulous ge- ' nealogies.'

" In the reign of David I. before the middle of the 12th century, the family of the Stewarts was opulent and powerful. It may therefore have subsisted for many ages previous to that time; but when, and what was its commencement, we cannot determine."

Scotland. a place called *Caram*. An obstinate encounter followed. The Scots were five times repulsed; but at last they renewed the charge with such fury, that they made Lilburn, his brother, and several other persons of distinction, prisoners, together with all their surviving soldiers. On this lord Percy with 7000 men encamped at Duns, in the south of Scotland; but was obliged to retire, probably for want of subsistence for his army. In the mean time, Musgrave, the governor of Berwick, who had been ordered to join Percy with a detachment from the garrison, was on his march intercepted, defeated, and taken prisoner by Sir John Gordon; after which the border war became general on both sides. The issue of these disturbances is but little known; however, in 1377, we find them raging with more violence than ever. The fair of Roxburgh was once more the scene of action, and the town was again burnt down by the Scots. Lord Percy, who was now earl of Northumberland, resolved to take signal vengeance. He ravaged the Scots borders, particularly the earl of March's estate, for three days, at the head of 10,000 men. Some time after this, the Scots insurgents became powerful enough to surprise Berwick; which, however, was quickly retaken by the English, who soon after invaded Scotland. In this expedition, however, they succeeded so ill, that Percy thought proper to desist from his expedition. The Scots in the mean time began hostilities by sea, under one Mercer, an experienced sailor: but he had the misfortune to be taken prisoner by the English, with all his fleet. In 1379, England was afflicted with a dreadful plague, of which the Scots took advantage to invade the country. The English historians tell us that they behaved with the utmost barbarity, killing and plundering the defenceless inhabitants without mercy.

255 Berwick taken and retaken.

This predatory war continued, generally to the disadvantage of the English, till the beginning of November 1380, when a truce was concluded, to continue for a year; which, however, related only to the borders. This truce, like the others, was but very indifferently observed; so that, in 1383, new negociations were set on foot: but, in 1384, the war was renewed with greater fury than ever. In the spring, the earls of March and Douglas took the castle of Lochmaben, and intercepted a rich convoy which the English were sending to Roxburgh; burnt to the ground the castle of Wark, and committed such devastations in the north of England, that several gentlemen offered to resign their estates to king Richard, because they were not able to defend them against the Scots. The Duke of Lancaster entered Scotland at the head of an army; but the inhabitants had removed every thing valuable, so that he marched on to Edinburgh without accomplishing any thing of consequence. On his return, he was harrassed by flying parties of Scots, who destroyed a considerable number of his men. This year also the French sent a body of auxiliaries into Scotland. The earls of Northumberland and Nottingham entered Scotland with an army of 10,000 horse and 6000 archers; but retired after having committed some devastations in the southern counties. The Scots revenged themselves by laying waste all the northern part of England to the gates of Newcastle. Berwick was taken by the Scots, and soon after surrendered for the sum of 2000 marks. A truce was then, as usual, concluded; but in the mean time king Robert was meditating a most severe blow against the English.

256 Formidable invasion of England projected.

The Duke of Burgundy having come to the possession of the estate of his father-in-law the earl of Flanders, claimed the sovereignty of the town of Ghent; but they refused to submit to him, and in this refusal were protected by king Richard II. of England. On this the duke of Burgundy proposed to the French court to invade England in concert with the Scots. This being agreed to, a fleet was fitted out at Sluys; on board of which John de Vienne, the French admiral, embarked, carrying alongst with him 50,000 pounds in gold, which the duke of Burgundy advanced in order to be distributed in Scotland, where the admiral arrived safe with a considerable reinforcement, together with supplies of all kinds of military stores. Two thousand auxiliaries, of whom 500 were men-at-arms; arrived with this fleet, and 400 suits of complete armour were brought alongst with them, in order to be distributed among the bravest of the Scots.

257 But comes to nothing.

The Scots were for a short time elated with the great attention which had been paid them by the French king; but, in the mean time, the Flemings having revolted, the French abandoned the Scots to sustain the whole weight of the English resentment, that they themselves might employ their arms in Flanders. King Richard took the field with a more numerous army than had ever been mustered in England before. Hostilities were begun by the Scots, who, according to custom, invaded the northern parts of England, and carried off a considerable booty: however, in their retreat, they were in the utmost danger of being cut off by the duke of Lancaster, who had been sent with an army to intercept them. The English army proceeded northwards; but could accomplish nothing, on account of the country being desolated, till they came to Edinburgh, which they laid in ashes. Being, however, incessantly harrassed by parties of the enemy, they were obliged to retreat.

Nothing remarkable happened till the year 1378, when, after a short truce, the war was renewed with fresh fury. Northumberland and Westmoreland were ravaged by the earls of Fife and Douglas, and Lord Nithsdale defeated a body of 3000 English; after which he formed the plan of invading Ireland, the inhabitants of which had of late been very active against the Scots. In 1388, Douglas obtained permission to raise a body of forces for this invasion; and having landed in safety, defeated the Irish, plundered the town of Carlingford, and loaded fifteen ships with the booty. From thence the Scots sailed to the isle of Man, which in like manner was plundered and laid waste; after which they returned with their booty to Loch Rien in Scotland.

258 England invaded by two Scots armies at once.

Encouraged by this success, Robert determined to proceed on a more enlarged plan. Having assembled a parliament at Aberdeen, a double invasion of England was resolved upon. Two armies were raised; the one, consisting of 25,000 men, commanded by the earls of Mentieth and Fife, Douglas lord of Galloway, and Alexander Lindsay; the other army, consisting of the like number, was commanded by the earls of Dou-

Scotland. Douglas, March, Crawford, Moray, the lord high Constable of Scotland, and other persons of distinction. The former entered Cumberland, and the latter Northumberland, both which countries they laid waste, and both armies were to meet within ten miles of Newcastle. The English were thrown into the greatest consternation. Newcastle was defended by the earl of Northumberland, whose age and infirmities rendered him incapable of taking the field; but his place was abundantly supplied by his two sons Henry and Ralph, the former of whom is known in English history by the name of *Hotspur*. The town was garrisoned by the flower of the English nobility and gentry, as well as the inhabitants of the adjacent countries, who had fled thither for refuge. Douglas selected 2000 foot and 300 horsemen out of the two armies, and encamped on the north side of the town, with a view, according to the Scots historians, of storming it next day. In the mean time he was challenged by Hotspur to fight him hand to hand, with sharp ground spears, in sight of both armies.. Douglas accepted the challenge, and Percy was unhorsed the first encounter, and obliged to take refuge within the portcullis or gate of the town; from whence Douglas brought off his antagonist's lance, with a pennon affixed to it, and swore in his hearing, that he would carry it into Scotland. Next day Douglas attempted to storm the town; but being repulsed in the attack, he decamped in the night. Percy, breathing furious revenge, pursued and overtook the Scots at Otterburn. His arrival was quite unexpected, so that the principal commanders of the Scottish army were sitting down to supper unarmed. The soldiers, however, were instantly prepared for battle; but in the hurry necessarily attending a surprise of this kind, Douglas forgot to put on his cuirass. Both leaders encouraged their men by the most animating speeches; and both parties waited for the rise of the moon, which happened that night to be unusually bright. The battle being joined on the moon's first appearance, the Scots began to give ground; but, being rallied by Douglas, who fought with a battle-ax, the English, though greatly superior in number, were totally routed. Twelve hundred were killed on the spot; and 100 persons of distinction, among whom were the two Percies, were made prisoners by Keith marischal of Scotland. On the side of the Scots the greatest loss was that of the brave earl Douglas, who was killed in consequence of going to battle without his armour, as above related. —It was this single combat between Douglas and Piercy, and the subsequent battle, which gave rise to the celebrated ballad of Chevy Chace.

259 Single combat between earl Douglas and Henry Piercy.

260 Battle of Otterburn.

261 The English defeated, and earl Douglas killed.

In the mean time the bishop of Durham was marching towards Newcastle with an army of 10,000 men; but was informed by the runaways of Percy's defeat, which happened on the 21st of July 1388. In a council of war it was resolved to pursue the Scots, whom they hoped easily to vanquish, as being wearied with the battle of the preceding day, and laden with plunder. The earl of Moray who commanded in chief, having called a consultation of his officers, resolved to venture a battle. The prisoners were almost as numerous as the whole Scots army; however, the generals required no more of them than their words of honour that they should continue inactive during the battle, and remain prisoners still. This condition being complied with, the Scots drew out their army for battle. Their rear was secured by marshes, and their flanks by large trees which they had felled. In short, their appearance was so formidable, that the English, dreading to encounter a resolute enemy so strongly secured, retired to Newcastle, leaving the Scots at liberty to continue their march to their own country. Scotland

Robert being now oppressed with age, so that he could no longer endure the fatigues of government, the administration of affairs devolved upon his second son the earl of Fife; for his eldest son was by nature indolent, and besides lame by an unlucky blow he had received from a horse. Early in the spring of 1389, he invaded England with success: but the same year a truce was concluded, to last from the 19th of June 1389 to the 16th of August 1392; in which the allies of both crowns were included. This truce was violently opposed by the nobility, who suspected their king of being too much under French influence. Upon this the court of France thought proper to send over ambassadors to persuade the nobility to comply; informing them, that in case of a refusal, they could expect no assistance either of men or money from the continent. With difficulty they prevailed, and peace between England and Scotland was once more restored. Scarce, however, was this truce finished, when the peace of the nation was most scandalously violated by Robert's third son the earl of Buchan. This prince having a quarrel with the bishop of Murray, burnt down the fine cathedral of Elgin, which has been called by historians the lanthorn and ornament of the north of Scotland. The king for this crime caused his son to be imprisoned; and a civil war would have been the consequence, had it not been for the veneration which the Scots retained for their old king. However, they did not long enjoy, their beloved monarch; for he died on the 19th of April 1390, in the 75th year of his age and the 19th of his reign. 262 Robert II. dies, and is succeeded by Robert III.

On the death of Robert II. the crown devolved upon his eldest son John; but the name being thought unlucky in Scotland, he changed it for that of Robert, though he was still called by the commonalty *Robert John Fernzier*. He had been married to Annibal, the daughter of Sir John Drummond, ancestor to the noble family of Perth; and was crowned along with his consort at Scone, on the 13th of August 1390. He confirmed the truce which had been entered into with England, and renewed the league with France; but the beginning of his reign was disturbed by the wars of the petty chieftains with each other. Duncan Stewart, son to Alexander earl of Buchan, who had died in prison for burning the cathedral of Elgin, assembling his followers under pretence of revenging his father's death, laid waste the county of Angus. Walter Ogilvy the sheriff of Angus, attempting to repel the invaders, was killed, with his brother and 60 of their followers. The king then gave a commission to the earl of Crawford to suppress them; which he soon did, and most of them were either killed or executed. The followers of the earl of Buchan were composed of the wildest Highlanders, distinguished by the title of *Catterenes*, which answers to that of banditti. That such a race of people existed is certain from the records of 263 Rebellion of the earl of Buchan.

264 Account of the *Catterenes*.

Scotland. Scotland; but it is not easy to determine how they obtained their subsistence, being void of the knowledge of agriculture and of every civil art. There is some reason to believe that many of them came from the Western Isles; and that they or their ancestors had emigrated from the eastern parts of Ireland. The lands they inhabited were never cultivated till towards the middle of the last century; and, according to the most authentic accounts, they lived entirely upon animal-food.

264 Battle between the champions of the clan Chattan and clan Kay.

The earl of Crawford's success against the followers of Buchan encouraged Robert to intrust him with a commission for subduing other insurgents by whom the peace of the country was disturbed. The most remarkable of these, were the *Clan Chattan* and *Clan Kay*. As both these tribes were numerous and brave, Crawford was not without apprehensions that they might unite against him as a common enemy, and defeat him if he attempted to suppress them by force. He proposed therefore that the two rival clans should each choose 30 men, to determine their differences by the sword, without being allowed the use of any other weapon. The king and his nobility were to be spectators of the combat; the conquered clan were to be pardoned for all their former offences, and the conquerors honoured with the royal favour. This proposal was readily accepted by both parties, and the north inch of Perth was to be the scene of action. But, upon mustering the combatants, it was found that one of them, belonging to the clan Chattan, had absented himself. It was proposed to balance this difference by withdrawing one of the combatants for the clan Kay; but not one of them could be prevailed on to resign his place. At last one Henry Wynd a saddler, though no way connected with either party, offered to supply the place of him that was absent, on condition of his receiving a French crown of gold (about 7s. 6d. of our money); which was immediately paid him. The combat then began with incredible fury; but at last, through the superior valour and skill of Henry Wynd, victory declared in favour of the clan Chattan. Only ten of the conquerors, besides Wynd, were left alive; and all of them desperately wounded. Of the clan Kay only one remained; and he having received no hurt, escaped by swimming across the Tay.

While these internal broils were going on, the truce which had lately been concluded with England was so ill observed, that it became necessary to enter into fresh negociations. These, like others which had taken place before, had very little effect. The borderers on both sides had been so accustomed to ravage and plunder, that they could not live in quiet.

265 Title of Duke introduced into Scotland.

King Robert also was thought to be too much attached to the king of England. He had introduced the new title of *duke*, which he bestowed first on the prince royal; but making an offer of that honour to one of the heads of the Douglas family, it was rejected with disdain. That powerful family had never lost sight of an ancient claim they had upon the castle of Roxburgh, which was still in the possession of the English; and this year the son of the earl of Douglas, Sir William Stewart, and others, broke down the bridge of Roxburgh, plundered the town, and destroyed the forage and corn there and in the neighbouring country. The English applied for satisfaction; but obtained none, as the confusion which involved the kingdom by the deposition of Richard II. and the accession of Henry IV. prevented them from having recourse to arms, the only argument to which the Scots patriots in those days would listen.

No sooner was the catastrophe of Richard known in Scotland, than they resolved to avail themselves of it; and invading the north parts of England, demolished the castle of Wark, and laid the neighbouring country under contribution. The situation of Henry's affairs did not admit of his resenting this insult. He contented himself with nominating his brother the earl of Westmoreland, to treat with the Scots about a truce or peace; or, if that could not be obtained, to make a mutual agreement, that the towns of Dumfries in Scotland, and Penrith in England, should be free from hostilities during the war. To this proposal the Scots paid no regard; and being encouraged by the court of France, who resented the deposition of Richard, they renewed their ravages in England. In 1400, the king of England called a parliament, in order to consult on the most proper means of repelling the Scottish invasions; and in this he was greatly assisted by the divisions of the Scots among themselves.

266 Mercenary behaviour of Robert with regard to his son's marriage.

The duke of Rothesay, the heir-apparent of the crown, was now grown up to man's estate, and it was thought proper to provide a suitable consort for him. The king is said to have scandalously put up his son's marriage at auction, and offered him to the lady whose father could give the highest price. The earl of March was the higest bidder; and advanced a considerable sum in ready money, on condition that his daughter should become the royal bride. This sordid match was opposed by Douglas, who proposed his own daughter the lady Margery. So degenerate was the court of Scotland at this time, that neither the king nor the duke of Rothesay opposed this proposal of a new match, because it was to be purchased with a fresh sum; and they even refused to indemnify the earl of March for the money he had already advanced.

As the duke of Albany sided with Douglas, a council of the nobility was privately assembled, which annulled the contract of the lady Elizabeth Dunbar, the earl of March's daughter, in favour of the lady Margery, daughter to the earl of Douglas; but without taking any measures for repaying the money to the earl of March. The continuator of Fordun informs us, that the earl of Douglas paid a larger sum for his daughter's fortune than that which had been advanced by the earl of March, and that the earl of Douglas's daughter was married to the duke of Rothesay: that, before the marriage was celebrated, March demanded that the money he had advanced should be reimbursed; but receiving an unsatisfactory answer, he declared, that as the king had not fulfilled his bargain, he would bring unexpected calamities upon the country. Accordingly he fled into England, leaving his castle of Dunbar to the custody of his nephew Robert Maithland, who soon after put it into the hands of the earl of Douglas, called in history *Archibald the Grim*, from the sternness of his visage.

267 Earl of March revolts.

As soon as Robert heard of the revolt of the earl of March, he sent ambassadors demanding back his subject; but the request was disregarded. On the other hand, the earl of March demanded repossession

Scotland. ſeſſion of the caſtle of Dunbar, pleading, that he had committed no act of treaſon, but had come to England under a ſafe conduct from king Henry, on purpoſe to negociate his private affairs: but this requeſt was diſregarded; upon which he ſent for all his family and followers to England, where they joined him in great numbers. This produced a war between the two kingdoms. The earl of March, with Henry Percy ſurnamed *Hotſpur*, invaded Scotland, penetrating as far as Haddington, and carrying off great numbers of the inhabitants into captivity. From thence they went to Peebles, and then to Linton, ravaging the country all the way as they paſſed along. They next beſieged the caſtle of Hales, and took ſeveral of the neighbouring forts: but Archibald the Grim, or rather his ſon, having raiſed an army againſt them, they were ſtruck with terror, and fled to Berwick, to the gates of which they were purſued by the Scots. At this time the Scottiſh admiral, Sir Robert Logan, was at ſea with a ſquadron; but miſcarried in an attempt he made upon ſome Engliſh ſhips of war that protected their fleet when fiſhing upon the coaſt of Scotland. After this the Engliſh plundered the Orkney iſlands; which, though belonging to the crown of Norway, were at that time governed, or rather farmed, by Sinclair the Scots earl of Orkney and Caithneſs.

268 Invaſion of Scotland by Henry Percy.

All this time the earl of March continued under the protection of the king of England. He had received repeated invitations to return to his allegiance: but all of them being rejected, he was proclaimed a traitor; and the Scottiſh governor made a formal demand of him from king Henry. With this the latter not only refuſed to comply, but renewed his league with the lord of the Iſles. He pretended alſo, that at this time he had intercepted ſome letters from the Scottiſh regency, which called him "a traitor in the higheſt degree;" and he alleged this as a reaſon why he protected not only the earl of March, but the lord of the iſles.

On the 25th of July 1400, the earl of March renounced his homage, fealty, and ſervice, to the king of Scotland, and transferred them to Henry by a formal indenture. For this the earl was rewarded with a penſion of 500 merks Sterling and the manor of Clipeſtone in Sherwood foreſt. Henry now began to revive the claim of homage from the kings of Scotland, and even to meditate the conqueſt of the kingdom. He had indeed many reaſons to hope for ſucceſs; the principal of which were, the weakneſs of the Scottiſh government, the divided ſtate of the royal family, and the diſſenſions among the chief nobility. For this purpoſe he made great preparations both by ſea and land; but before he ſet out on his journey, he received a letter from the duke of Rotheſay, full of reproaches on account of the preſumptuous letters which Henry had addreſſed to Robert and his nobility. The letter was addreſſed by the duke to his adverſary of England, as the Scots had not yet recognized the title of Henry to the crown of England. Towards the end of it the duke, according to the cuſtom of the times, deſired Henry, in order to avoid the effuſion of Chriſtian blood, to fight him in perſon with two, three, or an hundred noblemen on a ſide. But this challenge produced no other anſwer from Henry than that "he was

269 Henry IV. projects the conqueſt of Scotland.

Scotland. ſurpriſed that the duke of Rotheſay ſhould conſider noble blood as not being *Chriſtian*, ſince he deſired the effuſion of the one, and not of the other." Henry arrived at Leith on the very day in which he had appointed the Scottiſh nobility to meet him and pay their homage, and conclude a peace between the two crowns. In all probability, he expected to have been joined by great numbers of the diſcontented Scots; and he flattered the Engliſh with a promiſe of raiſing the power and glory of their country to a higher pitch than it had ever known. Under this pretext, he ſeized upon the ſum of 350,000 pounds in ready money, beſides as much in plate and jewels, which had been left by Richard in the royal treaſury. He raiſed alſo vaſt contributions on the clergy and nobility, and likewiſe on the principal towns and cities. At laſt, finding that neither his vaſt preparations, nor the intereſt of the earl of March, had brought any of the Scots to his ſtandard, he formed the ſiege of Edinburgh caſtle, which was defended by the duke of Rotheſay, and, as ſome ſay, by the earl of Douglas. The duke of Albany, brother to king Robert, was then in the field with an army, and ſent a letter to king Henry, promiſing, that if he would remain where he was for ſix days, he would give him battle, and force him to raiſe the ſiege, or loſe his life. When this was wrote, the duke was at Calder-muir; and Henry was ſo much pleaſed with the letter, that he preſented the herald who delivered it with his upper garment and a chain of gold; promiſing, on his royal word, that he would remain where he was until the appointed day. On this occaſion, however, the duke forfeited his honour; for he ſuffered ſix days to elapſe without making any attempt on the Engliſh army.

Henry in the mean time puſhed on the ſiege of Edinburgh caſtle; but met with ſuch a vigorous reſiſtance from the duke of Rotheſay, that the hopes of reducing it were but ſmall. At the ſame time he was informed that the Welſh were on the point of rebellion under the famous chieftain named *Owen Glendower*. He knew alſo that many of the Engliſh were highly diſſatisfied with his title to the crown; and that he owed his peaceable poſſeſſion of it to the moderation of the earl of March, who was the real heir to the unfortunate Richard, but a nobleman of no ambition. For theſe reaſons he concluded it beſt to raiſe the ſiege of Edinburgh caſtle, and to return to England. He then agreed to a truce for ſix weeks, but which was afterwards prolonged, probably for a year, by the commiſſioners of the two crowns, who were met at Kelſo.

270 But fails in his attempt.

In 1401, Scotland ſuffered a great loſs by the death of Walter Trail the archbiſhop of St Andrew's, a moſt exemplary patriot and perſon of great influence. Archibald Douglas the Grim had died ſome time before, and his loſs was now ſeverely felt; for the king himſelf, naturally feeble, and now quite diſabled by his age and infirmities, was ſequeſtered from the world in ſuch a manner, that we know not even the place of his reſidence during the laſt invaſion of Scotland by the Engliſh. This year alſo queen Annabella died, ſo that none remained who might be able to heal thoſe diviſions which prevailed among the royal family. Robert duke of Albany, a man of great ambi-

Scotland. ambition, was an enemy to the duke of Rothsay, the heir-apparent to the crown; and endeavoured, for obvious reasons, to impress his father with a bad opinion of him. This prince, however, appears to have been chargeable with no misdemeanour of any consequence, excepting his having debauched, under promise of marriage, the daughter of William Lindsay of Rossy. But this is not supported by any credible evidence; and, though it had been true, could never justify the horrid treatment he met with, and which we are now about to relate.

271 Conspiracy against the duke of Rothesay.

One Ramorgny, a man of the vilest principles, but an attendant on the duke of Rothsay, had won his confidence; and, perceiving how much he resented the conduct of his uncle the duke of Albany, had the villany to suggest to the prince the dispatching him by assassination. The prince rejected this insamous proposal with such horror and displeasure, that the villain, being afraid he would disclose it to the duke of Albany, informed the latter, under the seal of the most inviolable secrecy, that the prince intended to murder him; upon which the duke, and William Lindsay of Rossy, his associate in the treason, resolved upon the prince's death. By practising upon the doating king, Lindsay and Ramorgny obtained a writ directed to the duke of Albany, impowering him to arrest his son, and to keep him under restraint, in order for his amendment. The same traitors had previously possessed the prince with an apprehension that his life was in danger, and had persuaded him to seize the castle of St Andrew's, and to keep possession of it during the vacancy of that see. Robert had nominated one of his bastard brethren, who was then deacon of St Andrew's, to that bishopric: but being a person no way fitted for such a dignity, he declined the honour, and the chapter refused to elect any other during his lifetime; so that the prince had a prospect of possessing the castle for some time. He was riding thither with a small attendance, when he was arrested between the towns of Nidi and Stratirum, (according to the continuator of Fordun), and hurried to the very castle of which he was preparing to take possession.

The duke of Albany, and the earl of Douglas, who was likewise the prince's enemy, were then at Culross, waiting the event of their detestable conspiracy; of which they were no sooner informed, than they ordered a strong body of ruffians to carry the royal captive from the castle of St Andrew's; which they did, after cloathing him in a russet cloak, mounting him on a very sorry horse, and committing him to the custody of two execrable wretches, John Selkirk and

272 Who is starved to death.

John Wright, who were ordered by the duke of Albany to starve him to death. According to Buchanan, his fate was for some time prolonged by the compassion of one of his keeper's daughters, who thrust thin oat-cakes through the chinks of his prison-walls, and by a woman who, being a wet nurse, found means to convey part of her milk to him through a small tube. Both these charitable females were detected, and put to death; the young lady's inhuman father being himself the prosecutor. The prince himself died a few days after, on Easter-eve, his hunger having impelled him to devour part of his own flesh.

In the mean time, Robert, being yet ignorant of the murder of his son, had renewed, or rather consented to renew, hostilities with England. On the expiration of the truce, Henry had sent a commission to the earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland to offer the Scots any terms they could reasonably desire; but every offer of this kind being rejected, there was a necessity for renewing hostilities. The earl of March had received another pension from Henry, on condition of his keeping on foot a certain number of light troops to act against the Scots. This had been done; and so effectually did these now annoy their enemies, that the earl of Douglas was obliged to take the field against them. By dividing his men into small parties, he repressed the depredations of these invaders; and Thomas Haliburton, the commander of one of the Scottish parties, made incursions into England as far as Bamborough, from whence he returned with a considerable booty. This encouraged another chieftain, Patrick Hepburn, to make a similar attempt: but being elated with his success, he remained too long in the enemy's country; so that the earl of March had time to send a detachment to intercept him on his return. This produced a desperate encounter, in which Hepburn was killed; the flower of the youth of Lothian, who had attended in this expedition, were cut off, and scarce a single Scotsman remained unwounded.

273 A body of Scots cut off by the English.

On the news of this disaster, the earl of Douglas applied to the duke of Albany for assistance. He was immediately furnished with a considerable army, according to some, consisting of 10,000; according to others of 13,000; and according to the English historians, of 20,000 men. Murdoc, the son of the duke, attended the earl on this expedition, as did also the earls of Moray, Angus, Orkney, and many others of the chief nobility, with 80 knights. The Scots on this occasion conducted themselves with the same imprudence they had done before. Having penetrated too far into the country, they were intercepted by the English on their return, and obliged to engage at a place called Homeldon, under great disadvantages. The consequence was, that they were utterly defeated, and almost the whole army either killed or taken.

274 Their defeat at Homeldon.

Henry Hotspur, to whom this victory was chiefly owing, resolving to pursue the advantage he had gained, entered the southern parts of the kingdom, and laid siege to a castle called Cocklaws, on the borders of Teviotdale. The castle was for some time bravely defended: but at last the governor entered into a treaty, by which it was agreed to deliver up the castle, in case it was not relieved by the king or governor in six weeks; during which time no additional fortifications were to be made. But while the English were retiring, one of Percy's soldiers pretended that the Scots had broke the capitulation, by introducing a mattock into the place. The governor, hearing of this charge, offered to fight any Englishman who should engage to make it good. A champion was accordingly singled out, but was dedefeated by the Scotsman; and the English army retired according to agreement. The matter then being debated in the Scottish council, it was resolved to send relief to the castle. Accordingly the duke of Albany, with a powerful army, set out for the place; but before he came there, certain news were received of the defeat and

275 Cocklaws castle besieged by the English.

Scotland. and death of Hotspur, at Shrewsbury, as related under the article ENGLAND, n° 182.

In the year 1404, king Henry, exceedingly desirous of a peace with Scotland, renewed his negociations for that purpose. These, however, not being attended with success, hostilities were still continued, but without any remarkable transaction on either side. In the mean time, king Robert was informed of the miserable fate of his eldest son the duke of Rothesay; but was unable to resent it by executing justice on such a powerful murderer. After giving himself up to grief, therefore, for some time, he resolved to provide for the safety of his second son James, by sending him into France. This scheme was not communicated to the duke of Albany; and the young prince took shipping with all imaginable secrecy at the Bass, under the care of the earl of Orkney. On his voyage he was taken by an English privateer off Flamborough-head, and brought before Henry. The English monarch having examined the attendants of the prince, they told him that they were carrying the prince to France for his education. "I understand the French tongue," replied Henry, "and your countrymen ought to have been kind enough to have trusted me with their prince's education." He then committed the prince and his attendants close prisoners to the tower of London. The news of this disaster arrived at the castle of Rothesay in the isle of Bute (the place of Robert's residence) while the king was at supper. The news threw him into such an agony of grief, that he died in three days, the 29th of March 1405, after having reigned near 15 years.

276 The Scottish prince, James, sent to France, but is taken by the English.

277 Robert dies of grief.

By the death of Robert and the captivity of the prince, all the power devolved upon the duke of Albany, who was appointed regent by a convention of the states assembled at Scone. The allegiance of the people, however, to their captive prince could not be shaken; so that the regent was obliged to raise an army for the purpose of rescuing him. Henry summoned all his military tenants, and made great preparations: but, having agreed to treat of a final peace with Ireland and the lord of the Isles, the regent laid hold of this as a pretence for entering into a new negociation with the English monarch; and a truce was concluded for a year, during which time all differences were to be settled. In consequence of this agreement, Rothesay, king at arms, was appointed commissary-general for the king and kingdom of Scotland; and in that quality repaired to the court of England. At the time when the prince of Scotland was taken, it seems that there had been a truce, however ill observed on both sides, subsisting between the two nations. Rothesay produced the record of this truce, which provided that the Scots should have a free navigation; and in consequence of this he demanded justice of the captain and crew of the privateer who had taken the prince. Henry ordered the matter to be inquired into: but the English brought their complaints as well as the Scots; and the claims of both were so intricate, that the examination fell to the ground, but at the same time the truce was prolonged.

278 The duke of Albany regent.

In the end of the year 1409, or the beginning of 1410, the war was renewed with England, and Henry prepared to strike a fatal blow which he had long meditated against Scotland. He had, as we have seen, entered into a league with the lord of the Isles, where a considerable revolution then happened. Walter Lesley had succeeded to the estate and honours of the earl of Ross, in right of his wife, who was the heir. By that marriage, he had a son named *Alexander* who succeeded him; and a daughter, Margaret, who was married to the lord of the Isles. This Alexander had married one of the regent's daughters; and dying young, he left behind him an only daughter, Euphane, who was deformed, and become a nun at North Berwick. Her grandfather the regent procured from her a resignation of the earldom of Ross, to which she was undoubted heir, in favour of John earl of Buchan, but in prejudice of Donald lord of the isles, who was son to Margaret, sister to the earl Alexander, and consequently the nearest heir to the estate after the nun. Donald applied for redress; but his suit being rejected, he, with his brother John, fled into England, where he was most graciously received by king Henry. According to the instructions given him by the English monarch, Donald returned to his own dominions in the Isles, where he raised an army, and passing over into Rossshire violently seized on the estate in dispute. In a short time he found himself at the head of 10,000 Highlanders; with whom he marched into the province of Moray, and from thence to Strathbogie and Garioch, which he laid under contribution. Advancing towards Aberdeen, with a view to pay his troops with the plunder of that city, which was then a place of considerable trade, he was met by the earl of Marr, whom the regent had employed to command against him, at a village called Harlaw, in the neighbourhood of Aberdeen. A fierce engagement ensued, in which great numbers were killed on both sides, and the victory remained uncertain: but Donald, finding himself in the midst of an enemy's country, where he could raise no recruits, began to retreat next day; and the shattered state of the royal army preventing him from being pursued, he escaped to his own dominions, where in a short time he submitted and swore allegiance to the crown of Scotland.

279 Schemes of Henry against Scotland.

280 Battle of Harlaw.

In the mean time Henry continued the war with Scotland, and refused to renew the truce, though frequently solicited by the Scots. He had now, however, sustained a great loss by the defection of the earl of March, who had gone over to the Scots, though the historians have not informed us of his quarrel with the English monarch. On his return to Scotland, he had been fully reconciled to the Douglas family, and now strove to distinguish himself in the cause of his country. This, with the countenance which was shown the Scots by the court of France, a bull published by the pope in their favour, and the vigorous behaviour of the regent himself, contributed to reduce Henry to reason; and we hear of no more hostilities between the two nations till after the death of the English monarch, which happened in the year 1413.

281 The earl of March returns to his allegiance to Scotland.

In 1415, the truce being either broken or expired, the Scots made great preparations for besieging Berwick. The undertaking, however, came to nothing; all that was done during the campaign being the burning of Penrith by the Scots, and of Dumfries by the English. Next year a truce was agreed upon, and a treaty entered into for the ransom of king James; which

Scotland.

282 Unsuccessful expedition of Henry.

which was so far advanced, that the English king agreed to his visiting Scotland, provided he engaged to forfeit 100,000 pounds sterling in case of his failing to return by a certain day. For reasons now unknown, this treaty was broken off, and vast preparations were made for a new invasion of Scotland; which, however, was executed with so little success, that it became known among the common people of Scotland by the name of the *fule raid*, or the foolish expedition.

In 1420 died Robert Duke of Albany, regent of Scotland, at the age of 80; and such was the veneration which the Scots had for his memory, that his post of regent was conferred upon his eldest son Murdoc, though a person no way qualified for that station. The war with England was now discontinued; but in France Henry met with the greatest opposition from the Scots auxiliaries, insomuch that at last he proclaimed all the Scots in the service of the Dauphin to be rebels against their lawful sovereign, and threatened to treat them as such wherever he found them. It was not long before he had an opportunity of putting this menace in execution; for the town and castle of Melun being obliged through famine to capitulate, one of the articles of capitulation was, that all the English and Scots in the place should be resigned to the absolute disposal of the king of England; and, in consequence of his resolution above-mentioned, caused twenty Scots soldiers who were found in the place to be hanged as traitors. In 1421, Henry returned to England, and with him James the Scots king. On his arrival there, he was informed that the Scots, under the earl of Douglas, had made an irruption into England, where they had burned Newark, but had been forced to return to their own country by a pestilence, though a new invasion was daily expected. Instead of resenting this insult, Henry invited the earl of Douglas to a conference at York; in which the latter agreed to serve him during life, by sea and land, abroad or at home, against all living, except his own liege-lord the king of Scotland, with 200 foot and as many horse, at his own charges; the king of England in the mean time allowing an annual revenue of 200 l. for paying his expence in going to the army by sea or land.

283 His cruelty to the Scots in France.

At the same time a new negociation was set on foot for the ransom of king James; but he did not obtain his liberty till the year 1424. Henry V. was then dead; and none of his generals being able to supply his place, the English power in France began to decline. They then became sensible how necessary it was to be at peace with Scotland, in order to detach such a formidable ally from the French interest. James was now highly caressed, and at his own liberty, within certain bounds. The English even consulted him about the manner of conducting the treaty for his ransom; and one Dougal Drummond, a priest, was sent with a safe conduct for the bishop of Glasgow, chancellor of Scotland, Dunbar earl of March, John Montgomery of Ardrossan, Sir Patrick Dunbar of Bele, Sir Robert Lawder of Edrington, Sir William Borthwic of Borthwic, and Sir John Forrester of Corstorphin, to have an interview, at Pomfret, with their master the captive king of Scotland, and there to treat of their common interests. Most of those noblemen and gentlemen had before been nominated to treat with the English about their king's return; and Dougal Drummond seems to have been a domestic favourite with James. Hitherto the Scottish king had been allowed an annual revenue of 700 pounds: but while he was making ready for his journey, his equipages and attendants were increased to those befitting a sovereign; and he received a present from the English treasury of 100 l. for his private expences. That he might appear with a grandeur every way suitable to his dignity, at every stage were provided relays of horses, and all manner of fish, flesh, and fowl, with cooks and other servants for furnishing out the most sumptuous royal entertainment. In this meeting at Pomfret, James acted as a kind of a mediator between the English and his own subjects, to whom he fully laid himself open; but, in the mean time, the English regency issued a commission for settling the terms upon which James was to be restored, if he and his commissioners should lay a proper foundation for such a treaty. The English commissioners were the bishops of Durham and Worcester, the earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, the lords Nevil, Cornwal, and Chaworth, with master John Wodcham, and Robert Waterton. The instructions they received form one of the most curious passages of this history; and we shall here give them, as they are necessary for confirming all we have said concerning the dispositions of the two courts at this juncture.

284 Treaty for the liberty of James.

First, To make a faint opposition to any private conference between the king of Scotland and the Scotch commissioners.

Secondly, To demand that, before the said king shall have his full liberty, the kingdom of Scotland should pay to the English government at least thirty-six thousand pounds as an equivalent, at two thousand pounds a-year, for the entertainment of king James, who was maintained by the court of England, and not to abate any thing of that sum; but if possible to get forty thousand pounds.

Thirdly, That if the Scots should agree to the payment of the said sum, the English commissioners should take sufficient security and hostages for the payment of the same; and that if they should not (as there was great reason for believing they would) be so far mollified, by such easy terms, as to offer to enter upon a negociation for a final and perpetual peace between the two people, that then the English should propose the same, in the most handsome manner they could. Farther, that if such difficulties should arise as might make it impracticable immediately to conclude such perpetual peace, that the English ambassadors should, under pretence of paving a way for the same, propose a long truce.

Fourthly, That in case the English commissioners should succeed in bringing the Scots to agree to the said truce, they should further urge, that they should not send to Charles of France, or to any of the enemies of England, any succours by sea or land. Farther, that the said English commissioners should employ their utmost endeavours to procure the recal of the troops already furnished by the Scots to France. The English are commanded to insist very strenuously upon this point, but with discretion.

Fifthly, If the Scots should, as a further bond of amity between the two nations, propose a marriage between their king and some noblewoman of England,

Scotland. the English commissioners are to make answer, "That the king of the Scots is well acquainted with many noblewomen, and even those of the blood-royal, in England; and that if the king of the Scots shall please to open his mind more freely on that head, the English commissioners shall be very ready to enter upon conferences thereupon." But (continues the record) in case the Scotch commissioners should make no mention of any such alliance by marriage, it will not appear decent for the English to mention the same, because the women of England, at least the noblewomen, are not used to offer themselves in marriage to men.

Sixthly, If there should be any mention made concerning reparation of damages, that the commissioners should then proceed upon the same as they should think most proper; and that they should have power to offer safe-conduct to as many of the Scots as should be demanded for to repair to the court of England. Those instructions are dated at Westminster, July 6th, 1423.

Nothing definitive was concluded at this treaty, but that another meeting should be held at York instead of Pomfret. This meeting accordingly took place. The English commissioners were, Thomas bishop of Durham, chancellor of England, Philip bishop of Winchester, Henry Percy earl of Northumberland, and Mr John Wodeham. Those for Scotland were William bishop of Glasgow, George earl of March, James Douglas of Balveny, his brother Patrick abbot of Cambuskenneth, John abbot of Balmerino, Sir Patric Dumbar of Bele, Sir Robert Lawder of Edrington, Mr George Borthwic archdeacon of Glasgow, and Patric Houston canon of Glasgow. On the tenth of September, after their meeting, they came to the following agreement:

First, That the king of Scotland and his heirs, as an equivalent for his entertainment while in England, should pay to the king of England and his heirs, at London, in the church of St Paul, by equal proportions, the sum of forty thousand pounds sterling.

Secondly, That the first payment, amounting to the sum of ten thousand merks, should be made six months after the king of Scotland's entering his own kingdom; that the like sum should be paid the next year, and so on during the space of six years, when the whole sum would be cleared; unless, after payment of forty thousand merks, the last payment of ten thousand should be remitted, at the intreaty of the most illustrious prince Thomas duke of Exeter.

Thirdly, That the king of Scotland, before entering his own kingdom, should give sufficient hostages for performance on his part. But, in regard that the Scots plenipotentiaries had no instructions concerning hostages, it was agreed,

Fourthly, That the king of Scotland should be at Branspath, or Durham, by the first of March next, where he should be attended by the nobles of his blood, and other subjects, in order to fix the number and quality of the hostages.

Fifthly, That, to cement and perpetuate the amity of the two kingdoms, the governor of Scotland should send ambassadors to London, with power to conclude a contract of marriage between the king of Scotland and some lady of the first quality in England.

James, it is probable, had already fixed his choice upon the lady Joan, daughter to the late earl of Somerset, who was son to John of Gaunt duke of Lancaster by his second marriage; but he made his people the compliment, not only of consulting their opinion, but of concluding the match. The commissioners, after their agreement at York, proceeded towards London; and Thomas Somerville of Carnwath, with Walter Ogilvy, were added to their number. Being arrived at that capital, they ratified the former articles, and undertook for their king, that he should deliver his hostages to the king of England's officers, in the city of Durham, before the last day of the ensuing month of March; that he should also deliver to the said officers four obligatory letters, for the whole sum of forty thousand pounds, from the four burghs of Edinburgh, Perth, Dundee, and Aberdeen; that he should give his obligatory letter to the same purpose, before removing from Durham, and should renew the same four days after his being arrived in his own kingdom; that the hostages might be changed from time to time for others of the same fortune and quality; that if any of them should die in England, others should be sent thither in their room; and that while they continued to stay in England, they should live at their own charges.

285 Marriage of king James.

The marriage of James with the lady Joan Beaufort, was celebrated in the beginning of February 1424. The young king of England presented him with a suit of cloth of gold for the ceremony; and the next day he received a legal discharge of 10,000 pounds, to be deducted from the 40,000 at which his ransom was fixed, and which sum was given as the marriage-portion of the lady. The ceremony being performed, the king and queen set out for Durham, where the hostages were waiting; and arrived at his own dominions, along with the earl of Northumberland and the chief of the northern nobility, who attended him with great pomp. On the 20th of April the same year, he was crowned at Scone; after which ceremony, he followed the example practised by other sovereigns at that time, of knighting several noblemen and gentlemen.

During the dependence of the treaty for James's release, the Scots had emigrated to France in such numbers, that no fewer than 15,000 of them now appeared in arms under the duke of Touraine; but as the history of the war in that country has already been given under the article FRANCE, we shall take no farther notice of it at present, but return to the affairs of Scotland.

286 He reforms several abuses in Scotland.

On his return James found himself in a disagreeable situation. The great maxim of the duke of Albany, when regent, had been to maintain himself in power by exempting the lower class of people from taxes of every kind. This plan had been continued by his son Murdoch; but as the latter was destitute of his father's abilities, the people abused their happiness, and Scotland became such a scene of rapine, that no commoner could say he had a property in his own estate. The Stewart family, on their accession to the crown of Scotland, were possessed of a very considerable patrimonial estate, independent of the standing revenues of the crown, which consisted chiefly of customs, wards, and reliefs. The revenues of the paternal estate belonging to James, had they been regularly transmitted to him, would have more than maintained him in a splendour equal to his dignity, while he was in England; nor would

Scotland. would he in that case have had any occasion for an allowance from the king of England. But as the duke of Albany never intended that his nephew should return, he parcelled out among his favourites the estate of the Stewart family, in such a manner that James upon his return found all his patrimonial revenues gone, and many of them in the hands of his best friends; so that he had nothing to depend on for the support of himself and his court, but the crown-revenues above-mentioned, and even some of these had been mortgaged during the late regency. This circumstance, of itself sufficiently disagreeable, was attended with two others, which tended to make it more so. The one was, that the hostages which had been left for the king's ransom in England, being all of them persons of the first rank, were attended by their wives, families, children, and equipages, which rivalled those of the same rank in England, and drew a great deal of ready money out of the nation. The other circumstance arose from the charge of the Scots army in France; where Charles, who had never been in a condition to support it, was now reduced to the utmost necessity; while the revenues of James himself were both scanty and precarious. To remedy these inconveniences, therefore, the king obtained from his parliament an act obliging the sheriffs of the respective counties to inquire what lands and estates had belonged to his ancestors David II. Robert II. and Robert III.; and James formed a resolution of resuming these lands wherever they could be discovered, without regard to persons or circumstances. On this
287 Several of the nobility executed. occasion many of the most illustrious personages in the kingdom were arrested: the duke of Albany, his two sons, and the earl of Lennox the duke's father-in-law, were put to death, though their crimes are not specified by historians. Buchanan mentions a tradition, that James barbarously sent to the countess of Lennox the heads of her father, husband, and sons; for the following more barbarous reason, that in the bitterness of her grief she might drop some expressions tending to involve others in the same catastrophe. The countess, however, calmly said, "That, if the charges against the criminals were proved, they deserved their fate."

James now proceeded with great spirit to reform the abuses which had pervaded every department of the state, protected and encouraged learning and learned men, and even kept a diary in which he wrote down the names of all the learned men whom he thought deserving of his encouragement. James himself wrote some poetry; and in music was such an excellent composer, that he is with good reason looked upon to have been the father of Scots music, so much admired for its elegant simplicity. He introduced organs into his chapels, and a much better style of architecture into all buildings whether civil or religious. Neither did he confine his cares to the fine arts, but encouraged and protected those of all kinds which were useful to society; and, in short, he did more towards the civilization of his people than had been done by any of his predecessors.

In the mean time the truce continued with England. James, however, seemed not to have any inclination to enter into a perpetual alliance with that kingdom. On the contrary, in 1428, he entered into a treaty with France; by which it was agreed, that a marriage should be concluded between the dauphin of France, afterwards Lewis XI. and the young princess of Scotland; and so great was the necessity of king Charles for troops at that time, that he demanded only 6000 forces as a portion for the princess. Scotland.

The rest of the reign of James was spent in reforming abuses, curbing the authority of the great barons, and recovering the royal estates out of the hands of usurpers. In this, however, he used so much severity, 288 The king murdered. that he was at last murdered, in the year 1437. The perpetrators of this murder were the earl of Athol; Robert Grahame, who was connected with the earl, and who was discontented on account of his losing the estate of Strathern, which had been re-annexed to the crown; and Robert, grandchild and heir to the earl of Athol, and one of the king's domestics. The king had dismissed his army, without even reserving to himself a body-guard, and was at supper in a Dominican convent in the neighbourhood of Perth. Grahame had for some time been at the head of a gang of outlaws, and is said to have brought a party of them to Perth in the dead of the night, where he posted them near the convent. Walter Straton, one of the king's cup-bearers, went to bring some wine to the king while at supper; but perceiving armed men standing in the passage, he gave the alarm, and was immediately killed. Catharine Douglas, one of the queen's maids of honour, ran to bolt the outer door; but the bar was taken away by Robert Stuart, in order to facilitate the entrance of the murderers. The lady thrust her arm into the staple; but it was instantly broken, and the conspirators rushed in upon the king. Patric Dunbar, brother to the earl of March, was killed in attempting to defend his sovereign, and the queen received two wounds in attempting to interpose herself betwixt her husband and the daggers of the assassins. James defended himself as long as he could; but at last expired under the repeated strokes of his murderers, after having received 28 wounds.

After the murder of James I. the crown devolved 289 Succeeded by James II. upon his son James II. at that time only seven years of age. A parliament was immediately called by the queen-mother, at which the most cruel punishments were decreed to the murderers of the late king. The crime, no doubt, deserved an exemplary punishment; but the barbarities inflicted on some of those wretches are shocking to relate. Within less than six weeks after the death of the king, all the conspirators were brought to Edinburgh, arraigned, condemned, and executed. The meaner sort were hanged; but on the earl of Athol and Robert Graham the most cruel torments were inflicted, such as pinching with hot irons, dislocation of the joints, &c. The earl of Athol, had, besides, a crown of red-hot iron put on his head; and was afterwards cut up alive, his heart taken out, and thrown into a fire. In short, so dreadful were these punishments, that Æneas Sylvius, the pope's nuncio, who beheld them, said, that he was at a loss to determine whether the crime committed by the regicides, or the punishment inflicted upon them, was the greatest.

As the late king had prescribed no form of a regency in case of his death, the settlement of the government became a matter of great difficulty as well as

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as importance. Archibald earl of Douglas, who had been created Duke of Touraine in France, was by far the greatest subject in the kingdom; but as he had not been a favourite in the preceding reign, and the people were now disgusted with regencies, he was not formally appointed to the administration, though, by his high rank, he in fact enjoyed the supreme power as long as he lived; which, however, was but a short time. He died the same year (1438); and Sir Alexander Livingstone of Callendar was appointed to succeed him as governor of the kingdom, that is, to have the executive power, while William Chrichton, as chancellor, had the direction of the civil courts. This was a most unfortunate partition of power for the public. The governor and chancellor quarrelled: the latter took possession of the king's person and the castle of Edinburgh, to neither of which he had any right; but the former had on his side the queen-mother, a woman of intrigue and spirit. Her son was shut up in the castle of Edinburgh; and in a short time there was no appearance either of law or government in Scotland. The governor's edicts were counteracted by those of the chancellor under the king's name, and those who obeyed the chancellor were punished by the governor; while the young earl of Douglas, with his great following and dependents, was a declared enemy of both parties, whom he equally fought to destroy.

290 Supreme power divided between the governor and chancellor of the kingdom.

291 The queen-mother sets her son at liberty.

The queen-mother demanded access to her son, which Crichton could find no pretext for denying her; and she was accordingly admitted with a small train into the castle of Edinburgh. She played her part so well, and dissembled with so much art, that the chancellor, imagining she had become a convert to his cause, treated her with unbounded confidence, and suffered her at all hours to have free access to her son's person. Pretending that she had vowed a pilgrimage to the white church of Buchan, she recommended the care of her son's person, till her return, to the chancellor, in the most pathetic and affectionate terms: but, in the mean time, she secretly sent him to Leith, packed up in a cloaths-chest; and both she and James were received at Stirling by the governor, before the escape was known. As every thing had been managed in concert with Livingston, he immediately called together his friends; and laying before them the tyrannical behaviour of the chancellor, it was resolved to besiege him in the castle of Edinburgh, the queen promising to open her own granaries for the use of the army. The chancellor foresaw the storm that was likely to fall upon him, and sought to prevent it by applying to the earl of Douglas. That haughty nobleman answered him in the terms already mentioned, and that he was preparing to exterminate both parties. The siege of Edinburgh castle being formed, the chancellor demanded a parley, and to have a personal interview with the governor; which the latter, who was no stranger to the sentiments of Douglas, readily agreed to. Common danger united them in a common cause; and the chancellor resigning to the other the custody of the castle and the king's person, with the highest professions of duty and loyalty, the two competitors swore an inviolable friendship for each other. Next day, the king cemented their union, by confirming both of them in their respectives charges.

The lawless example of the earl of Douglas encouraged the other great landholders to gratify their private animosities, sometimes at the expence of their honour as well as their humanity. A family-difference happened between Sir Allan Stuart of Darnley, and Thomas Boyd of Kilmarnock; but it was concluded that both parties should come to a peaceable agreement at Polmaisthorn, between Linlithgow and Falkirk, where Stuart was treacherously murdered by his enemy. Stuart's death was revenged by his brother, Sir Alexander Stuart of Beilmouth, who challenged Boyd to a pitched battle, the principals being attended by followings which carried the resemblance of small armies. The conflict was fierce and bloody, each party retiring in its turn, and charging with fresh fury; but at last victory declared itself for Stuart, the bravest of Boyd's attendants being cut off in the field. About this time, the islanders, under two of their chieftains, Lauchlan Maclean and Murdoc Gibson, notorious freebooters, invaded Scotland, and ravaged the province of Lenox with fire and sword. They were opposed by John Colquhoun of Luss, whom they slew, some say treacherously, and others, in an engagement at Lochlomond, near Inchmartin. After this, the robbers grew more outrageous than ever, filling all the neighbouring country not only with rapine, but murders of the aged, infants, and the defenceless of both sexes. At last, all the labouring hands in the kingdom being engaged in domestic broils, none were left for agriculture; and a dreadful famine ensued, which was attended, as usual, by a pestilence. James was now about ten years of age; and the wisest part of the kingdom agreed, that the public distresses were owing to a total disrespect of the royal authority. The young earl of Douglas never had fewer than 1000, and sometimes 2000 horse in his train; so that none was found hardy enough to controul him. He pretended to be independent of the king and his courts of law; that he had a right of judicature upon his own large estates; and that he was entitled to the exercise of royal power. In consequence of this he issued his orders, gave protections to thieves and murderers, affected to brave the king, made knights, and, according to some writers, even noblemen, of his own dependents, with a power of sitting in parliament.

292 Intestine broils.

The queen-mother was not wholly blameless as to those abuses. She had fallen in love with and married Sir James Stuart, who was commonly called the *Black Knight of Lorn*, brother to the lord of that title, and a descendent of the house of Darnley. Her affection for her husband renewed her intrigues in the state; and not finding a ready compliance in the governor, her interest inclined towards the party of the Douglasses. The governor sought to strengthen his authority by restoring the exercise of the civil power, and the reverence due to the person of the sovereign.

The conduct of the lord Callendar was in other respects not so defensible, either as to prudence or policy. Upon the queen expressing her inclination that her husband might be admitted to some part of the administration, the governor threw both him and his brother the lord Lorn into prison, on a charge of undutiful practices against the state, and abetting the earl of Douglas in his enormities. The queen, taking fire at her husband's imprisonment, was herself confined

293 The queen-mother and her husband imprisoned.

ned in a mean apartment within the castle of Stirling; and a convention of the states was called, to judge in what manner she was to be proceeded against. The case was unprecedented and tender; nor can we believe the governor would have carried matters to such extremity, had he not had strong evidences of her illegal behaviour. She was even obliged to dissemble her resentment, by making an open profession before the states, that she was entirely innocent of her husband's practices in time past, and that she would for the future behave as a peaceable and dutiful subject to the laws and the sovereign. Upon her making this purgation (as Lindsay calls it), she was released, as were her husband and his brother, being bailed by the chancellor and the lord Gordon, who became sureties for their good behaviour in the penalty of 4000 marks. The governor is accused, after this, of many arbitrary and partial acts of power; and indeed, if we consider his situation, and the violence of the parties which then divided Scotland, it was next to impossible, consistently with his own safety, to have exerted the virtues either of patriotism or moderation.

294 But are released.

The chancellor was inwardly vexed at the small regard which the governor paid to his person and dignity, and secretly connected himself with the queen-mother; but in the mean time he remained at Edinburgh. The king and his mother continued all this time at Stirling; where the governor, on pretence of consulting the public safety, and that of the king's person, maintained a strong guard, part of which attended James in his juvenile exercises and diversions. The queen-mother did not fail to represent this to her son as a restraint upon his liberty; and obtained his consent to put himself into the chancellor's hands. The latter, who was a man of activity and courage, knew well how to avail himself of this permission; and crossing the Forth in the dark with a strong body of horse, they surrounded the king as he was hunting next morning by break of day. It was easy to perceive from the behaviour of James, that he was no stranger to the chancellor's attempt; but some of the king's guard offering to dispute the possession of his person, Sir William Levingston, the governor's eldest son, restrained them, and suffered the king to depart quietly. This surprisal happened on a day when the governor was absent from Stirling; and the chancellor, to make sure of his royal acquisition, entered Edinburgh at the head of 4000 horse, where the king and he were received by the citizens with loud acclamations of joy.

295 The chancellor gets the king's person into his hands.

The governor showed no emotion at what had happened; on the contrary, he invited the chancellor to an interview, and settled all differences with him in an amicable manner. The young lord Douglas, however, continued to brave both parties. As if he had been a sovereign prince, he demanded by his ambassadors, Malcolm Fleming of Cumbernauld, and Allan Lawder, the investiture of the sovereignty of Touraine from Charles the seventh of France; which being readily granted him, served to increase his pride and insolence. The first-fruit of the accommodation between the two great officers of state was the holding a parliament at Edinburgh, for redressing the public disorders occasioned by the earl of Douglas; and encouragement was given for all persons who had been injured to make their complaints. The numbers which on that occasion resorted to Edinburgh were incredible; parents, children, and women, calling out for vengeance for the murder of their relations, or the plunder of their estates; till, by the multiplicity of their complaints, they became without remedy, none being found bold enough to encounter the earl of Douglas, or to endeavour to bring him to a fair trial. The parties therefore were dismissed without relief, and it was resolved to proceed with the haughty earl in a different manner. Letters were written to him by the governor and chancellor, and in the name of the states, requesting him to appear with his friends in parliament, and to take that lead in public affairs to which they were intitled by their high rank and great possessions. The manner in which those letters were penned, made the thoughtless earl consider them as a tribute due to his greatness, and as proceeding from the inability of the government to continue the administration of public affairs without his countenance and direction. Without dreaming that any man in Scotland would be so bold as to attack him, even single or unarmed, he answered the letters of the chancellor and governor, by assuring them that he intended to set out for Edinburgh: the chancellor, on pretence of doing him honour, but in reality to quiet his suspicions, met him while he was on his journey; and inviting him to his castle of Crichton, he there entertained him for some days with the greatest magnificence and appearance of hospitality. The earl of Douglas believed all the chancellor's professions of friendship, and even sharply checked the wisest of his followers, who counselled him not to depend too much on appearances, or to trust his brother and himself at the same time in any place where the chancellor had power. The latter had not only removed the earl's suspicion, but had made him a kind of convert to patriotism, by painting to him the miseries of his country, and the glory that must redound to him and his friends in removing them. It was in vain for his attendants to remind him of his father's maxim, never to risk himself and his brother at the same time: he without hesitation, attended the chancellor to Edinburgh; and being admitted into the castle, they dined at the same table with the king. Towards the end of the entertainment, a bull's head, the certain prelude of immediate death, was served up. The earl and his brother started to their feet, and endeavoured to make their escape; but armed men rushing in, overpowered them, and tying their hands and those of Sir Malcolm Fleming with cords, they were carried to the hill and beheaded. The young king endeavoured with tears to procure their pardon; for which he was severely checked by his unrelenting chancellor.

296 Rebellious behaviour of the earl of Douglas.

297 Is put to death with his brother.

In 1443, the king being arrived at the age of 14, declared himself out of the years of minority, and took upon himself the administration of affairs. He appears to have been a prince of great spirit and resolution; and he had occasion for it. He had appointed one Robert Sempil of Fulwood to be chief governor of the castle of Dumbarton; but he was killed by one Galbraeth (a noted partizan of the earl of Douglas), who seized upon the government of the castle. The popularity of the family of Douglas having somewhat subsided,

Scotland.

298 The young earl submits to the king, and is received into favour.

subsided, and the young earl finding himself not supported by the chief branches of his family, he began to think, now that the king was grown up, his safest course would be to return to his duty. He accordingly repaired to the king at Stirling; and voluntarily throwing himself at his majesty's feet, implored his pardon for all his transgressions, and solemnly promised that he would ever after set a pattern of duty and loyalty to all the rest of his subjects. The king, finding that he insisted on no terms but that of pardon, and that he had unconditionally put himself into his power, not only granted his request, but made him the partner of his inmost councils.

James had always disliked the murder of the earl of Douglas and his brother; and the chancellor, perceiving the ascendency which this earl was daily gaining at court, thought it high time to provide for his own safety. He therefore resigned the great seal, and retired to the castle of Edinburgh, the custody of which he pretended had been granted to him by the late king during his life, or till the present king should arrive at the age of 21; and prepared it for a siege. The lord Callendar, who knew himself equally obnoxious as Crichton was to the earl of Douglas, and that he could not maintain his footing by himself, resigned likewise all his posts, and retired to one of his own houses, but kept possession of the castle of Stirling. As both that and the castle of Edinburgh were royal forts, the two lords were summoned to surrender them; but instead of complying, they justified their conduct by the great power of their enemies, who fought their destruction, and who had been so lately at the head of robbers and out-laws; but promised to surrender themselves to the king as soon as he was of lawful age, (meaning, we suppose, either 18 or 21). This answer being deemed contumacious, the chancellor and the late governor, with his two sons Sir Alexander and Sir James Livingston, were proclaimed traitors in a parliament which was summoned on purpose to be held at Stirling. In another parliament held at Perth the same year, an act passed, that all the lands and goods which had belonged to the late king should be possessed by the present king to the time of his lawful age, which is not specified. This act was levelled against the late governor and chancellor, who were accused of having alienated to their own uses, or to those of their friends, a great part of the royal effects and jewels; and their estates being confiscated, the execution of the sentence was committed to John Forrester of Corstorphin, and other adherents of the earl of Douglas.

299 Great disturbances in Scotland.

This sentence threw all the nation into a flame. The castle of Crichton was besieged; and being surrendered upon the king's summons and the display of the royal banner, it was levelled with the ground. It soon appeared that the governor and chancellor, the latter especially, had many friends; and in particular Kennedy bishop of St Andrew's, nephew to James the first, who sided with them from the dread and hatred they bore to the earl of Douglas and his family. Crichton thus soon found himself at the head of a body of men; and while Forrester was carrying fire and sword into his estates and those of the late governor, his own lands and those of the Douglasses were overrun. Corstorphin, Abercorn, Blackness, and other places, were plundered; and Crichton carried off from them more booty than he and his adherents had lost. Particular mention is made of a fine breed of mares which Douglas had lost on this occasion. That nobleman was so much exasperated by the great damages he had sustained, that he engaged his friends the earl of Crawford and Alexander Ogilvy of Innerquharity, to lay waste the lands of the bishop of St Andrew's, whom he considered as the chief support of the two ministers. This prelate was not more considerable by his high birth, than he was venerable by his virtue and sanctity; and had, from a principle of conscience, opposed the earl of Douglas and his party. Being conscious he had done nothing that was illegal, he first admonished the earl of Crawford and his coadjutor to desist from destroying his lands; but finding his admonitions ineffectual, he laid the earl under an excommunication.

That nobleman was almost as formidable in the northern, as the earl of Douglas had been in the southern, parts of Scotland. The benedictine monks of Aberbrothwic, who were possessed of great property, had chosen Alexander Lindsay, his eldest son, to be the judge or bailiff of their temporalties; as they themselves, by their profession, could not sit in civil or criminal courts. Lindsay proved so chargeable, by the great number of his attendants, and his high manner of living, to the monks, that their chapter removed him from his post, and substituted in his place Alexander Ogilvy of Innerquharity, guardian to his nephew John Ogilvy of Airley, who had an hereditary claim upon the bailiwic. This, notwithstanding their former intimacy, created an irreconcileable difference between the two families. Each competitor strengthened himself by calling in the assistance of his friends; and the lord Gordon taking part with the Ogilvies, to whom he was then paying a visit, both parties mustered their forces in the neighbourhood of Aberbrothwic. The earl of Crawford, who was then at Dundee, posted from thence to Aberbrothwic, and placing himself between the two armies, he demanded to speak with Ogilvy; but, before his request could be granted, he was killed by a common soldier, who was ignorant of his quality. His death exasperated his friends, who immediately rushed on their enemies; and a bloody conflict ensued, which ended to the advantage of the Lindsays, that is, the earl of Crawford's party. On that of the Ogilvies, were killed, Sir John Oliphant of Aberdagy, John Forbes of Pitsligo, Alexander Barclay of Gartly, Robert Maxwel of Teling, Duncan Campbell of Campbelfether, William Gordon of Burrowfield, and others. With those gentlemen, about 500 of their followers are said to have fallen; but some accounts diminish that number. Innerquharity himself, in flying, was taken prisoner, and carried to the earl of Crawford's house at Finhaven, where he died of his wounds; but the lord Gordon (or, as others call him, the earl of Huntley) escaped by the swiftness of his horse.

This battle seems to have let loose the fury of civil discord all over the kingdom. No regard was paid to magistracy, and no respect had to any consideration but that of clergy. The most numerous, fiercest, and best allied family wreaked its vengeance on its foes, either by force or treachery; and the enmity that actuated the

Scotland. the parties, drowned in them every ſentiment of honour, and every feeling of humanity. The Lindſays, ſecretly ſtrengthened and abetted by the earl of Douglas, made no other uſe of their victory, than carrying fire and ſword through the eſtates of their enemies; and thus all the north of Scotland preſented ſcenes of murder and deva ſtation. Towards the weſt, Robert Boyd of Duchal, governor of Dumbarton, baſely ſurpriſed Sir James Stuart of Achmynto, and treated his wife with ſuch inhumanity, that ſhe expired in three days, under her confinement in Dumbarton-caſtle. The caſtle of Dunbar was taken by Patrick Hepburn of Hales. Alexander Dunbar diſpoſſeſſed the latter of his caſtle of Hales; but it was retaken by the partizans of the earl of Douglas, whoſe tenants, particularly thoſe of Annandale, are ſaid to have behaved at that time with peculiar fierceneſs and cruelty. At laſt, the gentlemen of the country, who were unconnected with thoſe robbers and murderers, which happened to be the caſe with many, ſhut themſelves up in their ſeveral houſes, each of which, in thoſe days, was a petty fortreſs, which they victualled, and provided in the beſt manner they could for their own defence. This wiſe reſolution ſeems to have been the firſt meaſure that compoſed the public commotions.

The earl of Douglas, whoſe power and influence at court ſtill continued, was ſenſible that the clergy, with the wiſer and more diſintereſted part of the kingdom, conſidered him as the ſource of the dreadful calamities which the nation ſuffered; and that James himſelf, when better informed, would be of the ſame opinion. He therefore fought to avail himſelf of the juncture, by forming ſecret but ſtrong connections with the earls of Crawford, Roſs, and other great noblemen, who wanted to ſee their feudal powers reſtored to their full vigour. The queen-dowager and her huſband made little or no figure during this time of public confuſion: ſhe had retired to the caſtle of Dunbar, while it was in Hepburn's poſſeſſion, where ſhe died ſoon after. She left by her ſecond huſband three ſons; John, who in 1455 was made earl of Athol, by his uterine brother the king; James, who under the next reign, in 1469, was created earl of Buchan; and Andrew, who afterwards became biſhop of Murray. As the earl of Douglas was an enemy to the queen-dowager's huſband, the latter retired to England, where he obtained a paſs to go abroad, with 20 in his train; but being taken at ſea by the Flemiſh pirates, he died in his confinement.

The great point between the king and Sir William Crichton, whether the latter ſhould give up the caſtle to his majeſty, remained ſtill undecided; and by the advice and direction of the earl of Douglas, who had been created lord-lieutenant of the kingdom, it had now ſuffered a nine months ſiege. Either the ſtrength of the caſtle, or an opinion entertained by Douglas that Crichton would be a valuable acquiſition to his party, procured better terms for the latter than he could otherwiſe have expected; for he and his followers were offered a full indemnity for all paſt offences, and a promiſe was made that he ſhould be reſtored not only to the king's favour, but to his former poſt of chancellor. He accepted of the conditions; but refuſed to act in any public capacity till they were confirmed by a parliament, which was ſoon after held at Perth, and in which he was reſtored to his eſtate and honours. By this reconciliation between Douglas and Crichton, the former was left at full liberty to proſecute his vengeance againſt the lord Callendar, the late governor, his friends and family. Their fate was deſervedly thought hard. The governor himſelf, Sir James Dundas of Dundas, and Sir Robert Bruce of Clackmannan, were forced to ſave their lives by the loſs of their eſtates; but even that could not procure them their liberty, for they were ſent priſoners to the caſtle of Dumbarton. The fate of Alexander, the governor's eldeſt ſon, and of two other gentlemen of his name and family, was ſtill more lamentable; for they were condemned to loſe their heads. Thoſe ſeveritics being inflicted after the king had in a manner readmitted the ſufferers into his favour, ſwelled the public outcry againſt the earl of Douglas. We have in Lindſay an extract of the ſpeech which Alexander Livingſton, one of the moſt accompliſhed gentlemen of his time, made upon the ſcaffold, in which he complained, with great bitterneſs, of the cruel treatment his father, himſelf, and his friends, had undergone; and that he ſuffered by a packed jury of his enemies.

The king being now about 18 years of age, it was thought proper that a ſuitable conſort ſhould be provided for him; and, after various conſultations, Mary, the daughter of Arnold duke of Gueldres, was choſen, at the recommendation of Charles king of France, though the marriage was not completed till ſome time after. This produced an immediate rupture with England. The earls of Saliſbury and Northumberland entered Scotland at the head of two ſeparate bodies. The former burnt the town of Dumfries, as the latter did that of Dunbar; while Sir John Douglas of Balveny made reprifals by plundering the county of Cumberland, and burning Alnwic. Upon the return of the Engliſh armies to their own country, additional levies were made, and a freſh invaſion of Scotland was reſolved upon under the earl of Northumberland, who had under him a lieutenant, whom the Scots of thoſe days, from the buſhineſs and colour of his beard, called *Magnus with the red mane.* He was a ſoldier of fortune, but an excellent officer, having been trained in the French wars; and he is ſaid to have demanded no other recompence for his ſervices from the Engliſh court, but that he ſhould enjoy all he could conquer in Scotland. The Scots, in the mean time, had raiſed an army commanded by George Douglas earl of Ormond, and under him by Wallace of Craigie, with the lords Maxwell and Johnſton. The Engliſh having paſſed Solway Frith, ravaged all that part of the country which belonged to the Scots; but hearing that the earl of Ormond's army was approaching, called in their parties, and took up a camp on the banks of the river Sark. Their advanced guard was commanded by Magnus; their centre by the earl of Northumberland; and the rear, which was compoſed of Welch, by Sir John Pennington, an officer of courage and experience.

300 Invaſion of Scotland by the Engliſh.

301 The battle of Sark.

The Scots drew up in three diviſions likewiſe. Their right wing was commanded by Wallace, the centre by the earl of Ormond, and their left wing by the lords Maxwell and Johnſton. Before the battle joined, the earl of Ormond harangued his men, and inſpired them with very high reſentment at the treachery of the Engliſh,

Scotland. English, who, he said, had broken the truce. The signal for battle being given, the Scots under Wallace rushed forward upon their enemies: but, as usual, were received by so terrible a discharge from the English archers, that their impetuosity must have been stopped, had not their brave leader Wallace put them in mind, that their forefathers had always been defeated in distant fights by the English, and that they ought to trust to their swords and spears; commanding them at the same time to follow his example. They obeyed, and broke in upon the English commanded by Magnus, with such fury, as soon fixed the fortune of the day on the side of the Scots, their valour being suitably seconded by their other two divisions. The slaughter (which was the more considerable, as both parties fought with the utmost animosity) fell chiefly upon the division commanded by Magnus, who was killed, performing the part of a brave officer; and all his body-guard, consisting of picked soldiers, were cut in pieces.

302 The English entirely defeated.

The battle then became general: Sir John Pennington's division, with that under the earl of Northumberland, was likewise routed; and the whole English army, struck by the loss of their champion, fled towards the Solway, where, the river being swelled by the tide, numbers of them were drowned. The loss of the English in slain amounted to at least 3000 men. Among the prisoners were Sir John Pennington, Sir Robert Harrington, and the earl of Northumberland's eldest son the lord Percy, who lost his own liberty in forwarding his father's escape. Of the Scots about 600 were killed; but none of note, excepting the brave Wallace, who died three months after, of the wounds he had received in this battle. The booty that was made on this occasion is said to have been greater than any that had fallen to the Scots since the battle of Bannockburn.

The rest of the history of this reign consists almost entirely of a relation of the cabals and conspiracies of the great men. The earl of Douglas had entered into a confederacy with the earls of Crawford, Moray, and Ross, and appeared on all occasions with such a train of followers as bade defiance to royal power itself. This insolence was detested by the wiser part of the nation; and one Maclellan, who is called the *Tutor of Bomby*, and was nephew to Sir Patrick Gray, captain of the king's guard, refused to give any attendance upon the earl, or to concur in his measures, but remained at home as a quiet subject. This inoffensive behaviour was by the earl considered as treason against himself; and violently seizing upon Maclellan's house and person, he sent him close prisoner to the castle of Douglas. As Maclellan was a gentleman of great worth and reputation, his uncle Gray applied earnestly to James in his favour; and such was that prince's regard for Maclellan, that he wrote and signed a letter for his release, addressed to the earl of Douglas. Upon Gray's delivering this letter to Douglas at his castle, the latter seemed to receive it with the highest respect, and to treat Gray with the greatest hospitality, by inviting him to dinner; but, in the mean time, he gave private orders that Maclellan's head should be struck off, and his body exposed upon the green before the castle covered with a linen cloth. After dinner, the earl told Gray, that he was ready to obey the king's commands; and conducting him to the green, he shewed him the lifeless trunk, which he said Gray might dispose of as he pleased. Upon this, Gray mounted his horse, and trusted to his swiftness for his own safety; for he was pursued by the earl's attendants to the gates of Edinburgh.

303 Rebellion of the earl of Douglas and others.

The confederacy against James's government was now no longer a secret. The lords Balveny and Hamilton, with such a number of other barons and gentlemen, had acceded to it, that it was thought to be more powerful than all the force the king could bring into the field. Even Crichton advised James to dissemble. The confederates entered into a solemn bond and oath never to desert one another during life; and, to make use of Drummond's words, "That injuries done to any one of them should be done to them all, and be a common quarrel; neither should they desist, to their best abilities, to revenge them: that they should concur indifferently against whatsoever persons within or without the realm, and spend their lives, lands, goods, and fortunes, in defence of their debates and differences whatsoever." All who did not enter into this association were treated as enemies to the public; their lands were destroyed, their effects plundered, and they themselves imprisoned or murdered. Drummond says, that Douglas was then able to bring 40,000 men into the field; and that his intention was to have placed the crown of Scotland upon his own head. How far he might have been influenced by a scene of the same nature that was then passing between the houses of York and Lancaster in England, we shall not pretend to determine; though it does not appear that his intention was to wear the crown himself, but to render it despicable upon his sovereign's head. It is rather evident, from his behaviour, that he did not affect royalty; for when James invited him to a conference in the castle of Stirling, he offered to comply provided he had a safe-conduct. This condition plainly implied, that he had no reliance upon the late act of parliament, which declared the proclamation of the king's peace to be a sufficient security for life and fortune to all his subjects; and there is no denying that the safe-conduct was expedited in the form and manner required.

This being obtained, the earl began his march towards Stirling with his usual great following; and arrived there on Shrove-Tuesday. He was received by the king as if he had been the best of his friends, as well as the greatest of his subjects, and admitted to sup with his majesty in the castle, while his attendants were dispersed in the town, little suspecting the catastrophe that followed. The entertainment being over, the king told the earl with an air of frankness, "That as he was now of age, he was resolved to be the father of all his people, and to take the government into his own hands; that his lordship, therefore, had no reason to be under any apprehensions from his old enemies, Callendar and Crichton; that there was no occasion to form any confederacies, as the law was ready to protect him; and that he was welcome to the principal direction of affairs under the crown, and to the first place in the royal confidence; nay, that all former offences done by himself and his friends should be pardoned and forgot."

304 Interview between king James and the earl of Douglas.

This speech was the very reverse of what the earl of

Scotland. of Douglas aimed at. It rendered him, indeed, the first subject of the kingdom; but still he was controllable by the civil law. In short, upon the king's peremptorily putting the question to him, he not only refused to dissolve the confederacy, but upbraided the king for his government. This produced a passionate rejoinder on the part of James; but the earl represented that he was under a safe-conduct, and that the nature of his confederacy was such, that it could not be broken but by the common consent of all concerned. The king insisted upon his setting the example; and the earl continuing more and more obstinate, James stabbed him with his dagger; and armed men rushing into the room, finished the slaughter.

305 The king kills him with his own hand.

After the death of the earl of Douglas, the confederacy came to nothing. The insurgents excused themselves as being too weak for such an enterprize; and were contented with trailing the safe-conduct at a horse's tail, and proclaiming, by trumpets and horns, the king a perjured traitor. They proceeded no farther; and each departed to his own habitation, after agreeing to assemble with fresh forces about the beginning of April. James lost no time in improving this short respite; and found the nation in general much better disposed in his favour than he had reason to expect. The intolerable oppressions of the great barons made his subjects esteem the civil, far preferable to the feudal, subjection: and even the Douglasses were divided among themselves; for the earl of Angus and Sir John Douglas of Dalkeith were among the most forward of the royalists. James at the same time wrote letters to the earl of Huntley, and to all the noblemen of his kingdom who were no parties in the confederacy, besides the ecclesiastics, who remained firmly attached to his prerogative. Before the effect of those letters could be known, the insurgents had returned to Stirling, (where James still wisely kept himself upon the defensive;) repeated their insolences, and the opprobrious treatment of his safe-conduct; and at last they plundered the town, and laid it in ashes. Being still unable to take the castle, partly through their own divisions, and partly through the diversity of the operations they were obliged to supply, they left Sirtling, and destroyed the estate of Sir John Douglas of Dalkeith, whom they considered as a double traitor, because he was a Douglas and a good subject. They then besieged his castle: but it was so bravely defended by Patrick Cockburn, a gentleman of the family of Langton, that they raised the siege; which gave the royal party farther leisure for humbling them.

All this time the unhappy country was suffering the most cruel devastations; for matters were now come to such extremity, that every man must be a royalist or a rebel. The king was obliged to keep on the defensive; and though he had ventured to leave the castle of Stirling, he was in no condition to face the rebels in the field. They were in possession of all the strong passes, by which his friends were to march to his assistance; and he even consulted with his attendants on the means of escaping to France, where he was sure of an hospitable reception. He was diverted from that resolution by bishop Kennedy and the earl of Angus, who was himself a Douglas, and prevailed upon to wait for the event of the earl of Huntley's attempts for his service. This nobleman, who was descended from the Seatons, but by marriage inherited the great estates of the Gordons in the north, had raised an army for James, to whose family he and his ancestors, by the Gordons as well as the Seatons, had been always remarkably devoted. James was not mistaken in the high opinion he had of Huntley; and in the mean time he issued circular letters to the chief ecclesiastics and bodies-politic of his kingdom, setting forth the necessity he was under to proceed as he had done, and his readiness to protect all his loyal subjects in their rights and privileges against the power of the Douglasses and their rebellious adherents. Before those letters could have any effect, the rebels had plundered the defenceless houses and estates of all who were not in their confederacy, and had proceeded with a fury that turned to the prejudice of their cause.

The indignation which the public had conceived against the king, for the violation of his safe-conduct, began now to subside; and the behaviour of his enemies in some measure justified what had happened, or at least made the people suspect that James would not have proceeded as he did without the strongest provocation. The forces he had assembled being unable, as yet, to act offensively, he resolved to wait for the earl of Huntley, who by this time was at the head of a considerable army, and had begun his march southwards. He had been joined by the Forbeses, Ogilvies, Leslies, Grants, Irvings, and other relations and dependents of his family; but having advanced as far as Brechin, he was opposed by the earl of Crawford, the chief ally of the earl of Douglas, who commanded the people of Angus, and all the adherents of the rebels in the neighbouring counties, headed by foreign officers. The two armies joining battle on the 18th of May, victory was for some time in suspence; till one Colofs of Bonnymoon, on whom Crawford had great dependence, but whom he had imprudently disobliged, came over to the royalists with the division he commanded, which was the best armed part of Crawford's army, consisting of battle-axes, broad-swords, and long spears. His defection fixed the fortune of the day for the earl of Huntley, as it left the centre flank of Crawford's army entirely exposed to the royalists. He himself lost one of his brothers; and fled with another, Sir John Lindsay, to his house at Finhaven, where it is reported that he broke out into the following ejaculation: "That he would be content to remain seven years in hell, to have, in so timely a season, done the king his master that service the earl of Huntley had performed, and carry that applause and thanks he was to receive from him."

306 Battle of Brechin, where the rebels are defeated.

No author informs us of the loss of men on either side, though all agree that it was very considerable upon the whole. The earl of Huntley, particularly, lost two brothers, William and Henry; and we are told, that, to indemnify him for his good services, as well as for the rewards and presents he had made in lands and privileges to his faithful followers, the king bestowed upon him the lands of Badenoch and Lochaber.

307 The rebels pressed.

The battle of Brechin was not immediately decisive in favour of the king, but proved so in its consequences. The earl of Moray, a Douglas likewise, took advantage of Huntley's absence to ravage and harrass the

Scotland.

the estates of all the royalists in the north; but Huntley returning from Brechin with his victorious army, drove his enemy into his own county of Moray, and afterwards expelled him even from thence. James was now encouraged, by the advice of his kinsman Kennedy bishop of St Andrew's, to whose firmness and prudence he was under great obligations, to proceed against the rebels in a legal manner, by holding a parliament at Edinburgh, to which the confederated lords were summoned; and upon their non-compearance, they were solemnly declared traitors. This proceeding seemed to make the rebellion rage more fiercely than ever; and at last, the confederates, in fact, disowned their allegiance to James. The earls of Douglas, Crawford, Ormond, Moray, the lord Balveny, Sir James Hamilton, and others, signed with their own hands public manifestos, which were pasted on the doors of the principal churches, importing, "That they were resolved never to obey command or charge, nor answer citation for the time coming; because the king, so far from being a just master, was a bloodsucker, a murderer, a transgressor of hospitality, and a surprifer of the innocent." It does not appear, that those and the like atrocious proceedings did any service to the cause of the confederates. The earl of Huntley continued victorious in the north; where he and his followers, in revenge of the earl of Moray's having burnt his castle of Huntley, ravaged or seized all that nobleman's great estate north of the Spey. When he came to the town of Forres, he burnt one side of the town, because it belonged to the earl, and spared the other, because it was the property of his own friends. James thought himself, from the behaviour of the earl of Douglas and his adherents, now warranted to come to extremities; and marching into Annandale, he carried fire and sword through all the estates of the Douglasses there. The earl of Crawford, on the other hand, having now recruited his strength, destroyed the lands of all the people of Angus and elsewhere, who had abandoned him at the battle of Brechin; though there is reason to believe, that he had already secretly resolved to throw himself upon the king's mercy.

308 Association against the king by the earls of Douglas, Crawford, &c.

Nothing but the most obstinate pride and inveteracy could have prevented the earl of Douglas, at this time, from taking the advice of his friends, by returning to his duty; in which case, James had given sufficient intimations that he might expect pardon. He coloured his contumacy with the specious pretext, that his brother's fate, and those of his two kinsmen, sufficiently instructed him never to trust James or his ministers; that he had gone too far to think now of receding; and that kings, when once offended, as James had been, never pardoned in good earnest. Such is the chief reasoning, with others of less consequence, which Drummond has put into the mouth of Douglas at this time. James, after his expedition into Annandale, found the season too far advanced to continue his operations; and returning to Edinburgh, he marched northwards to Angus, to reduce the earl of Crawford, who was the second rebel of power in the kingdom. That nobleman had hitherto deferred throwing himself at the king's feet, and had resumed his arms, in the manner related, only in hopes of himself and his party obtaining better terms from James. Perceiving that the earl of Douglas's obstinacy had cooled some other lords of the confederacy, and had put an end to all hopes of a treaty, he resolved to make a merit of breaking the confederacy, by being the first to submit. James having arrived in Angus, was continuing his march through the country, when the earl and some of his chief followers fell on their knees before him on the road, bare-headed and bare-footed. Their dreary looks, their suppliant postures, and the tears which streamed abundantly from the earl, were expressive of the most abject contrition; which was followed by a penitential speech made by the earl, acknowledging his crimes, and imploring forgiveness.

309 Broken by the earl of Crawford.

James was then attended by his chief counsellors, particularly bishop Kennedy, who, he resolved, should have some share in the favour he meant to extend to the earl. He asked their advice; which proving to be on the merciful side, James promised to the earl and his followers restitution of all their estates and honours, and full pardon for all that had passed. The earl, as a grateful retribution of this favour, before the king left Angus, joined him with a noble troop of his friends and followers; and, attending him to the north, was extremely active in suppressing all the remains of the rebellion there.

310 Who is received into favour.

The submission of the earl of Crawford was followed by that of the earl of Douglas; which, however, continued only for a short time. This powerful nobleman soon resumed his rebellious practices; and, in the year 1454, raised an army to fight against the king. The king erected his standard at St Andrews; marched from thence to Falkland; and ordered all the forces of Fife, Angus, and Strathern, with those of the northern parts, to rendezvous by a certain day at Stirling; which they did to the number of 30,000. Douglas assembled his forces, which amounted to 40,000, some say 60,000 men, on the south side of the river Carron, about halfway between Stirling and Abercorn. However, notwithstanding this superiority of force, the earl did not think it proper to fight his sovereign. Bishop Kennedy, the prelate of St Andrew's, had advised the king to divide his enemies by offering them pardon separately; and so good an effect had this, that in a few days the earl found himself deserted by all his numerous army, excepting about 100 of his nearest friends and domestics, with whom he retired towards England. His friends had indeed advised him to come to a battle immediately; but the earl, for reasons now unknown, refused it. However, in his journey southwards, he raised a considerable body of forces, consisting of his own tenants, of outlaws, robbers, and borderers, with whom he renewed his depredations on the loyal subjects of the king. He was opposed by the earl of Angus, who, though of the name of Douglas, continued firm in the royal cause. An engagement ensued at Ancram-muir; where Douglas was entirely defeated, and he himself with great difficulty escaped to an adjacent wood. What his fate was after this battle, does not appear; but it is certain that his estates were afterwards forfeited to the king.

311 Earl Douglas submits, but rebels again.

312 He is entirely defeated.

The rest of the reign of James II. was spent in making proper regulations for the good of his people. In 1460, he was killed at the siege of Roxburgh castle, by the bursting of a cannon, to which he was too near when it was discharged. This siege he had under-

313 King Ja. II. killed by accident.

taken

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taken in favour of the queen of England, who, after losing several battles, and being reduced to distress, was obliged to apply to James for relief. The nobility who were present concealed his death, for fear of discouraging the soldiers; and in a few hours after, the queen appeared in the camp, and presented her young son, James III. as their king.

314 James III.

James III. was not quite seven years of age at his accession to the crown. The administration naturally devolved on his mother: who pushed the siege of Roxburgh castle with so much vigour, that the garrison was obliged to capitulate in a few days; after which the army ravaged the country, and took and dismantled the castle of Wark.—In 1466, negociations were begun for a marriage between the young king and Margaret princess of Denmark; and, in 1468, the following conditions were stipulated. 1. That the annualrent hitherto paid for the northern Isles of Orkney and Shetland should be for ever remitted and extinguished. 2. That king Christiern, then king of Denmark, should give 60,000 florins of gold for his daughter's portion, whereof 10,000 should be paid before her departure from Denmark; and that the islands of Orkney should be made over to the crown of Scotland, by way of pledge for the remainder; with this express proviso, that they should return to that of Norway after complete payment of the whole sum. 3. That king James should, in case of his dying before the said Margaret his spouse, leave her in possession of the palace of Linlithgow and castle of Down in Menteith, with all their appurtenances, and the third part of the ordinary revenues of the crown, to be enjoyed by her during life, in case she should choose to reside in Scotland. 4. But if she rather chose to return to Denmark, that in lieu of the said liferent, palace, and castle, she should accept of 120,000 florins of the Rhine; from which sum the 50,000 due for the remainder of her portion being deduced and allowed, the islands of Orkney should be re-annexed to the crown of Norway as before.

315 Marriage-treaty with the princess of Denmark.

When these articles were agreed upon, Christiern found himself unable to fulfil his part of them. Being at that time engaged in an unsuccessful war with Sweden, he could not advance the 10,000 florins which he had promised to pay down as part of his daughter's fortune. He was therefore obliged to apply to the plenipotentiaries to accept of 2000, and to take a farther mortgage of the isles of Shetland for the other 8000. The Scottish plenipotentiaries, of whom Boyd earl of Arran was one, gratified him in his request; and this concession is thought to have proved fatal to the earl. Certain it is, that his father was beheaded for treasonable practices alleged to have been committed long before, and for which he produced a parliamentary indemnity to no purpose: the earl himself was divorced from his wife the king's sister, and obliged to live in perpetual exile, while the countess was married to another.

316 Disgrace of the earl of Arran's family.

In 1476, those misfortunes began to come on James which afterwards terminated in his ruin. He had made his brother, the duke of Albany, governor of Berwick; and had entrusted him with very extensive powers upon the borders, where a violent propensity for the feudal law still continued. The Humes and the Hepburns, then the most powerful subjects in those parts, could not brook the duke of Albany's greatness, especially after he had forced them, by virtue of a late act, to part with some of the estates which had been inconsiderately granted them in this and the preceding reign. The pretended science of judicial astrology, by which James happened to be incredibly infatuated, was the easiest as well as most effectual engine that could work their purposes. One Andrew, an infamous impostor in that art, had been brought over from Flanders by James; and he and Schevez, then archbishop of St Andrew's, concurred in persuading James that the Scotch lion was to be devoured by his own whelps; a prediction that, to a prince of James's turn, amounted to a certainty.

317 Beginning of James's misfortunes

318 Is infatuated with the belief of astrology.

The condition to which James reduced himself by his belief in judicial astrology, was truly deplorable. The princes upon the continent were smit with the same infatuation; and the wretches who besieged his person had no safety but by continuing the delusion in his mind. According to Lindsay, Cochran, who had some knowledge of architecture, and had been introduced to James as a master-mason, privately procured an old woman, who pretended to be a witch, and who heightened his terrors by declaring that his brothers intended to murder him. James believed her; and the unguarded manner in which the earl of Mar treated his weakness, exasperated him so much, that the earl giving a farther loose to his tongue in railing against his brother's unworthy favourites, was arrested, and committed to the castle of Craig Miller; from whence he was brought to the Canongate, a suburb of Edinburgh, where he suffered death.

319 Death of the king's brother the earl of Mar.

The duke of Albany was at the castle of Dunbar when his brother the earl of Mar's tragedy was acted; and James could not be easy without having him likewise in his power. In hopes of surprising him, he marched to Dunbar; but the duke, being apprized of his coming, fled to Berwick, and ordered his castle of Dunbar to be surrendered to the lord Evendale, tho' not before the garrison had provided themselves with boats and small vessels, in which they escaped to England. He ventured to come to Edinburgh; where James was so well served with spies, that he was seized, and committed close prisoner to the castle, with orders that he should speak with none but in the presence of his keepers. The duke had probably suspected and provided against this disagreeable event; for we are told that he had agents, who every day repaired to the castle, as if they had come from court, and reported the state of matters between him and the king, while his keepers were present, in so favourable a light, that they made no doubt of his soon regaining his liberty and being re-admitted to his brother's favour. The seeming negociation, at last, went so prosperously on, that the duke gave his keepers a kind of a farewell entertainment, previous to his obtaining a formal deliverance; and they drank so immoderately, that being intoxicated, they gave him an opportunity of escaping over the castle-wall, by converting the sheets of his bed into a rope. Whoever knows the situation of that fortress, must be amazed at the boldness of this attempt; and we are told that the duke's valet, the only domestic he was allowed to have, making the experiment before his master, broke his neck: upon which the duke, lengthening the rope,

320 Duke of Albany arrested, but escapes.

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rope, ſtid down unhurt; and carrying his ſervant on his back to a place of ſafety, he went on board a ſhip which his friends had provided, and eſcaped to France.

321 Cochran, the king's great favourite.

In 1482, the king began to feel the bad conſequences of taking into his favour men of worthleſs characters, which ſeems to have been one of this prince's pernicious foibles. His great favourite at this time was one Cochran, whom he raiſed to the dignity of earl of Marr. All hiſtorians agree that this man made a moſt infamous uſe of his power. He obtained at laſt a liberty of coinage, which he abuſed ſo much as to endanger an inſurrection among the poor people; for he iſſued a baſe coin, called *black-money* by the common people, which they refuſed to take in payments. This favourite's ſkill in architecture had firſt introduced him to James; but he maintained his power by other arts: for, knowing that his maſter's predominant paſſion was the love of money, he procured it by the meaneſt and moſt oppreſſive methods. James, however, was inclined to have relieved his people by calling in Cochran's money; but he was diverted from that reſolution, by conſidering that it would be agreeable to his old nobility. Beſides Cochran, James had other favourites whoſe profeſſions rendered them ſtill leſs worthy of the royal countenance; James Hommil a taylor, Leonard a blackſmith, Torſifan a dancing-maſter, and ſome others. The favour ſhown to theſe men gave ſo much offence to the nobility, that, after ſome deliberation, they reſolved to remove the king, with ſome of his leaſt exceptionable domeſtics (but without offering any violence to his perſon) to the caſtle of Edinburgh; but to hang all his worthleſs favourites over Lawder-bridge, the common place of execution. Their deliberation was not kept ſo ſecret as not to come to the ears of the favourites; who ſuſpecting the worſt, wakened James before daybreak, and informed him of the meeting. He ordered Cochran to repair to it, and to bring him an account of its proceedings (A). According to Lindſay, who ſeems to have had very minute information as to this event, Cochran rudely knocked at the door of the church, juſt after the aſſembly had finiſhed their conſultation; and upon Sir Robert Douglas of Lochlevin (who was appointed to watch the door) informing them that the earl of Mar demanded admittance, the earl of Angus ordered the door to be thrown open; and ruſhing upon Cochran, he pulled a maſſy gold chain from his neck, ſaying, that a rope would become him better; while Sir Robert Douglas ſtripped him of a coſtly blowing-horn he wore by his ſide, as was the manner of the times, telling him he had been too long the hunter of miſchief. Cochran, with aſtoniſhment, aſked them whether they were in jeſt or earneſt; but they ſoon convinced him they were in earneſt, by pinioning down his arms with a common halter till he ſhould be carried to execution.

322 He is ſeized and put to death.

323 With others of the king's favourites.

The earl of Angus, with ſome of the chief lords, attended by a detachment of troops, then repaired to the king's tent, where they ſeized his other favourites, Thomas Preſton, Sir William Rogers, James Hommil, William Torſifan, and Leonard; and upbraided James himſelf, in very rude terms, with his miſconduct in government, and even in private life, in not only being counſelled by the above minions, but for keeping company with a lady, who was called the *Daiſy*. We know of no reſiſtance made by James. He only intereceded for the ſafety of a young gentleman, one John Ramſay of Balmain. Cochran, with his other worthleſs favourites, were hanged over Lawder-bridge before his eyes; and he himſelf was conducted, under an eaſy reſtraint, to the caſtle of Edinburgh.

324 James confined in the caſtle of Edinburgh.

James, though confined, behaved with great ſpirit; and even refuſed to pardon thoſe who had confined him, or who had any hand in the execution of Lawder.

325 Relieved by the duke of Albany.

At laſt, however, he was relieved by the duke of Albany, who, at the queen's deſire, undertook to deliver her huſband from confinement. This he accompliſhed, as ſome ſay, by ſuprising the caſtle of Edinburgh; though, according to others, the gates were opened, upon a formal requiſition made for that purpoſe by two heralds at arms. After he had obtained his liberty, the king repaired to the abbey of Holyrood-houſe with his brother, who now acted as his firſt miniſter. All the lords who were near the capital came to pay him their compliments; but James was ſo much exaſperated at what had happened, that he committed 16 of them priſoners to the caſtle of Edinburgh. After his releaſe, James granted a patent to the citizens of Edinburgh, and enlarged their privileges.

325 Secret negociations with Henry VII. of England.

In 1487, James finiſhed ſome ſecret negociations in which he had engaged with Henry king of England ſome time. The principal articles agreed on between the two monarchs were, That king James's ſecond ſon ſhould marry Catherine the third daughter of Edward IV. and ſiſter to the princeſs Elizabeth, now queen of England; and that James himſelf, who was now a widower, ſhould marry queen Elizabeth. A third marriage was alſo to be concluded between the duke of Rothſay and another daughter of Edward IV. That in order to theſe treaties, and for ending all controverſies concerning the town of Berwick, which the king of Scotland deſired ſo much to poſſeſs, a congreſs ſhould be held the enſuing year.

But

(A) Lindſay's deſcription of this upſtart's magnificence is very particular, and may ſerve to give the reader an idea of the finery of that age. "Cochran, "ſays he," the earl of Mar, came from the king to the council, (which council was holden in the kirk of Lawder for the time) who was well accompanied with a band of men of war to the number of 300 light axes, all clad in white livery, and black bends thereon, that they might be known for Cochran the earl of Mar's men. Himſelf was clad in a riding-pie of black velvet, with a great chain of gold about his neck, to the value of 500 crowns; and four blowing horns, with both the ends of gold and ſilk, ſet with precious ſtones. His horn was tipped with fine gold at every end, and a precious ſtone, called a *beryl*, hanging in the midſt. This Cochran had his heumont borne before him, overgilt with gold; ſo were all the reſt of his horns; and all his pallions (pavilions or tents) were of fine canvas of ſilk, and the cords thereof fine twined ſilk; and the chains upon his pallions were double overgilt with gold."

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But in the mean time a moſt powerful confederacy was formed againſt the king; the origin of which was as follows. James was a great patron of architecture; and being pleaſed with the ſituation of Stirling caſtle, he reſolved to give it all the embelliſhments which that art could beſtow; and about this time he made it the chief place of his reſidence. He raiſed within it a hall, which at that time was deemed a noble ſtructure; and a college, which he called the chapel-royal. This college was endowed with an archdean who was a biſhop, a ſubdean, a treaſurer, a chanter and ſubchanter, with a double ſet of other officers uſually belonging to ſuch inſtitutions. The expences neceſſary for maintaining theſe were conſiderable, and the king had reſolved to aſſign the revenues of the rich priory of Coldingham for that purpoſe. This priory had been generally held by one of the name of Hume; and that family, through length of time, conſidered it as their property: they therefore ſtrongly oppoſed the king's intention. The diſpute ſeems to have laſted ſome years: for the former parliament had paſſed a vote, annexing the priory to the king's chapel-royal; and the parliament of this year had paſſed a ſtatute, ſtrictly prohibiting all perſons, ſpiritual and temporal, to attempt any thing, directly or indirectly, contrary or prejudicial to the ſaid union and annexation. The Humes reſented their being ſtripped of ſo gainful a revenue, the loſs of which affected moſt of the gentlemen of that name; and they united themſelves with the Hepburns, another powerful clan in that neighbourhood, under the lord Hales. An aſſociation was ſoon formed; by which both families engaged to ſtand by each other, and not to ſuffer any prior to be received for Coldingham, if he was not of one of their furnames. The lords Gray and Drummond ſoon joined the aſſociation; as did many other noblemen and gentlemen, who had their particular cauſes of diſcontent. Their agents gave out, that the king was graſping at arbitrary power; that he had acquired his popularity by deep hypocriſy; and that he was reſolved to be ſignally revenged upon all who had any hand in the execution at Lawder. The earl of Angus, who was the ſoul of the confederacy, adviſed the conſpirators to apply to the old earl of Douglas to head them: but that nobleman was now dead to all ambition, and inſtead of encouraging the conſpirators, he pathetically exhorted them to break off all their rebellious connections, and return to their duty; expreſſing the moſt ſincere contrition for his own paſt conduct. Finding he could not prevail with them, he wrote to all the numerous friends and deſcendants of his family; and particularly to Douglas of Cavers, ſheriff of Teviotdale, diſſuading them from entering into the conſpiracy; and ſome of his original letters to that effect are ſaid to be ſtill extant. That great man ſurvived this application but a ſhort time: for he died without iſſue at Lindores, on the 15th of April 1488; and in him ended the firſt branch of that noble and illuſtrious houſe. He was remarkable for being the moſt learned of all the Scots nobility, and for the comelineſs of his perſon.

316 A powerful confederacy formed againſt the king.

317 Owing to a quarrel with the family of Hume.

328 Extinction of one of the branches of the family of Douglas.

James appears to have been no ſtranger to the proceedings of the conſpirators: but though he dreaded them, he depended upon the protection of the law, as they did upon his puſillanimity. His degeneracy in this reſpect is remarkable. Deſcended from a race of heroes, he was the firſt of his family who had been branded with cowardice. But his conduct at this time fully juſtifies the charge. Inſtead of vigorouſly ſupporting the execution of the laws in his own perſon, he ſhut himſelf up in his beloved caſtle of Stirling, and raiſed a body-guard; the command of which he gave to the lord Bothwel, maſter of his houſehold. He likewiſe iſſued a proclamation, forbidding any perſon in arms to approach the court; and Bothwel had a warrant to ſee the ſame put into execution. Though the king's proceedings in all this were perfectly agreeable to law, yet they were given out by his enemies as ſo many indications of his averſion to the nobility, and ſerved only to induce them to parade, armed, about the country in more numerous bodies.

329 Puſillanimous behaviour of James.

The connections entered into by James with Henry alarmed the conſpirators, and made them reſolve to ſtrike the great blow before James could avail himſelf of an alliance that ſeemed to place him above all oppoſition either abroad or at home. The acquiſition of Berwick to the crown of Scotland, which was looked upon to be as good as concluded; the marriage of the duke of Rotheſay with the daughter of the dowager and ſiſter to the conſort-queen of England; and, above all, the ſtrict harmony which reigned between James and the ſtates of his kingdom, rendered the conſpirators in a manner deſperate. Beſides the earl of Angus, the earls of Argyle and Lenox favoured the conſpirators; for when the whole of James's convention with England is conſidered, and compared with after-events, nothing can be more plain, than that the ſucceſs of the conſpirators was owing to his Engliſh connections; and that they made uſe of them to affirm, that Scotland was ſoon to become a province of England, and that James intended to govern his ſubjects by an Engliſh force. Thoſe ſpecious allegations did the conſpirators great ſervice, and inlined many, even of the moderate party, to their cauſe. They ſoon took the field, appointed their rendezvouſes, and all the ſouth of Scotland was in arms. James continued to rely upon the authority of his parliament; and ſummoned, in the terms of law, the inſurgents to anſwer at the proper tribunals for their repeated breaches of the peace. The conſpirators, far from paying any regard to his citations, tore them in pieces, buffeted and otherwiſe maltreated the meſſengers, and ſet the laws of their country at open defiance. Even north of the Forth, the heads of the houſes of Gray and Drummond ſpread the ſpirit of diſaffection through the populous counties of Fife and Angus; but the counties north of the Grampians continued firm in their duty.

330 Is ſet at defiance by the conſpirators.

The duke of Rotheſay was then a promiſing youth about fifteen years of age; and the ſubjecting the kingdom of Scotland to that of England being the chief, if not the only, cauſe urged by the rebels for their appearing in arms, they naturally threw their eyes upon that prince, as his appearance at their head would give ſtrength and ſanction to their cauſe; and in this they were not deceived. James, in the mean time, finding the inhabitants of the ſouthern provinces were either engaged in the rebellion, or at beſt obſerved a cold neutrality, embarked on board of a veſſel which was then lying in the frith of Forth, and paſſed to the north of that river, not finding it ſafe to go by land

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land to Stirling. Arriving at the castle, he gave orders that the duke of Rothesay (as foreseeing what afterwards happened) should be put under the care of one Schaw of Sauchie, whom he had made its governor, charging him not to suffer the prince upon any account to depart out of the fort. The rebels giving out that James had fled to Flanders, plundered his equipages and baggage before they passed the Forth; and they there found a large sum of money, which proved to be of the utmost consequence to their affairs. They then surprised the castle of Dunbar, and plundered the houses of every man to the south of the Forth whom they suspected to be a royalist.

331 The duke of Rothesay put into confinement.

332 Success of the rebels.

James was all this time making a progress, and holding courts of justice, in the north, where the great families were entirely devoted to his service, particularly the earls of Huntley, Errol, and Marshal. Every day brought him fresh alarms from the south, which left him no farther room either for delay or deliberation. The conspirators, notwithstanding the promising appearance of their affairs, found, that in a short time their cause must languish, and their numbers dwindle, unless they were furnished with fresh pretexts, and headed by a person of the greatest authority. While they were deliberating who that person should be, the earl of Angus boldly proposed the duke of Rothesay; and an immediate application was made to Schaw the young prince's governor, who secretly favoured their cause, and was prevailed upon by a considerable sum of money to put the prince into their hands, and to declare for the rebels.

333 They are headed by the duke of Rothesay.

James having ordered all the force in the north to assemble, hurried to Perth (then called St John's town), where he appointed the rendezvous of his army, which amounted to 30,000 men. Among the other noblemen who attended him, was the famous lord David Lindsay of the Byres, (an officer of great courage and experience, having long served in foreign countries), who headed 3000 foot and 1000 horse, mostly raised in Fifeshire. Upon his approaching the king's person, he presented him with a horse of remarkable spirit and beauty, and informed his majesty, that he might trust his life to his agility and surefootedness. The lord Ruthven, who was sheriff of Strathern, and ancestor (if we mistake not) to the unfortunate earls of Gowry, joined James at the head of 3000 well-armed men. The whole army being assembled, James proceeded to Stirling; but he was astonished, when he was not only denied entrance into the castle, but saw the guns pointed against his person, and understood, for the first time, that his son was at the head of the rebels. Schaw pretended that the duke of Rothesay had been carried off against his will: but the king's answer was, "Fye, traitor, thou hast deceived me; and if I live, I shall be revenged on thee, and thou shalt be rewarded as thou hast served." James lay that night in the town of Stirling, where he was joined by all his army; and understanding that the rebels were advancing, he formed his line of battle. The earl of Athol his uncle, who was trusted by both parties, proposed an accommodation: which was accordingly effected, if we are to believe Abercromby and other historians; but we know not the terms, for none are mentioned on either side. James is said to have failed on his part; but had there been any grounds for such a charge against him, there can scarcely be a doubt that the rebels would have published them. That a treaty was entered into, is past dispute; and the earl of Athol surrendered himself as a hostage into the hands of the rebels.

334 James assembles his army.

James was sensible of the advantage which public clamour gave to his enemies; and he applied to the kings of France and England, and the pope, for their interposition. His holinefs named Adrian de Castello for his nuncio on that occasion; and the two kings threatened to raise troops for the service of James. He, by a fatality not uncommon to weak princes, left the strong castle of Edinburgh, where he might have been in safety till his friends, who had dispersed themselves upon the faith of the late negociation, could be re-assembled; and crossing the Forth, he made another attempt to be admitted into the castle of Stirling; but was disappointed, and informed that the rebels were at Torwood in the neighbourhood, and ready to give him battle. He was in possession of the castle of Blacknefs; his admiral, Wood, commanded the Forth; and his loyal subjects in the north were upon their march to join him. Hawthornden says, that the rebels had made a show of dismissing their troops, that they might draw James into the field; and that while he remained at Blacknefs, he was attended by the earls of Montrose, Glencairn, and the lords Maxwell and Ruthven. To give his northern troops time to join him, he proposed a negociation; but that was soon at an end, upon the rebels peremptorily requiring him to resign his crown to his son, that is, to themselves.

335 Is required by the rebels to resign his crown.

The rebels had been inured to war. They consisted chiefly of borderers, well armed and disciplined; in which they had the advantage of the king's Lowland subjects, who had not been accustomed to arms. What the numbers on both sides were, does not clearly appear; but it is probable, that the forces of James were superior to the rebels. They were then at Falkirk; but they soon passed the Carron, encamped above the bridge near Torwood, and made such dispositions as rendered a battle unavoidable, unless James would have dispersed his army, and gone on board Wood's ships: but he did not know himself, and resolved on a battle. He was encamped at a small brook, named Sauchie-burn, near the same spot of ground where the great Bruce had defeated the English under Edward the second. The earl of Menteith, the lords Areskine, Graham, Ruthven, and Maxwel, commanded the first line of the king's army. The second was commanded by the earl of Glencairn, who was at the head of the Westland and Highland men. The earl of Crawford, with the lord Boyd and Lindsay of Byres, commanded the rear, wherein the king's main strength consisted, and where he himself appeared in person, completely armed, and mounted upon the fine horse which had been presented to him by Lindsay.

336 Comes to a battle with them.

The first line of the royalists obliged that of the rebels to give way; but the latter being supported by the Anandale men and borderers, the first and second line of the king's army were beat back to the third. The little courage James possessed had forsaken him at the first onset; and he had put spurs to his horse, intending to gain the banks of the Forth, and to go on board one of Wood's ships. In passing through the village

337 Abandons his army, and flies.

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village of Bannockburn, a woman who was filling her pitcher at the brook, frightened at the ſight of a man in armour galloping full ſpeed, left it behind her; and the horſe taking fright, the king was thrown to the ground, and carried, bruiſed and maimed, by a miller and his wife into their hovel. He immediately called for a prieſt to make his confeſſion; and the ruſtics demanding his name and rank, "I was (ſaid he incautiouſly) your king this morning." The woman, overcome with aſtoniſhment, clapped her hands, and running to the door called for a prieſt to confeſs the king. "I am a prieſt (ſaid one paſſing by), lead me to his majeſty." Being introduced into the hovel, he ſaw the king covered with a coarſe cloth; and kneeling by him, he aſked James whether he thought he could recover if properly attended by phyſicians? James anſwering in the affirmative, the villain pulled out a dagger and ſtabbed him to the heart. Such is the dark account we are able to give of this prince's unhappy end. The name of the perſon who murdered him is ſaid to have been Sir Andrw Borthwic, a prieſt, one of the pope's knights. Some pretend that the lord Gray, and others that Robert Stirling of Keir, was the regicide; and even Buchanan (the tenor of whoſe hiſtory is a juſtification of this murder), is uncertain as to the name of the perſon who gave him the fatal blow.

338 Is thrown from his horſe, and murdered.

It is probable that the royaliſts loſt the battle thro' the cowardice of James. Even after his flight his troops fought bravely; but they were damped on receiving the certain accounts of his death. The prince, young as he was, had an idea of the unnatural part he was acting, and before the battle he had given a ſtrict charge for the ſafety of his father's perſon. Upon hearing that he had retired from the field, he ſent orders that none ſhould purſue him; but they were ineffectual, the rebels being ſenſible that they could have have no ſafety but in the king's death. When that was certified, hoſtilities ſeemed to ceaſe; nor were the royaliſts purſued. The number of ſlain on both ſides is uncertain; but it muſt have been conſiderable, as the earl of Glencairn, the lords Sempil, Erſkine, and Ruthven, and other gentlemen of great eminence, are mentioned. As to the duke of Rotheſay, who was now king, he appeared inconſolable when he heard of his father's death; but the rebels endeavoured to efface his grief, by the profuſion of honours they paid him when he was recognized as king.

339 Grief of his ſon for his death.

The remorſe and anguiſh of the young king, on reflecting upon the unnatural part he had acted, was inexpreſſible; and the noblemen who had been engaged in the rebellion became apprehenſive for their own ſafety. The catatrophe of the unfortunate James III. however, was not yet become public; and it was thought by many that he had gone aboard ſome of the ſhips belonging to the Scottiſh admiral Sir Andrew Wood. James, willing to indulge hope as long as it was poſſible, deſired an interview with the admiral; but the latter refuſed to come on ſhore, unleſs he had ſufficient hoſtages for his ſafety. Theſe being delivered, Sir Andrew waited upon the king at Leith. He had again and again, by meſſages, aſſured him that he knew nothing of the late king; and he had even offered to allow his ſhips to be ſearched: yet ſuch was the anxiety of the new king, that he could not be ſatisfied till he had examined him in perſon. Young James had been long a ſtranger to his father, ſo that he could not have diſtinguiſhed him eaſily from others. When Wood therefore entered the room, being ſtruck with his noble appearance he aſked him, "Are you my father?" "I am not," replied Wood, burſting into tears; "but I was your father's true ſervant, and while I live I ſhall be the determined enemy of his murderers." This did not ſatisfy the lords, who demanded whether he knew where the king was. The admiral replied, that he knew not; and upon their queſtioning him concerning his manœuvres on the day of battle, when his boats were ſeen plying backwards and forwards, he told them, that he and his brother had determined to aſſiſt the king in perſon; but all they could do was to ſave ſome of the royaliſts in their ſhips. "I would to God, (ſays he) my king was there ſafely, for I would defend and keep him ſkaithleſs from all the traitors who have cruelly murdered him: for I think to ſee the day to behold them hanged and drawn for their demerits." This ſpirited declaration, and the freedom with which it was delivered, ſtruck the guilty part of the council with diſmay; but the fear of ſacrificing the hoſtages procured Wood his freedom, and he was ſuffered to depart to his ſhips. When he came on board, he found his brother preparing to hang the two lords who had been left as hoſtages; which would certainly have been their fate, had the admiral been longer detained.

340 Noble behaviour of Sir Andrew Wood.

Wood had ſcarcely reached his ſhips, when the lords, calling the inhabitants of Leith together, offered them a large premium if they would fit out a ſufficient force to deſtroy that bold pirate and his crew, as they called Wood; but the townſmen, who, it ſeems, did not much care for the ſervice, replied, that Wood's ſhips were a match for any ten ſhips that could be fitted out in Scotland. The council then removed to Edinburgh, where James IV. was crowned on the 24th of June 1487.

In the month of October this year, the nobility and others who had been preſent at the king's coronation, converted themſelves into a parliament, and paſſed an act by which they were indemnified for their rebellion againſt their late ſovereign; after which, they ordered the act to be exemplified under the great ſeal of Scotland, that it might be producible in their juſtification if called for by any foreign prince. They next proceeded to the arduous taſk of vindicating their rebellion in the eyes of the public; and ſo far did they gain upon the king by the force of flattery, that he conſented to ſummon the lords who had taken part with his father, before the parliament, to anſwer for their conduct. In conſequence of this, no fewer than 28 lords were cited to appear at Edinburgh in the ſpace of 40 days. The firſt upon the liſt was the lord David Lindſay, whoſe form of arraignment was as follows. "Lord David Lindſay of the Byres, anſwer for the cruel coming againſt the king at Bannockburn with his father, giving him counſel to have devoured the king's grace here preſent; and, to that effect, gave him a ſword and a good horſe, to fortify him againſt his ſon. Your anſwer hereto."—Lord Lindſay was remarkable for the bluntneſs of his converſation and the freedom of his ſentiments; and being irritated by this charge, he delivered himſelf in ſuch a manner concerning the treaſon of the rebellious lords, as abaſhed the boldeſt of his accuſers. As they were unable to anſwer

341 The regicides aſſemble a parliament.

342 Trial of lord David Lindſay of Byres.

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answer him, all they could do was to press him to throw himself upon the king's clemency; which he refused, as being guilty of no crime. His brother, Patrick Lindsay, undertook to be his advocate, and apologized upon his knees for the roughness of his behaviour, and at last observed an informality in the proceedings of the court; in consequence of which Lindsay was released, upon entering into recognizance to appear again at an appointed day: however, he was afterwards sent prisoner by the king's order, for a whole twelvemonth, to the castle of Rothesay in the Isle of Bute.

343 Who is imprisoned.

The regicides now endeavoured to gain the public favour by affecting a strict administration of justice. The king was advised to make a progress round the kingdom attended by his council and judges; while, in the mean time, certain noblemen and gentlemen were appointed to exercise justice, and to suppress all kinds of disorders in their own lands and in those adjoining to them, till the king came to the age of 21. The memory of the late king was branded in the most opprobrious manner. All justices, sheriffs, and stewards, who were possessed of heritable offices, but who had taken up arms for the late king, were either deprived of them for three years, or rendered incapable of enjoying them for ever after. All the young nobility who had been disinherited by their fathers for taking arms against the late king, were, by act of parliament, restored to their several successions in the most ample manner. At last, in order to give a kind of proof to the world that they intended only to resettle the state of the nation, without prejudice to the lower ranks of subjects, who did no more than follow the examples of their superiors, it was enacted, "That all goods and effects taken from burgesses, merchants, and those who had only personal estates, or, as they are called, unlanded men, since the battle of Stirling, were not only to be restored, but the owners were to be indemnified for their losses, and their persons, if in custody, were to be set at liberty. Churchmen, who were taken in arms, were to be delivered over to their ordinances, to be dealt with by them according to law." The castle of Dunbar was ordered to be demolished; and some statutes were enacted in favour of commerce, and for the exclusion of foreigners.

344 The new parliament affects popularity.

These last acts were passed with a view to recompence the boroughs, who had been very active in their opposition to the late king. However, the lords, before they dissolved their parliament, thought it necessary to give some public testimony of their disapproving the late king's connection with England. It was therefore enacted, "That as the king was now of an age to marry a noble princess, *born and descended of a noble and worshipful house*, an honourable embassy should be sent to the realms of France, Brittany, Spain, and other places, in order to conclude the matter." This embassy was to be very splendid. It was to consist of a bishop, an earl, or lord of parliament, a secretary, who was generally a clergyman, and a knight. They were to be attended by 50 horsemen; 5000 l. was to be allowed them for the discharge of their embassy, and they were empowered to renew the ancient league between France and Scotland; and in the mean time a herald, or, as he was called, a trusty squire, was sent abroad to visit the several courts of Europe, in order to find out a proper match for the king. One considerable obstacle, however, lay in the way of this embassy. The pope had laid under an interdict all those who had appeared in arms against the late king; and the party who now governed Scotland were looked upon by all the powers of Europe as rebels and murderers. The embassy was therefore suspended for a considerable time; for it was not till the year 1491 that the pope could be prevailed upon to take off the interdict, upon the most humble submissions and professions of repentance made by the guilty parties.

345 Act relative to the king's marriage.

346 They are opposed by the Pope.

In the mean time, the many good qualities which discovered themselves in the young king began to conciliate the affections of his people to him. Being considered, however, as little better than a prisoner in the hands of his father's murderers, several of the nobility made use of that as a pretence for taking arms. The most forward of these was the earl of Lenox, who with 2000 men attempted to surprise the town of Stirling; but, being betrayed by one of his own men, he was taken unawares, defeated, and the castle of Dunbarton, of which he was the keeper, taken by the opposite party. In the north, the earls of Huntley and Marshal, with the lord Forbes, complained that they had been deceived, and declared their resolution to revenge the late king's death. Lord Forbes having procured the bloody shirt of the murdered prince, displayed it on the point of a lance, as a banner under which all loyal subjects should list themselves. However, after the defeat of Lenox, the northern chieftains found themselves incapable of marching southwards, and were therefore obliged to abandon their enterprise. The cause of the murdered king was next undertaken by Henry VII. of England, who made an offer to Sir Andrew Wood of five ships to revenge it. The admiral accepted the proposal; but the English behaving as pirates, and plundering indiscriminately all who came in their way, he thought proper to separate himself from them, yet without offering to attack or oppose them. Upon this, James was advised to send for the admiral, to offer him a pardon, and a commission to act against the English freebooters. Wood accepted of the king's offer; and being well provided with ammunition and artillery, he, with two ships only, attacked the five English vessels, all of which he took, and brought their crews prisoners to Leith, for which he was nobly rewarded by his majesty.

347 Attempts to revenge the death of James III.

348 Henry VII. sends five ships for this purpose.

349 Who act piratically, and are all taken by Sir Andrew Wood.

This conduct of Wood was highly resented by the king of England, who immediately vowed revenge. The Scottish admiral's ships had been fitted out for commerce as well as war, and Henry commanded his best sea-officer Sir Stephen Bull, to intercept him on his return from Flanders, whither he had gone upon a commercial voyage. Wood had no more than two ships with him: the English admiral had three; and those much larger, and carrying a greater weight of metal, than the Scottish vessels. The English took their station at the island of May in the mouth of the Frith of Forth, and, having come unawares upon their enemies, fired two guns as a signal for their surrendering themselves. The Scottish commander encouraged his men as well as he could; and finding them determined to stand by him to the last, began the engagement in sight of numberless spectators who appeared.

350 Sir Stephen Bull sent against the Scottish admiral.

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351 But is taken with all his ships.

James all this time had continued to display such moderation in his government, and appeared to have the advantage of his subjects so much at heart, that they became gradually well-affected to his government, and in 1490 all parties were fully reconciled. We may from thence date the commencement of the reign of James IV.; and the next year the happiness of his kingdom was completed, by taking off the Pope's interdict, and giving the king absolution for the hand he had in his father's death.

Tranquillity being thus restored, the negociations concerning the king's marriage began to take place. but met with several interruptions. In 1493, Henry VII. proposed a match between the king of Scotland and his cousin the princess Catharine. James was too much attached to France to be fond of English connections, and probably thought this match below his dignity; in consequence of which the proposal was treated with contempt. However, notwithstanding this ill success, Henry made another offer of alliance with James; and, in 1495, proposed a marriage betwixt him and his eldest daughter Margaret. This proposal was accepted: but the match seems not to have been at all agreeable to James; for, at the very time in which he was negociating the marriage, he not only protected Perkin Warbeck, the avowed enemy and pretender to the crown of Henry, but invaded England on his account. This conduct was highly resented by the English parliament; but Henry himself forgave even this gross insult, and the marriage negociations were once more resumed. The bride was no more than ten years and six months old; and being only the fourth degree of blood from James, it was necessary to procure a dispensation from the pope. This being obtained, a treaty of perpetual peace was concluded between the two nations, on the 1st of July 1503, being the first that had taken place for 170 years, since the peace of Northampton concluded between Robert I. and Edward III.

352 Marriage-treaty with England.

353 A perpetual peace with that nation.

One of the great ends which Henry had in view in promoting this marriage, was to detach James from the French interest: no sooner, therefore, was the treaty signed, than he wrote to his son-in-law to this purpose; who, however, politely declined to break with his ancient ally. On the 16th of June, the royal bride set out from Richmond in Surry, in company with her father, who gave her the convoy as far as Colleweston, the residence of his mother the countess of Richmond. After passing some days there, the king resigned his daughter to the care of the earls of Surry and Northumberland, who proceeded with her to the borders of Scotland. Here a number of the company were permitted to take their leave; but those who remained still made a royal appearance. At Lamberton-church they were met by James, attended by a numerous train of his nobility and officers of state. From Lamberton they proceeded to Dalkeith, and next day to Edinburgh; where the nuptials were celebrated with the greatest splendour. On this occasion, it is said, that the Scots surpassed all their guests in extravagance and luxury: which must have been owing to the great intercourse and commerce which James and his subjects maintained with foreign courts and countries.

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354 Magnificence of the royal nuptials.

After the celebration of the nuptials, James appears to have enjoyed a tranquillity unknown almost to any of his predecessors; and began to make a considerable figure among the European potentates. But the magnificence of his court and embassies, his liberality to strangers and to learned men, his costly edifices, and, above all, the large sums he laid out in ship-building, had now brought him into some difficulties; and he so far attended to the advice and example of his father-in-law, that he supplied his necessities by reviving dormant penal laws, particularly with regard to wardships and old titles of estates, by which he raised large sums. Though he did this without assembling his parliament, yet he found agents who justified those proceedings, in the same manner as Empson and Dudley did those of Henry, under the sanction of law. At last, however, touched with the sufferings of his subjects, he ordered all prosecutions to be stopped. He even went farther: for, sensible of the detestation into which his father-in-law's avarice had brought himself and his administration, he ordered the ministers who had advised him to those shameful courses to be imprisoned; and some of them, who probably had exceeded their commission, actually died in their confinement.

355 James becomes a powerful monarch.

About this time, James applied himself, with incredible assiduity, to building ships; one of which, the St Michael, is supposed to have been the largest then in the world (B). He worked with his own hands in building it; and it is plain, from his conduct, that he was

356 Applies himself to maritime affairs.

(B) Of this ship we have the following account by Lindsay of Pitscottie. "In the same year, the king of Scotland bigged a great ship, called the *Great Michael*, which was the greatest ship, and of most strength, that ever sailed in England or France. For this ship was of so great stature, and took so much timber, that, except Falkland, she wasted all the woods in Fife, which was oak-wood, by all timber that was gotten out of Norway; for she was so strong, and of so great length and breadth, (all the wrights of Scotland, yea, and many other strangers, were at her device, by the king's commandment, who wrought very busily in her: but it was a year and day ere she was complete); to wit, she was twelve-score foot of length, and thirty-six foot within the sides. She was ten foot thick in the wall, outted jests of oak in her wall, and boards on every side, so stark and so thick, that no cannon could go through her. This great ship cumbered Scotland to get her to the sea. From that time that she was afloat, and her masts and sails complete, with tows and anchors effeiring thereto, she was counted to the king to be thirty thousand pounds of expences, by her artillery, which was very great and costly to the king, by all the rest of her orders; to wit, she bare many cannons, fix on every side, with three great bassils, two behind in her dock, and one before, with

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was aspiring to be a maritime power, in which he was encouraged by the excellent seamen which Scotland then produced. The first essay of his arms by sea was in favour of his kinsman John king of Denmark. This prince was brother to Margaret queen of Scotland; and had partly been called to the throne of Sweden, and partly possessed it by force. He was opposed by the administrator, Sture, whom he pardoned after he was crowned. Sture, however, renewing his rebellion, and the Norwegians revolting at the same time, John found himself under such difficulties, that he was forced to return to Denmark; but he left his queen in possession of the castle of Stockholm, which she bravely defended against Sture and the Swedes. This heroic princess became a great favourite with James; and several letters that passed between them are still extant. The king of Denmark, next to the French monarch, was the favourite ally of James; who, early in his reign, had compromised some differences between them. It likewise appears, from the histories of the north, that both James and his father had given great assistance to his Danish majesty in reducing the Norwegians; and he resolved to become a party in the war against the Swedes, and the Lubeckers who assisted them, if the former continued in their revolt. Previous to this, he sent an ambassador to offer his mediation between John and his subjects. The mediation was accordingly accepted of, and the negociations were opened at Calmar. The deputies of Sweden not attending, John prevailed with those of Denmark and Norway to pronounce sentence of forfeiture against Sture and all his adherents. In the mean time, the siege of the castle of Stockholm was so warmly pressed, that the garrison was diminished to a handful, and those destitute of all kind of provisions; so that the brave queen was forced to capitulate, and to surrender up the fortress, on condition of her being suffered to depart for Denmark; but the capitulation was perfidiously broken by Sture, and she was confined in a monastery.

357 James assists Denmark against Sweden.

It was on this occasion that James resolved to employ his maritime power. He wrote a letter, conceived in the strongest terms, to the archbishop of Upsal, the primate of Sweden, exhorting him to employ all his authority in favour of the king; and another letter to the Lubeckers, threatening to declare war against them, as well as the Swedes, if they jointly continued to assist the rebels. According to Hollinshed, James, in consequence of king John's application, gave the command of an army of 10,000 men to the earl of Arran, who replaced John upon his throne. Though this does not strictly appear to be truth, yet it is certain, that, had it not been for James, John must have sunk under the weight of his enemies. Sture, whose arms had made a great progress, hearing that a considerable armament was fitting out in Scotland, and knowing that James had prevailed with the French king to assist John likewise, agreed to release the queen, and to wait upon her to the frontiers of Denmark; where he died. By this time, James's armament, which was commanded by the earl of Arran, had set sail; but perceiving that all matters were adjusted between John and the Swedes, the ships returned sooner than James expected, "which (says he, in a very polite letter he wrote to the queen upon the occasion) they durst not have done, had they not brought him an account that her Danish majesty was in perfect health and safety." The severity of John having occasioned a fresh revolt, James again sent a squadron to his assistance, which appeared before Stockholm, and obliged the Lubeckers to conclude a new treaty.

358 Chastises the Flemings and Hollanders.

James, having thus honourably discharged his engagements with his uncle the king of Denmark, turned his attention towards the Flemings and Hollanders, who had insulted his flag, on account of the assistance he had afforded the duke of Gueldres, as well as from motives of rapaciousness, which distinguished those traders, who are said not only to have plundered the Scots ships, but to have thrown their crews overboard to conceal their villany. James gave the command of a squadron to Barton; who put to sea, and, without any ceremony, treated all the Dutch and Flemish traders who fell into his hands, as pirates, and sent their heads in hogsheads to James. Soon after, Barton returned to Scotland, and brought with him a number of rich prizes, which rendered his reputation as a seaman famous all over Europe.—James was then so much respected upon the continent, that we know of no resentment shown either by the court of Spain, whose subjects those Netherlanders were, or of any other power in Europe, for this vigorous proceeding.

359 Cause of quarrel with England.

The peace with England continued all the time of Henry the VII. nor did his son Henry VIII. tho' he had not the same reason as his father to keep well with the Scots, for some time show any disposition to break with them. A breach, however, did very soon take place, which was never afterwards thoroughly made up, on the following occasion.

About 30 years before, one John Barton, (a relation, probably, to the famous Barton), commanded a trading vessel, which was taken by two Portuguese sea-captains in the port of Sluys; and the captain, with several Scotchmen, were killed in endeavouring to defend their property. The action was esteemed cowardly as well as piratical, because it was done under the protection of a large Portuguese squadron. The ship and the remaining part of the crew, with the cargo, were carried to Portugal, from whence no redress could be obtained; and James III. granted

with three hundred shot of small artillery, that is to say, myand and battret-falcon, and quarter-falcon, slings, pestelent serpetens, and double-dogs, with hagtor and culvering, cors-bows and hand-bows. She had three hundred mariners to sail her; she had six score of gunners to use her artillery; and had a thousand men of war, by her captain, shippers, and quarter-masters.

"When this ship past to the sea, and was lying in the road, the king gart shoot a cannon at her, to essay her if she was wight; but I heard say, it deared her not, and did her little skaith. And if any man believe that this description of the ship be not of verity, as we have written, let him pass to the gate of Tillibardin, and there, afore the same, ye will see the length and breadth of her, planted with hawthorn, by the wright that helped to make her. As for other properties of her, Sir Andrew Wood is my author, who was quarter-master of her; and Robert Bartyne, who was master-shipper."

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ed letters of marque to John and Robert Bartons, heirs to the Barton who had been murdered. Upon the accession of James IV. to the crown of Scotland, the letters of marque were recalled, and a friendly correspondence was entered into between James and his Portuguese majesty. No redress, however, was to be had from the latter; and Robert Barton being made a prisoner, and his ship a prize, he was detained in Zealand, till James procured his deliverance, by applying in his favour to the emperor Maximilian. Sir Andrew Barton took part in the quarrel; and having obtained a like letter of marque, he made dreadful depredations on the Portuguese trade, and, according to English authors, he plundered many English ships, on pretence of their carrying Portuguese property, and to have made the navigation of the narrow seas dangerous to Englishmen. The court of London received daily complaints of Barton's depredations; but Henry being at this time very averse to quarrel with James, the complainants were heard with great coldness at his council-board. The earl of Surry had then two sons, gallant noblemen; and he declared to Henry's face, that while he had an estate that could furnish out a ship, or a son who was capable of commanding one, the narrow seas should not be infested. Henry could not discourage this generous offer; and letters of marque were accordingly granted to the two young noblemen, Sir Thomas and Sir Edward Howard. The prizes that Barton had taken had rendered his ships immensely rich, consequently they were heavy laden, and unfit for fighting; while we may easily suppose, that the ships of the Howards were clean, and of a superior force in every respect to those of Barton. After encountering a great deal of foul weather, Sir Thomas Howard came up with the Lyon, which was commanded by Sir Andrew Barton in person; and Sir Edward fell in with the Unicorn, Barton's other ship. The event was such as might be expected from the inequality of the match. Sir Andrew Barton was killed while he was animating, with his whittle, his men to hold out to the last; and both the Scotch ships being taken, were carried in triumph to London, with their crews prisoners.

James could never forgive Henry for the loss of his brave officer. He sent to demand satisfaction; but all the answer he received was, that Barton and his crews were lawless pirates, and that what had been done against them ought never to have been resented amongst sovereign princes. James asserted, that Barton was no pirate, because he bore his commission; and that he ought to have been convicted of piratical acts before he was treated as being guilty of them. Henry intimated to James, that he was willing to accommodate the affair by way of negociation; but James thought himself affronted by the proposal.

360 James resolves to invade England.

Various negociations took place concerning this and other affairs, till the year 1513; when James, though he had for some time before been fully resolved upon a war with England, thought it highly necessary that it should have the sanction of his parliament, which he assembled for that purpose. The young nobility, besides their knowing the sentiments of James, had been won over by the French; and the majority of them, as well as of the clergy (which was pretty extraordinary, as James was, in effect, to fight against the pope and his allies) were keen for a war with England. The old counsellors, on the other hand, who saw the flourishing state of Scotland, arising from a long peace and their commerce, which was protected by a fleet, dreaded the ruinous consequences of a war. The queen naturally headed this party; and she was joined by the earl of Angus and the wisest part of the nobility. Their arguments made no impression upon James. He had received a present from Lewis of four ships laden with wine and flour, and two ships of war completely equipped, one of them carrying 34 pieces of brass ordnance. He promised to the French queen, upon his honour, that he would take the field against the English; and she had sent him a fresh letter, gently reproaching him for want of gallantry, and for not being so good as his word. In short, the reasonings of the wisest and best part of the nobility were over-ruled, and the expedition against England was resolved on.

361 The Scots defeated.

The earl of Hume, who was chamberlain of Scotland, was, at this juncture, at the head of 7000 or 8000 men, with whom he committed prodigious devastations on the English borders. Henry's queen, Catharine of Spain, whom he had left regent of his dominions, issued a commission of array, directed to Sir Thomas Lovel, knight of the garter, for assembling the militia of the counties of Nottingham, Derby, Warwick, Leicester, Stafford, Rutland, Northampton, and Lincoln. The management of the war, however, was chiefly committed to the earl of Surry, who assembled the militia of Chester, Lancaster, Northumberland, Westmoreland, Cumberland, and the bishopric of Durham. The earl of Hume had by this time laid great part of Northumberland waste; and his men were returning home laden with booty. The earl of Surry, resolving to intercept them, ordered Sir William Bulmer to form an ambush with 1000 archers, at a place called *Broomhouse*, extremely convenient for that purpose, by which the Scots must pass. As the latter expected nothing of that kind, Bulmer executed his orders with great success. The archers assaulted the Scots all at once, and made so good use of their arrows, that their main body was put to flight, 500 were killed, and 400 taken, with the lord Hume's standard, which he left on the field of battle; the greatest part of the plunder being recovered at the same time. The commonalty of Scotland termed this expedition of the lord Hume's the *Ill road*.

362 The queen endeavours to dissuade James from his design.

James was more exasperated than ever by this defeat, and continued his preparations for invading England with additional vigour. His queen did all that became a wife and prudent wife to divert him from his fatal purpose. She endeavoured to work upon his superstition, by recounting to him her ominous dreams and boding apprehensions. James treating these as mere illusions and fictions of the brain, she had recourse to other arts. While James was waiting at Linlithgow for the arrival of his army from the north and the Highlands, he assisted one afternoon at the vespers in the church of St Michael. Being placed in one of the canon's seats, a venerable, comely man of about 52 years of age, entered, dressed in a long garment of an azure colour, and girded round with a towel or

363 A phantom appears to him.

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roll of linen, his forehead bald, and his yellow locks hanging down his shoulders; in short, he was dressed and formed to appear like St Andrew, the apostle of Scotland, as he is represented in painting and sculpture. The church being crowded, this personage, with some difficulty, made his way to the king's seat; and leaning over it, he spoke to the following purpose: "Sir, (said he), I am sent hither to intreat you for this time to delay your expedition, and to proceed no farther in your intended journey: for if you do, you shall not prosper in your enterprise, nor any of your followers. I am further charged to warn you, if ye be so refractory as to go forward, not to use the acquaintance, company, or counsel of women, as ye tender your honour, life, and estate." After delivering those words, he retired through the crowd, and was no more seen, though, when the service was ended, James earnestly inquired after him.

That this scene was acted, seems to be past dispute; for Sir David Lindsay, who was then a young man, and present in the church, reported it both to Buchanan and Lindsay the historian. It is, however, equally certain, that the whole was a contrivance of the queen, to whose other afflictions the stings of jealousy were now added. In one of the Scotch inroads into England, one Heron, the proprietor of the castle of Ford, had been taken prisoner, and sent to Scotland; where he was detained on a charge of murder, of which he seems to have been innocent. The English historians mention this as having passed after James entered England: but from the latter part of the supposed phantom's speech, it is probable that it happened before; and that Heron's wife and beautiful daughter had been for some time soliciting James for his deliverance. Be that as it may, it is too probable that James was smitten with the charms of the daughter; and that her mother, who was a most artful woman, knew how to avail herself of the conquest. Pretending that she had interest enough to procure the release of the lord Johnston and Alexander Home, who were prisoners in England, she was permitted by James to keep a constant correspondence with the earl of Surry, to whom she is said to have betrayed all James's secrets and measures. The rendezvous of James's army was at the Burrow-moor, to which James repaired; and having given orders for the march of his artillery, he lodged at the abbey of Holyrood-house. While he was there, another attempt was made to divert him from his purpose of invading England: but James, deaf to all the solicitations and inventions of his queen, mustered his army; and on the 22d of August he passed the Tweed, encamping that night near the banks of the Twissel. On his arrival at Twisselhaugh on the 14th, he called an assembly of his lords together, and made a declaration, that the heirs of all such as should die in the army, or be killed by the enemy during his stay in England, should have their wards, relief, and marriages of the king; who, upon that account, dispensed with their age. This is said to have been the crisis of that prince's fate. Abandoned to his passion for his English mistress, she prevailed with him, at her mother's instigation, to trifle away his time for some days; during which interval, the junction of the English army was formed. The earl of Surry, the English general, was then at Pomfret: but ordered the landholders of the neighbouring counties to certify to him in writing what number of men each could furnish, charging them to be ready at an hour's warning; and he laid his plan so, as not to bring his army into the field till James had advanced so far into England, as to render it very difficult for him to retire without a general battle. This precaution assisted the lady Ford (as she is called) in persuading James that there was no danger in the delay, because the English had not the face of an army in the field.

364 James deluded by his mistress.

In the mean time, the earl of Surry ordered the governors of Berwick and Norham, the two strongest places on the frontiers of England, to prepare for a vigorous resistance in case they were attacked; and directed them to certify how long they could hold out, in hopes, that if they made a resolute defence, James would march on, and leave them in his rear. The governor of Norham's answer was, that his castle was so well provided, as to leave him no doubt, in case of a siege, to be able to defend it till king Henry should return from abroad, and relieve it in person. James, however, besieged it on the 25th of August, and battered it so furiously, that he took it by capitulation the sixth day after. James then proceeded to the castle of Etal, belonging to the family of Manners (now duke of Rutland); which he took and demolished likewise, as he also did Wark, and arrived before the castle Ford. The Scotch army is generally allowed to have consisted of at least 50,000 men when it passed the Tweed. At this time it was encamped on the heights of Cheviot, in the heart of a country naturally barren, and now desolate through the precautions taken by the English general. Being obliged to extend their quarters for the benefit of subsistence, the mercenary part of them had acquired a considerable plunder, with which, as usual, they retired to their own country, as many more did for want of subsistence. The earl of Surry knew their situation, and ordered the rendezvous of his army, first at Newcastle, and then near Norham, having certain intelligence of the vast desertions daily happening in the Scotch army, which had reduced it greatly. The wetness of the season rendered his march, especially that of the artillery, extremely difficult; but being joined by several persons of great distinction, he marched on the 3d of September to Alnwic, where he was reinforced by 5000 hardy veteran troops, sent from the English army on the continent, under the command of his son the lord-admiral of England; so that the English authors admit his army to have consisted of 26,000 men, all completely armed and provided for the field. James having, in the manifesto which he dispersed on his entering England, given the death of Barton as one of the causes of his invasion, the lord-admiral had prevailed with Henry to send him upon this service; and he informed James by a letter, that he intended to justify the death of that pirate in the front of the English army.

365 The Scots take the castles of Norham, Etal, and Wark.

By this time the army of James was, by desertion and other causes, reduced to less than half its numbers; but the chief misfortune attending it was his own conduct. His indolence and inactivity, joined to the scandalous examples of his amours, at such a season, had disgusted several of his greatest men and best friends; and some of them more than suspected a cor-

366 James disgusts several of his nobility.

Scotland. respondence between the English lady and the earl of Surry. James was deaf to all their remonstrances; and the earl of Angus declared, that he was resolved to return home, as he foresaw that the ruin of the army was inevitable through the obstinacy of James. He accordingly withdrew to Scotland, but left behind him his two sons. The lord Hume and the earl of Huntley were likewise discontented. The former had brought his men into the field; but, according to some Scotch historians, with a design rather to betray than to serve James: but Huntley, though he disliked his master's conduct, remained firmly attached to his person.

The defection or backwardness of those great men seemed to make no impression upon James. He had chosen a strong camp in the neighbourhood of Ford, on the side of a mountain called Floddon-hill; and he was separated from the English army by the river Till. This advantageous situation put the earl of Surry under great difficulties; for it rendered the Scotch army inaccessible, as it was fortified by artillery, and was now well supplied with provisions by the change of its situation. The earl drew up a manifesto, with which he charged Rouge Croix herald, who was attended by a trumpet. It contained some proposals for an exchange of prisoners, which seems to have been calculated to give the lady Ford the more credit with James; but concluded with reproaches for his perfidious invasion of England, and a defiance to James to fight him in a general battle. The herald was farther charged with a verbal commission to acquaint James, that the earl of Surry had issued orders that no quarter should be given to any of the Scotch army but the king himself.

367 Encamps in an advantageous situation.

A council of war was called on this occasion; in which the earl of Huntley and others made strong remonstrances against a general engagement. They shewed how fatal it must be to Scotland, should it prove unsuccessful; and that the wisest course James could follow was to return home, where, if he was pursued by the enemy, he could fight to great advantage. The earl of Huntley, however, added, that his opinion should be determined by that of the king and council; and that he was equally ready to share in his majesty's danger as his glory.

Huntley and the other noblemen were opposed by the French ambassador, who represented a retreat as disgraceful to the nobility of Scotland and the arms of James; and used many romantic arguments of the same kind, which but too well suited with the king's disposition. According to Drummond, the council were of opinion, that the king should immediately besiege Berwick; but be that as it will, the majority of them were certainly of opinion, that it was beneath the dignity of James to fight the earl of Surry at that nobleman's requisition, and that James could lose no honour by returning home. Patrick lord Lindsay of Byres, mentioned on a former occasion, and who was president of the council, expressed himself so strongly on that head, that James, in a passion, is said by the historian Lindsay to have sworn, that if ever he lived to return to Scotland, he would hang that nobleman at his own gate. He ordered Rouge Croix to be called in; and after treating him with great politeness, he sent a message to the earl of Surry by one of his own heralds (Islay), importing, that he would give the English battle on the Friday following; and that had he received such a message from the earl even in his own castle of Edinburgh, he would have left that, and all other business, to have fought him. With this message, a small manifesto, in vindication of James's conduct, was sent by the same herald.

368 Resolves to fight, contrary to the opinion of all his officers.

The earl of Surry, who was then so infirm that he was carried about in a sedan or chariot, had foreseen that James would return an answer by one of his own heralds; but, unwilling that he should obtain any knowledge of the situation of the English camp, he ordered proper persons to receive him at two miles distance, where soon after he attended himself in person. Islay executed his commission without paying much respect to the person of the English general; who dismissed him, after bestowing great compliments upon the honour and courage of James. The earl then ordered his army to march in the line of battle towards Wollerhaugh. There he was joined by Rouge Croix, herald, who gave him an account of the strong situation of the Scottish camp; but the advanced posts of the English army were then within three miles of their enemies, and the earl of Surry found his difficulties daily increasing. The roads were broken up, the swelling of the rivers cut him off from the necessary communications for supplying his army, and nothing but a battle could save him either from being disbanded or destroyed.

James seems to have so far regarded the advice of his wisest counsellors, as not to abandon his strong situation. They endeavoured to persuade him, that it was a sufficient guard to his honour, if he did not decline the battle on the day appointed; and that his engagement did not bind him to fight upon disadvantageous ground. The Scots, at the same time, knew of their enemy's distresses; and, as Drummond elegantly expresses it, they remonstrated to their king, that he lacked nothing but patience to be victorious. The Scots thus lying on the defensive, the earl of Surry again sent Rouge Croix to inform James that he was ready to give him battle. James was sensibly nettled at this tacit imputation upon his honour, and perhaps was inwardly vexed for having followed the wise advice of his noblemen. It is certain, from the best authorities, that he neglected the necessary precautions for guarding the passages of the Till, which the English crossed, partly at a place where it was fordable, and partly at a bridge. We are told, not without a great appearance of probability, that while the English were passing the bridge, Borthwick, master of the Scotch artillery, fell upon his knees, and begged permission from James to point his cannon against the bridge; but that James answered him in a passion, that it must be at the peril of his (Borthwick's) head, and that he was resolved to see all his enemies that day on the plain before him in a body. The earl of Surry, after passing the Till, took possession of Braxton, which lay to the right of the Scotch camp; and by that situation he cut off the communication of his enemies with the Tweed, and commanded the Till below Eton-castle. The Scotch generals saw themselves now in danger of being reduced to the same straits in which their enemies had been involved

369 His imprudent conduct.

two.

Scotland. two days before, and their country open to an invasion of the Engliſh army. James had ſecret intelligence that this was far from being the intention of the Engliſh general; and imagining that the latter's intention was to take poſſeſſion of a ſtrong camp upon a hill between him and the Tweed, which would give the Engliſh a farther command of the country, he reſolved to be before-hand with the earl, and gave orders for making large fires of green wood, that the ſmoke might cover his march along the height, to take advantage of that eminence. But while this ſtratagem concealed his march from the Engliſh, their movements were concealed from him; for when he came to the brow of the height over which he had marched, he found the enemy drawn up in order of battle on the plain, but ſo cloſe to the height where he was, that his artillery, on which his great dependence was, muſt overſhoot them.

370 Account of the battle of Flodden.

A battle was now not only unavoidable, but the only means of ſaving the Scotch army, which was probably far from being a diſagreeable circumſtance to James. His perſon was ſo dear to his troops, that many of them dreſſed themſelves as nearly as they could in the ſame coats of armour and with the ſame diſtinctions that James wore that day. His generals had earneſtly deſired him to retire to a place of ſafety, where his perſon would be ſecure in all events: but he obſtinately refuſed to follow their advice; and on the ninth of September, early in the morning, diſpoſitions were ordered for the line of battle. The command of the van was allotted to the earl of Huntley; the earls of Lenox and Argyle commanded the Highlanders under James, who, ſome ſay, ſerved only as a volunteer; and the earls of Crawford and Montroſe led the body of reſerve. The earl of Surry gave the command of his van to his ſon, the lord-admiral; his right wing was commanded by his other ſon, Sir Edward Howard; and his left by Sir Marmaduke Conſtable. The rear was commanded by the earl himſelf, lord Dacres, and Sir Edward Stanley. Under thoſe leaders ſerved the flower of all the nobility and gentry then in England. Other writers give different accounts of the diſpoſition of the Engliſh army, but they may be reconciled by the different forms into which the battle was thrown before it was decided. The lord Hume is mentioned as ſerving under the earls of Crawford and Montroſe, and Hepburn earl of Bothwel in the rear.

The firſt motion of the Engliſh army was by the lord-admiral, who ſuddenly wheeled to the right, and ſeized a paſs at Milford, where he planted his artillery ſo as to command the moſt ſloping part of the aſcent where the Scots were drawn up; and it did great execution. The Scots had not foreſeen this manœuvre; and it put them into ſuch diſorder, that the earl of Huntley found it neceſſary to attack the lord-admiral; which he did with ſo much fury, that he drove him from his poſt; and the conſequence muſt have been fatal to the Engliſh, had not his precipitate retreat been covered by ſome ſquadrons of horſe under the lord Dacres, which gave the lord-admiral an opportunity of rallying and new-forming his men. The earl of Surry now found it neceſſary to advance to the front, ſo that the Engliſh army formed one continued line, which galled the Scots with perpetual diſcharges of their artillery and bows. The Highlanders, as uſual, impatient to come to a cloſe fight, and to ſhare in the honour of the day, which they now thought their own, ruſhed down the declivity with their broad-ſwords, but without order or diſcipline, and before the reſt of the army, particularly the diviſion under lord Hume, advanced to ſupport them. Their impetuoſity, however, made a conſiderable impreſſion upon the main battle of the Engliſh; and the king bringing up the earl of Bothwel's reſerve, the battle became general and doubtful: but by this time the lord-admiral, having again formed his men, came to the aſſiſtance of his father, and charged the diviſion under the earls of Crawford and Montroſe, who were marching up to ſupport the Highlanders, among whom the king and his attendants were now fighting on foot; while Stanley, making a circuit round the hill, attacked the Highlanders in the rear. Crawford and Montroſe, not being ſeconded, according to the Scotch hiſtorians, by the Humes, were routed; and thus all that part of the Scotch army which was engaged under their king, was completely ſurrounded by the diviſion of the Engliſh under Surry, Stanley, and the lord-admiral. In this terrible ſituation, James acted with a coolneſs not common to his temper. He drew up his men in a circular form, and their valour more than once opened the ranks of the Engliſh, or obliged them to ſtand aloof, and again have recourſe to their bows and artillery. The chief of the Scotch nobility made freſh attempts to prevail with James to make his eſcape while it was practicable; but he obſtinately continued the fight; and thereby became acceſſory to his own ruin, and that of his troops, whom the Engliſh would gladly have ſuffered to retreat. He ſaw the earls of Montroſe, Crawford, Argyle, and Lenox, fall by his ſide, with the braveſt of his men lying dead on the ſpot; and darkneſs now coming on, he himſelf was killed by an unknown hand. The Engliſh were ignorant of the victory they had gained; and had actually retreated from the field of battle, with a deſign of renewing it next morning.

371 The Scots defeated, and their king killed.

This diſaſter was evidently owing to the romantic diſpoſition of the king himſelf, and to the want of diſcipline among many of his ſoldiers; though ſome writers have aſcribed it to the treachery of lord Hume. Many of James's domeſtics knew and mourned over his body; and it appeared that he had received two mortal wounds, one through the trunk with an arrow, and the other on the head with a bill. His coat of armour was preſented to queen Catharine, who informed her huſband, then in France, of the victory over the Scots. The loſs on both ſides, in this engagement, is far from being aſcertained; though Polydore Virgil, who lived at the time, mentions the loſs of the Engliſh at 5000, and that of the Scots at 10,000.

After the death of king James IV. the adminiſtration devolved on the queen-dowager; but ſhe being big with a poſthumous child, and unable to bear the weight of public buſineſs, accepted of Beaton archbiſhop of Glaſgow and chancellor of Scotland, with the earls of Huntly, Angus, and Arran, to aſſiſt her in the affairs of government. Soon after her huſband's death, ſhe had wrote an affecting letter to her brother the king of England, informing him of her pregnancy, ſetting

372 The queen dowager aſſumes the government.

373 Writes to the king of England.

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374 The Scottish affairs in great confusion.

ſetting forth the deplorable ſtate of the kingdom, with her own condition, and imploring his friendſhip and protection for herſelf and her infant ſon. This letter ſeems never to have been communicated by Henry to his council; but he anſwered it, and informed his ſiſter, that if the Scots would have peace, they ſhould have peace, and war if they choſe it. "He added (according to Drummond), that her huſband had fallen by his own indiſcreet raſhneſs, and fooliſh kindneſs to France; that he regretted his death as his ally, and ſhould be willing to prohibit all hoſtility againſt the country of Scotland during the minority of her ſon. For a remedy of preſent evils, one year's truce and a day longer was yielded unto; in which time he had leiſure to proſecute his deſigns againſt France, without fear of being diſturbed or diverted by the incurſions and inrods of the Scots upon his borders."

Thus far Drummond: but though Henry might grant this time to his ſiſter's intreaty, yet it certainly did not become a national meaſure; for it appears by a letter dated two years after, from the Scots council to the king of France, publiſhed by Rymer, that the Scots never had deſired a truce. So far from that, the French influence, joined to a deſire of revenge, remained ſo ſtrong in the kingdom, that after the meeting of the parliament, ſome of the members were ſo violent as to propoſe a renewal of the war. This motion was indeed over-ruled by the more moderate part of the aſſembly: but they could not be brought to make any advances towards Henry for a peace; and every day was now big with public calamity, which ſeems to have gathered ſtrength during the queen's inlying. The archbiſhopric of St Andrew's being vacant, it was offered by univerſal conſent to Elphinſton biſhop of Aberdeen; but being now old and infirm, he declined it. Three competitors for that high dignity then appeared. The firſt was Gawin Douglas, who was then abbot of Aberbrothwic, to which he was preſented by the queen upon her recovery (having been brought to bed of a ſon) the very day before her marriage with his nephew the earl of Angus; and upon the death of biſhop Elphinſton in November following, ſhe preſented him likewiſe to the archbiſhopric of St Andrew's. The ſecond competitor was John Hepburn, prior of St Andrew's; a bold, avaricious, reſtleſs, but ſhrewd and ſenſible prieſt. By his office he had received the rents of the fee during its vacancy; and having prevailed with the canons, on pretence of ancient priveleges, to elect him archbiſhop, without regard to the nomination either of the queen or pope, he drove Douglas's ſervants from the caſtle of St Andrew's, of which they had taken poſſeſſion. The third and moſt powerful competitor was Forman biſhop of Moray in Scotland, and archbiſhop of Bourges in France, a dignity to which he had been raiſed for his public ſervices. He had in his intereſt not only the duke of Albany (ſon to the traitor duke) firſt prince of the blood, but alſo the court of Rome itſelf; and having received the pope's bull and nomination to the dignity, he was conſidered by the Scotch clergy in general, and by the principal tenants and dependents upon the ſee, as the legal archbiſhop.

The preference given to Forman diſcouraged Douglas from purſuing his pretenſions; but Hepburn, being ſupported by the clan of his own name and by the Humes, made ſo formidable a head againſt his rivals, that none could be found daring enough to publiſh the papal bull in favour of Forman. The friends of the latter, however, having intimated to the earl of Hume, that his credit at the court of Rome could eaſily procure the rich abbey of Coldingham for his younger brother, the earl put himſelf at the head of his followers, and, notwithſtanding all the oppoſition given by the Hepburns, he proclaimed the pope's bull over the croſs of Edinburgh. This daring action plainly proved that the earl of Hume had more power than the queen-regent herſelf; but Hepburn's reſolution, and the greatneſs of his friends, obliged Forman to to agree to a compromiſe. Hepburn was advanced to the ſee of Moray, without accounting for the revenues of the archbiſhopric, which he had received during its vacancy; and he gave Forman a preſent of three thouſand crowns, to be divided among his friends and followers.

375 The queen dowager married to the earl of Angus.

In April 1514, the poſthumous ſon of whom the queen had been delivered in Stirling caſtle, was by the biſhop of Caithneſs baptized Alexander. On the 6th of Auguſt this year ſhe was married to the earl of Angus; than which nothing could be accounted more impolitic. She had neither conſulted her brother nor the ſtates of Scotland in the match; and by her having accepted of a huſband, ſhe in fact reſigned all claim to the regency under the late king's will. The Douglaſſes did not diſpute her having diveſted herſelf of the regency: but they affirmed, that the ſtates might lawfully reinſtate her in it; and that the peace of the kingdom required it, as it was the only meaſure that could preſerve the happy tranquillity which then ſubſiſted between Scotland and England. The earl of Hume put himſelf at the head of the oppoſition to this propoſal. He knew that he had enemies, and he dreaded that the farther aggrandizement of Angus muſt weaken his intereſt on the borders. He was joined by a number of the young nobility, who, tho' otherwiſe divided, united againſt Angus. In ſhort, the general opinion was, that the Douglaſſes were already too great; and that, ſhould the queen be reinſtated in the regency, they muſt be abſolute within the kingdom, and engroſs all places of power and profit. It was added by the earl of Hume, that he had, out of reſpect to the late king's memory, ſubmitted to the queen's government; and that, now ſhe had made a voluntary abdication of it by her marriage, it ought not to be renewed.

375 The duke of Albany choſen regent.

After ſome deliberations, the duke of Albany was choſen regent. He was a man poſſeſſed of all the qualities requiſite for a good governor; nor did he deceive the expectations of the public. On his arrival at Glaſgow, he took upon him the titles of earl of March, Marr, Garioch, lord of Annandale, and of the iſle of Man, regent and protector of the kingdom of Scotland. On his arrival at Edinburgh he was received in form by the three eſtates of the kingdom, and the queen had meſſhim at ſome diſtance from the town. The parliament then reſumed its ſeſſion, and the three eſtates took an oath of obedience, till the king, then an infant of four years old, ſhould arrive at the years of maturity.

The firſt thing at which the regent aimed, was the con-

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conciliating the differences amongst the various contending families in the kingdom; at the same time that he suppressed some daring robbers, one of whom is said to have had no fewer than 800 attendants in his infamous profession. So great was his love of good order and decency, that he punished the lord Drummond with the loss of his estate for having struck Lyon king at arms, whose person, as the first herald in Scotland, ought to have been held sacred. Nay, it was at the earnest solicitation of Lyon himself, and many of the chief nobility, that a greater punishment was not inflicted. However, the forfeiture was afterwards remitted; but not before Drummond had, upon his knees, acknowledged his offence, and submitted himself before Lyon.

377 Hepburns becomes his chief favourite.

The regent had not been long in office before he took into favour Hepburn the prior of St Andrew's, whom he consulted for information concerning the state of Scotland. Hepburn acquainted him with all the feuds and animosities which raged among the great families of Scotland, their ferocious character, and barbarous behaviour to their enemies. He represented the civil power as too weak to curb these potent chieftains; and gave it as his opinion that the regent's administration ought to be supported by foreign arms, meaning those of France.

378 He attempts to destroy the earl of Hume.

Hepburn is said also to have gained an ascendency over the regent by means of large sums of money laid out among his domestics, by a fawning and plausible address, and by well-directed flatteries; and he employed this ascendency to destroy those who were obnoxious to himself. The earl of Hume, as being the first subject in rank and authority, became obnoxious to the regent, through the insinuations of Hepburn; and as that nobleman had frequent occasion to be at court in virtue of his office of chamberlain, he soon perceived that neither he nor his friends were welcome guests there. Alarmed for his own safety, he resolved to form a party alongst with the queen-mother and her new husband against the regent. This was by no means a difficult task; for the queen naturally imagined that her new husband ought to have had some share in the government; and the earl of Angus readily concurred in the scheme. In the mean time, the regent was making a progress through Scotland, where bloody feuds were raging among the nobles: but before any remedy could be applied to these disorders, he was informed of the schemes laid by the queen-mother and her party; and that she had resolved to fly into England with her two infants. On this he instantly returned to Edinburgh; and, as no time was to be lost, set out at midnight that very night, and surprised the castle of Stirling, where he found the queen-mother and her two infants.

The regent, after this bold step, took care to show that the care of the royal infants was his chief study. As he himself was nearly allied to the crown, in order to remove all suspicions and calumnies on that account, he committed the care of the king and his brother to three noblemen of the most unexceptionable characters in the kingdom, but of whom we now know the name only of one, viz. the earl of Lenox. They were appointed to attend the princes by turns; to whom also a guard, consisting partly of French and partly of Scots, was assigned; and the queen-mother was left at liberty to reside where she pleased.

379 Who is driven into England.

The earl of Hume, finding his schemes thus abortive, retired to his own estate; from whence he was soon after drawn, and obliged to fly into England, by the earls of Arran and Lenox. The queen-mother retired to a monastery at Coldstream; and messengers were dispatched to the court of England, to know how Henry would have his sister disposed of. He ordered the lord Dacres, his warden of the marches, to attend her to Harbottle-castle in Northumberland; and here she was delivered of her daughter the Lady Mary Douglas, mother to Henry lord Darnley, father to James I. of England. The regent dispatched ambassadors to Henry, in order to vindicate his own conduct. He likewise sent to assure the queen that she had nothing to fear in Scotland; and to invite her to return thither, where she should at all times be admitted to see her children. This offer, however, she declined; and set out for London, where she was affectionately received and entertained by her brother. But in the mean time many disorders were committed throughout the kingdom by the party of the queen-mother; tho', by the interposition of archbishop Forman, they were at present terminated without bloodshed, and some of the principal offenders were persuaded to return to their duty. Among these was the earl of Angus himself, the queen's husband; which when king Henry heard, he exclaimed, "That the earl, by deserting his wife, had acted *like a Scot*." Lord Hume refused to surrender himself, or to accept of the regent's terms; and was of consequence declared a traitor, and his estate confiscated. All this time he had been infesting the borders at the head of a lawless banditti; and now he began to commit such devastations, that the regent found it necessary to march against him at the head of 1000 disciplined troops. Hume being obliged to lay down his arms, was sent prisoner to Edinburgh castle; where the regent very unaccountably committed him to the charge of his brother-in-law the earl of Arran. Hume easily found means to gain over this near relation to his own party; and both of them, in the month of October 1515, escaped to the borders, where they soon renewed hostilities. Both the earls were now proclaimed traitors, but Hume was allowed fifteen days to surrender himself. This short interval the regent employed in quashing the rebellion, for which purpose the parliament had allowed him 15,000 men. He besieged the castle of Hamilton, the earl of Arran's chief seat, which was in no condition of defence: but he was prevailed upon by Arran's mother, daughter to James II. and aunt to the regent himself, to forbear further hostilities, and even to pardon her son, provided he should return to his duty. Arran accordingly submitted; but the public tranquillity was not by that means restored. An association, at the head of which was the earl of Moray, the king's natural brother, had been formed against the earl of Huntley. That nobleman was too well attended to fear any danger by day; but his enemies found means to introduce some armed troops in the night-time into Edinburgh. On this a fierce skirmish ensued, in which some were killed on both sides; but farther bloodshed was prevented by the regent, who confined all the lords in prison till he had brought about a general

380 The queen goes to England.

381 Her husband submits to the regent.

382 Rebellion and commotions in different places.

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neral reconciliation. One Hay, who had been very active in ſtirring up the quarrels, was baniſhed to France; and only the earl of Hume now continued in arms.

In 1516 died the young duke of Rotheſay: an event which brought the regent one degree nearer the crown, ſo that he was declared heir in caſe of the demiſe of young James. Negociations were then entered into about prolonging the truce which at that time ſubſiſted with England; but Henry inſiſting upon a removal of the regent from his place, they were for the preſent dropped. Finding, however, that he could neither prevail on the parliament as a body to diſmiſs the regent, nor form a party of any conſequence againſt him, he at laſt conſented to a prolongation of the truce for a year.

383 The earl of Hume put to death.

In 1517, the affairs of the regent requiring his preſence in France, he reſolved, before his departure, to remove the earl of Hume, who, as we have ſeen, alone continued to diſturb the public tranquillity. Under pretence of ſettling ſome differences which ſtill remained with England, he called a convention the nobility; and ſent ſpecial letters to the earl of Hume and his brother to attend, on account of their great knowledge in Engliſh affairs. Both of them imprudently obeyed the ſummons, and were ſeized and executed as ſoon as they arrived at Edinburgh. But whatever occaſion there might be for this ſeverity, it loſt the affections of the people to ſuch a degree, that the regent could ſcarce get the place filled up which lord Hume had poſſeſſed. That of lord warden of the marches he at laſt gave to his French favourite La Beante, called by hiſtorians Sir Anthony D' Arcy. The poſt of lord chamberlain was given to lord Fleming. Soon after this the regent levied an army, on pretence of repreſſing ſome diſturbances on the borders. Theſe being ſpeedily quelled, he ſeized on his return upon the earl of Lenox, and forced him to deliver up his caſtle of Dumbarton; not choofing to leave it, during his intended abſence in France, in the cuſtody of a nobleman of ſuſpected fidelity; and from ſimilar motives he afterwards took him along with him on his departure for the continent. He then procured himſelf to be nominated ambaſſador to France, in which character he left the kingdom; having committed the government to the archbiſhops of St Andrew's and Glaſgow, the earls of Arran, Angus, Huntley, and Argyle, with the warden D' Arcy, on whom was his chief dependence.

384 The regent goes to France, and the queen returns to Scotland.

On the departure of the regent, the queen-mother left the Engliſh court; and arrived with a noble retinue at Berwick, on purpoſe to viſit her ſon. Here ſhe was received by her huſband; for whom ſhe had contracted an invincible averſion, either on account of his infidelities to her bed, or becauſe he had deſerted her in the manner already related. However, ſhe ſuppreſſed her reſentment for the preſent, and accompanied him to Edinburgh. Here, in conſequence of the propoſals made by the regent, ſhe demanded acceſs to her ſon; but was refuſed by D' Arcy. Lord Erſkine, however, who was one of thoſe to whom the care of the young king was committed, conveyed him to the caſtle of Craigmillar, (where D' Arcy had no juriſdiction,) on pretence that the plague was in Edinburgh; and there the queen was admitted: but this gave ſuch offence to D' Arcy, that Lord Erſkine was obliged to carry back the king to the caſtle of Edinburgh, where all further acceſs was denied to his mother. In ſhort, the behaviour of this favourite was on all occaſions ſo haughty and violent, that he rendered himſelf univerſally odious; and was at laſt murdered, with all his attendants, in his way to Dunſe, where he propoſed to hold a court of juſtice.—His death was very little regretted; yet his murderers were proſecuted with the utmoſt ſeverity, and ſeveral perſons of diſtinction declared rebels on that account.

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Mean while the regent was treated with high marks of diſtinction in France. The king ſhowed him the greateſt reſpect, promiſed to aſſiſt in eſtabliſhing his authority in Scotland, and ſolemnly confirmed the ancient league between the two kingdoms. Soon after, the earl of Lenox arrived from France, with aſſurances of protection and aſſiſtance from the king, who was highly pleaſed at the zeal of the governors in puniſhing D' Arcy's murderers; and 500 ſoldiers arrived with him to reinforce the garriſons, eſpecially that of Dunbar.

385 The queen attempts to divorce her huſband.

All this time the queen-mother continued at Edinburgh, employing herſelf in attempts to procure a divorce from her huſband, under pretence of his having been previouſly contracted to another. The affairs of the kingdom again began to fall into confuſion, and many murders and commotions happened in different parts of the country. The earl of Arran had the chief direction in the ſtate; but the earl of Angus, notwithſtanding the difference with his wife, had ſtill great intereſt, and waited every opportunity to oppoſe him. This emulation produced an encounter at Edinburgh; in which victory declared for Angus, and 72 of the routed party were killed. This ſkirmiſh was fought on the 30th of April 1519, and has been known in Scots hiſtory by the name of *Cleanſe the Cauſeway*.

386 Skirmiſh between the followers of the earl of Arran and Angus.

On the 19th of November 1521 the regent returned from France. He found the kingdom in great diſorder. The earl of Angus domineered in the field, but his antagoniſts outvoted his party in the parliament. The queen-mother, who had fixed her affections on a third huſband, hated all parties almoſt equally; but joined the duke of Albany, in hopes of his depriving the other two of their power. This happened according to her expectation; and ſhe was with the regent when he made a kind of triumphal entry into Edinburgh, attended by a number of perſons of the firſt rank.—The earl of Angus was now ſummoned to appear as a criminal; but his wife interceded for him, not out of any remains of affection, but becauſe he gave her no oppoſition in the proceſs of divorce which was depending between them.—In the mean time, Henry VIII. of England, perceiving that the Scots were entirely devoted to the French intereſt, ſent a letter full of accuſations againſt the regent, and threats againſt the whole nation if they did not renounce that alliance. No regard being paid to theſe requiſitions, lord Dacres was ordered to proclaim upon the borders, that the Scots muſt ſtand to their peril if they did not fall in with his meaſures by the firſt of March 1522. This producing no effect, Henry ſeized the effects of all the Scots reſiding in England, and baniſhed them his dominions, after marking them, according to biſhop Leſley, with a croſs, to diſtinguiſh them from his

387 War with England.

Scotland.

his other subjects. A war was the unavoidable consequence of these proceedings; and, on the 30th of April, the earl of Shrewsbury, Henry's steward of the houshold, and knight of the garter, was appointed commander in chief of the army that was to act against the Scots; and in the mean time lord Dacres made an inroad as far as Kelso, plundering and burning wherever he came.

388 The Scots refuse to invade England.

The regent ordered his army to rendezvous at Roslin; but the Scots, remembering the disaster at Flodden, showed an extreme aversion to the war, and even told the regent to his face, that though they would defend themselves in case they were attacked, they would not engage in a French quarrel. The regent remonstrated, but without effect; and as the malcontents continued obstinate, he was in danger of being left by himself, when the queen-mother interposed, and prevailed upon lord Dacres to agree to a conference, the event of which was a renewal of the negociations for peace.

389 The regent goes to France for assistance.

The regent, perceiving, by the disgrace of this expedition, that he had lost his former popularity, determined to revenge himself; and therefore told those whom he could trust, that he was about to return to France, from whence he should bring such a force by sea and land, as should render it unnecessary for him to ask leave of the Scots any more to invade England. Accordingly he embarked for France on the 25th of October, but publicly gave out that he would return the ensuing August.

On the regent's arrival in France, he made a demand of 10,000 foot and 5000 horse for carrying on the war against England; but the situation of king Francis did not then allow him to spare so many at once, though he was daily sending over ships with men, ammunition, and money, for the French garrisons in Scotland. At last it was publicly known in England, that the regent was about to return with a strong fleet, and 4000 of the best troops in France; upon which Henry determined, if possible, to intercept him. Sir William Fitz-Williams, with 36 large ships, was ordered to block up the French squadron in the harbour of Finhead; Sir Anthony Poyntz cruized with another in the western seas, as Sir Christopher Dow and Sir Henry Shireburn did in the northern with a third squadron. The duke of Albany, being unable to cope with Fitz-Williams, was obliged to set out from another port with twelve ships, having some troops on board. They fell in with Fitz-Williams's squadron; two of their ships were sunk, and the rest driven back to Dieppe. Fitz-Williams then made a descent at Treport, where he burnt 18 French ships, and returned to his station off Finhead. By this time the French had given the duke such a reinforcement as made him an overmatch for the English admiral, had the men been equally good; but the regent had no dependence upon French sailors when put in competition with the English. Instead of coming to an engagement, therefore, as soon as Fitz-Williams appeared, he disembarked his soldiers, as if he had intended to delay his expedition for that year; but a storm soon arising, which obliged the English fleet to return to the Downs, the regent took that opportunity of reimbarking his men, and, sailing by the western coasts, arrived safe in Scotland.

390 The English resolve to intercept him.

391 He outwits them; and lands in Scotland.

All this time the earl of Surry had been carrying on the most cruel and destructive war against Scotland; insomuch that, according to cardinal Wolsey, "there was left neither house, fortress, village, tree, cattle, corn, nor other succour for man," in the countries of Tweedale and March. The regent's return did not immediately put a stop to these devastations; for the intestine divisions in Scotland prevented him from taking the field. His party was weakened by his long absence, and the queen-mother had been very active in strengthening the English interest. A parliament was called in 1523, where it was debated whether peace or war with England should be resolved on; and the determinations of this parliament were evidently on the worst side of the question. Henry was at this time so well disposed to cultivate a friendship with Scotland, that he offered to James his eldest sister Mary in marriage; but the Scots, animated by the appearance of their French auxiliaries, and corrupted by their gold, rejected all terms, and resolved upon war. However, when the army was assembled, and had advanced to the borders, he found the same difficulty he had formerly experienced; for they flatly refused to enter England. With great difficulty he prevailed upon part of the army to pass the Tweed; but not meeting with success, he was obliged to return to Scotland, which at this time was divided into four factions. One of these were headed by the regent, another by the queen, a third by the earl of Arran, and a fourth by the earl of Angus, who had lived as an exile under Henry's protection. Had it been possible for the earl of Angus and his wife to have been reconciled to each other, it would have been much for the interest of the kingdom; but all the art even of cardinal Wolsey could not effect this. At last, the duke of Albany, finding all parties united against him, resigned his office of regent of Scotland. On the 14th of May that year, he went on board one of his own ships for France, from whence he never returned to Scotland. He did not indeed make a formal abdication of his government. So far from that, he requested the nobility, whom he convened for that purpose, to enter into no alliance with England during his absence, which he said would continue no longer than the first of September following; to make no alteration in the government; and to keep the king at Stirling.

392 Cruel devastations of the English.

393 Henry offers peace, which is rejected.

394 The duke of Albany resigns his office of regent.

The nobility, who were impatient for the absence of the regent, readily promised whatever he required, but without any intention of performing it: nor indeed was it in their power to comply; for it had been previously determined that James himself should now take the administration into his own hands. According to Buchanan, the regent had no sooner returned to France than Scotland relapsed into all the miseries of anarchy. The queen-dowager had the management of public affairs, but her power was limited. The earl of Arran, apprehending danger from the English, entered into the views of the French party. The queen-mother's dislike to her husband continued as great as ever, which prevented an union among those who were in the English interest; and Wolsey took that opportunity of restoring the earl of Angus to all his importance in Scotland. The queen mother, therefore, had no other way left to keep herself in power, but to bring James himself into action. On the

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the 29th of July, therefore, he removed from Stirling to the abbey of Holyrood-house; where he took upon himself the exercise of government, by convoking the nobility, and obliging them to swear allegiance to his person a second time. The truce with England was now prolonged, and the queen's party carried all before them. On the very day on which the last truce was signed with England, the earl of Angus entered Scotland. He had been invited from his exile in France into England, where he was caressed by Henry, who disregarded all his sister's intreaties to send him back to France, and now resolved to support him in Scotland. Yet, though his declared intention in sending the earl to Scotland was, that the latter might balance the French party there, the king enjoined him to sue, in the most humble manner, for a reconciliation with his wife, and to co-operate with the earl of Arran, who now acted as prime minister, as long as he should oppose the French party. On his return, however, he found himself excluded from all share in the government, but soon found means to form a strong party in opposition to Arran. In the mean time ambassadors were sent to the court of England, in order to treat of a perpetual peace between the two nations. At the same time a match was proposed between the young king of Scotland and Henry's daughter. This had originally been a scheme of Henry himself; but the emperor Charles V. had resolved to outbid him, by offering James a princess of his own family, with an immense treasure. The ambassadors arrived at London on the 19th of December, and found Henry very much disposed both to the peace and to the match. Commissioners were appointed to treat of both; but they were instructed to demand by way of preliminary, that the Scots should absolutely renounce their league with France, and that James should be sent for education to England till he should be of a proper age for marriage. The Scottish commissioners declared, that they had no instructions on these points: but one of them, the earl of Cassils, offered to return to Scotland, and bring a definitive answer from the three states; and in the mean time the truce was prolonged to the 15th of May 1525. On his arrival at Edinburgh, he found the earl of Angus the leading man in parliament; by whose influence it was determined that the Scots should renounce their league with France, and substitute in place of it a similar league with England; and that the king should be brought up at the English court till he was of an age proper for marriage: but at the same time they required of Henry to break off all engagements with Charles V. who was the bitter enemy of Francis, and at that time detained him prisoner. To this the English monarch returned but a cold answer, being then engaged in a number of treaties with the emperor, among which one was concerning the marriage of the princess Mary with his imperial majesty himself; however, before Cassils returned, a truce of two years and a half was concluded between England and Scotland.

395 James takes upon himself the government.

396 The earl of Angus returns to Scotland.

397 Negociations for peace with England.

398 The earl of Angus comes into power.

399 Is opposed by the queen-mother.

But now the queen-mother, though she had always been a warm advocate for an alliance between the two nations, yet disliked the means of bringing it about. She saw her husband's party increasing every day in power; so that now she had no other resource than in keeping possession of the king's person, whom she removed to the castle of Edinburgh. Being now under the necessity of convening a parliament, it was resolved to hold it within the castle; which, being an unconstitutional measure, gave a great handle to the earl of Arran and his party to complain of the innovation. They began with remonstrances; but finding them ineffectual, they formed a blockade of the castle with 2000 men, and cut off all communication with the town by means of trenches. As no provisions could thus be got into the castle, the queen ordered some of the cannon to be turned against the town, in order to force the citizens to break the blockade. Several shot were fired: but when all things appeared ready for a civil war, matters were compromised, though in such an imperfect manner as left very little room to hope for perfect tranquillity. It was agreed, that the king should remove out of the castle of Edinburgh to the palace of Holyroodhouse; from whence he should repair with all possible magnificence to his parliament, in the house where it was commonly held; and there a finishing hand was to be put to all differences. This agreement was signed on the 25th of February 1526. The parliament accordingly met, and the king's marriage with the princess of England was confirmed: but no mention was made of the king's being sent for his education into that country; on the contrary, he was committed to the care of eight lords of parliament. These were to have the custody of the king's person, every one his month successively, and the whole to stand for the government of the state; yet with this limitation, "that the king, by their council, should not ordain or determine any thing in great affairs to which the queen, as princess and dowager, did not give her consent." This partition of power, by giving the queen a negative in all public matters, soon threw every thing into confusion. The earl of Angus, by leading the king into various scenes of pleasure and dissipation, so gained the ascendency over him, that he became in a manner totally guided by him. The queen-mother, perceiving that she could not have access to her son, without at the same time being in company with her husband, whom she hated, retired suddenly with her domestics to Stirling. Thus the king was left under the sole tuition of the earl of Angus, who made a very bad use of his power; engrossing into his own hands, or those of his friends, all the places of honour or profit. The archbishop of St Andrew's having now joined the queen's party, advised her to make a formal demand upon her husband, that the order of government which had been settled last parliament should take place, and that under a penalty he should set the king at liberty. To this the earl answered by a kind of manifesto drawn up by his brother; in which he declared, that "the earl of Angus having been so highly favoured by his good uncle the king of England, and that James himself being under great obligations to him, that neither the queen nor the other lords need be in any pain about him, as he chose to spend his time with the earl of Angus rather than with any lord in the kingdom." James himself, however, had discernment sufficient to perceive, that, notwithstanding all the fair pretences of the earl of Angus, he was in fact no better than his prisoner; and resolved to attempt the recovery of his liberty.

400 Who is besieged in Edinburgh castle.

401 Marriage of James with an English princess resolved on.

402 He is left in the hands of the earl of Angus.

403 Attempts to recover his liberty.

The

Scotland. The earls of Argyle and Arran had for some time retired from court, where they had no share in the administration, and were living on their own estates; but the earl of Lenox dissembled his sentiments so well, that he was neither suspected by the earl of Angus, nor any of the Douglas family, who were his partisans. The king being gained upon by his insinuating behaviour, opened his mind to him, and requested his assistance against his treacherous keepers. At the same time he sent letters to his mother, and the heads of her party, by some of his domestics whom Lenox had pointed out, intreating them to remove him from the earl, and not suffer him any longer to remain under his imperious jurisdiction; adding, that if this could not be done by any other means, they should use force of arms.

On receiving this letter, the queen and her party assembled their forces at Stirling, and without loss of time began their march for Edinburgh. Angus, on the other hand, prepared to give them a warm reception, but at the same time to carry along with him the king. This resolution being made known to the queen-mother, she was so much concerned for the safety of her son, that the whole party disbanded themselves; and thus the authority of the earl of Angus seemed to be more established than ever. Nothing indeed was now wanting to render him despotic but the possession of the great seal, which the archbishop of St Andrew's had carried with him to Dunfermline. As no deed of any consequence could be executed without this, he prevailed upon the king to demand it by a special message; in consequence of which, the archbishop was obliged to give it up. About this time the divorce which had been so long in agitation between the queen-mother and the earl of Angus, actually took place; which, no doubt, increased the dislike of James to his confinement, while the imprudence of Angus gave every day fresh matter of disgust. As Angus knew that he had no firm support but in the attachment of his followers to his person, he suffered them to rob and plunder the estates of his opponents without mercy. These, again, did not fail to make reprisals; so that, towards the end of the year 1526, there was scarce any appearance of civil government in Scotland. Thus the court became almost totally deserted; every nobleman being obliged to go home to defend his own estate. Even Angus himself shared in the common calamity, and hence was frequently obliged to leave the king to the custody of Lenox. To this nobleman the king now made the most grievous complaints, and charged him to contrive some plan for his escape. Lenox accordingly recommended to him the baron of Buccleugh, who was very powerful in the southern parts, and a violent enemy to Angus and the whole family of Douglas. To him he gave orders to foment the disorders in the southern parts to such a degree as to require the king's personal presence to compose them. Buccleugh was then to attack the party, and take the king by force from the Douglasses. This scheme was put in execution, but Buccleugh had the misfortune to be defeated; so that the attempt proved abortive, and James found himself in a worse situation than ever. After this attempt, however, as the earl of Angus could not but know that Lenox had been accessory to it, the former behaved towards him with such visible indifference, that Lenox openly declared against him, and advised the king to make up friendship with the archbishop of St Andrew's in order to effect his liberty. This was accordingly done; but the interest of the archbishop and Lenox was overbalanced by that of Arran and the Hamilton family, whom the earl of Angus now drew over to his party. However, the earl of Lenox, having received powers from the king for that purpose, suddenly retired from court; and published a manifesto, inviting all loyal subjects to assist him in delivering the king from confinement. In consequence of this he was soon joined by a numerous army, with whom he advanced towards Edinburgh. Angus did not fail to assemble his adherents; and sent orders to the inhabitants of Edinburgh to take the field, with the king at their head. The citizens immediately got themselves under arms; but James pretending to be indisposed, Sir George Douglas, brother to the earl of Angus, made him the following speech: "Sir, rather than our enemies should take you from us, we will lay hold of your person; and should you be torn in pieces in the struggle, we will carry off part of your body." Upon this speech, which James never forgot, he mounted his horse and set forward to Linlithgow, but with a very slow pace; insomuch that Sir George Douglas, afraid of not coming in time to succour his brother, made use of many indecent expressions and actions to push James on to the field of battle. Three expresses arrived from the earl of Angus; the first informing his brother that he was about to engage with a superior army; the second, that Angus was engaged with a division of Lenox's army, commanded by the earl of Glencairn; and that Lenox himself was engaged with the Hamiltons. The third informed him that Lenox, if not actually defeated, was on the point of being so. Upon receiving this last news, James hastened to the field of battle, that he might save Lenox, and put an end to the bloodshed. But he came too late: for the royal party was already defeated with great slaughter; and Lenox himself, after being wounded and taken prisoner, was murdered by Sir James Hamilton.

404 Is indisposed.

405 The queen-mother divorces her husband.

406 The baron of Buccleugh attempts to rescue the king, but is defeated.

407 Another attempt by Lenox.

408 Who is defeated and killed.

On the night of the battle, the king was removed to Linlithgow; and though he was under the greatest grief for the fate of Lenox, the behaviour of the Douglasses struck him with such terror that he dissembled his sentiments. The earl of Angus led his victorious troops into Fife, in hopes of surprising the queen and the archbishop of St Andrew's. The queen, on the news of his approach, fled, with her new husband Henry Stuart brother to lord Evandale, to Edinburgh, where they were admitted into the castle. The archbishop fled to the mountains, where he was obliged to keep cattle as a shepherd. Angus, after having plundered the castle of St Andrews and the abbey of Dunfermline, returned in triumph to Edinburgh, where he prepared to besiege the castle; but the queen, hearing that her son was among the number of the besiegers, ordered the gates of the castle to be thrown open, and surrendered herself and her husband prisoners to James, who was advised to confine them to the castle.—After these repeated successes, the earl of Angus established a kind of court of justice, in which he prosecuted those who had opposed him, among whom was the earl of Cassils. He was offered by Sir

409 The queen-mother and archbishop obliged to fly.

Scotland.

410 Trial and murder of the earl of Cassils.

James Hamilton, natural son to the earl of Arran, the same who had murdered Lenox, an indemnity if he would own himself a vassal of that house; but this condition was rejected. Being called to his trial, and accused of having taken arms against the king, a gentleman of his name and family, who was his advocate, denied the charge, and offered to produce a letter under James's own hand, desiring him to assist in delivering him from his gaolers. This striking evidence confounded the prosecutor so much, that the earl was acquitted; but on his return home he was way-laid and murdered by one Hugh Campbell, at the instigation of Sir James Hamilton.

During these transactions in the south, many of the Highland clans were perpetrating the most horrid scenes of rapine and murder, which in some places reigned also in the Lowlands. The state of the borders was little better than that of the Highlands; but it engaged the attention of Angus more, as he had great interest in these parts. Marching, therefore, against the banditti which infested these parts, he soon reduced them to reason. His power seemed now to be firmly established, insomuch that the archbishop of St Andrew's began to treat with Sir George Douglas, to whom he offered lucrative leases and other emoluments if he would intercede with the regent, as Angus was called, in his favour. This was readily agreed to; and the archbishop was allowed to return in safety to his palace about the same time that Angus returned from his expedition against the borderers. Nothing was then seen at court but festivities of every kind, in which the queen-mother, who was now relieved from her confinement, partook: and she was afterwards suffered to depart to the castle of Stirling; which Angus, not attending to its value, had neglected to secure. In the mean time the archbishop invited the Douglasses to spend some days with him at his castle; which they accordingly did, and carried the king along with them. Here James dissembled so well, and seemed to be so enamoured of his new way of life, that Angus thought there could be no danger in leaving him in the hands of his friends till he should return to Lothian to settle some public as well as private affairs. Having taken leave of the king, he left him in the custody of his uncle Archibald, his brother Sir George, and one James Douglas of Parkhead, who was captain of the guards that watched his majesty on pretence of doing him honour. The earl was no sooner gone than the archbishop sent an invitation to Sir George Douglas, desiring him to come to St Andrew's, and there put the last hand to the leases, and finish the bargains that had been spoken of between them. This was so plausible, that he immediately set out for St Andrew's; while his uncle the treasurer went to Dundee, where he had an amour. James thinking this to be the best opportunity that ever presented to him for an escape, resolved to avail himself of it at all events; and found means, by a private message, to apprize his mother of his design. It was then the season for hunting and diversion, which James often followed in the park of Falkland; and calling for his forrester, he told him, that as the weather was fine, he intended to kill a stag next morning, ordering him at the same time to summon all the gentlemen in the neighbourhood to attend him with their best dogs. He then called for his chief domestics, and commanded them to get his supper early, because he intended to be in the field by day-break; and he talked with the captain of his guard of nothing but the excellent sport he expected to have next morning. In the mean time, he had engaged two young men, the one a page of his own, the other John Hart, a helper about his stables, to attend him in his flight, and to provide him with the dress of a groom for a disguise. Having formally taken leave of his attendants, charging them to be ready early in the morning, and being left alone, he stole softly out of his bed-chamber, went to the stable unperceived by the guards, dressed himself in his disguise; and he and his companions mounting the three best horses there, galloped to Stirling-castle; into which, by the queen's appointment, he was admitted soon after day-break. He commanded all the gates to be secured; and the queen having previously prepared every thing for a vigorous defence, orders were given that none should be admitted into the castle without the king's permission.

411 James escapes from his confinement.

About an hour after the king escaped from Falkland, Sir George Douglas returned; and being assured that his Majesty was asleep, he went to bed. It appears, that James had been seen and known in his flight; for in the morning the bailiff of Abernethy came post-haste to inform Sir George that the king had passed Stirling bridge. They had, however, some glimmering hope that the king might be gone to Bambrigh: but that surmise was soon found to be false; and an express was dispatched, informing Angus of all that had happened. The earl quickly repaired to Falkland, where he and his friends came to a resolution of going to Stirling, and demanding access to the king.

412 He prepares to revenge himself.

James by this time had issued letters to the earls of Huntley, Argyle, Athol, Glencairn, Menteith, Rothes, and Eglinton; the lords Graham, Levingston, Lindsay Sinclair, Ruthven, Drummond, Evandale, Maxwell, and Semple. Before all of them could arrive at Stirling, the earl of Angus and his friends were upon their journey to the same place; but were stopped by a herald at arms, commanding them on their allegiance not to approach within six miles of the king's residence. This order having sufficiently intimated what they were to expect, the earl deliberated with his party how to proceed. Some of them were for marching on and taking the castle by surprise; but that was found to be impracticable, especially as they had no artillery. The earl and his brother therefore resolved to make a shew of submission to the king's order; and they accordingly went to Linlithgow. By this time all the nobility already mentioned, and many others, had assembled at Stirling; and James, calling them to council, inveighed against the tyranny of the Douglasses with an acrimony that sufficiently discovered what pain it must have given him when he was obliged to bear it in silence. He concluded his speech with these words: "Therefore I desire, my lords, that I may be satisfied of the said earl, his kin, and friends. For I vow that Scotland shall not hold us both, while I be revenged on him and his."

The result of the council's deliberation was, that pro-

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proclamation ſhould be made, renewing the order for the Douglaſſes not to approach the court, and diveſting the earl of Angus and his brother of all their public employments. In the mean time, ſuch was the moderation of the aſſembly, that by their advice James ordered the earl to retire to the north of the Spey till his pleaſure ſhould be known; but his brother was commanded to ſurrender himſelf a priſoner in the caſtle of Edinburgh, to take his trial in a very full parliament, (all the members being ſummoned to attend), to be held in that city next September. The earl and his brother conſidered their compliance with thoſe conditions as a prelude to their deſtruction; and reſolved to juſtify their treaſons by ſtill greater exceſſes, in ſurpriſing the town of Edinburgh, and holding it againſt the king and parliament, before the latter could aſſemble. Hiſtorians have not done that juſtice to the proceedings of the royal party on this occaſion which they deſerve. The management of the king's eſcape, his reception into Stirling, the fortifying that caſtle, and the ready obedience of his great nobility, ſome of whom attended him with their followers before they received any ſummonſes for that purpoſe, are proofs of wiſe and ſpirited deliberations. Their conduct at this time, was equally conſiſtent with the ſame plan of foreſight.

413 His enemies diſappointed in their deſigns.

It was naturally to be ſuppoſed that the Douglaſſes, who remained aſſembled in a numerous body, would make the attempt already mentioned; but the royaliſts had the precaution to diſpatch the lord Maxwell and the baron of Lochinvar, with a body of troops, to take poſſeſſion of the town, till James could arrive with 2000 forces to their relief. Maxwell and Lochinvar made ſuch diſpatch, that they were in poſſeſſion of the town when the Douglaſſes appeared before it, and repulſed them; while a moſt terrible ſtorm had ſcattered the troops under James before he could come to their aſſiſtance, ſo effectually, that, being left almoſt without attendants, his perſon might have been taken by the ſmalleſt party of the enemy. Upon the retreat of the Douglaſſes from Edinburgh, the parliament met; and none of them appearing in purſuance of their ſummons, the earl of Angus, his brother Sir George Douglas, his uncle Archibald Douglas, and Alexander Drummond of Carnock, with ſome of their chief dependents, were indicted and forfeited for the following offences: "The aſſembling of the king's lieges, with intention to have aſſailed his perſon; the detaining of the king againſt his will and pleaſure, and contrary to the articles agreed upon, for the ſpace of two years and more; all which time the king was in fear and danger of his life." We know of no advocate for the earl and his friends but one Banantyne, who had the courage to plead their cauſe againſt thoſe heinous charges; and ſo exaſperated were both the king and parliament againſt them, that the former ſwore he never would forgive them, and the latter that they never would intercede for their pardon. Thus it was not deemed ſufficient ſimply to declare their reſolutions; but the ſolemnity of oaths was added, with an intention to diſcourage the king of England from continuing the vigorous applications he was every day making, by letters and otherwiſe, for the pardon of Angus; and to ſhut out all hopes of that kind, James created his mother's third huſband (to whom ſhe had been married for ſome time) lord Methven, and gave him the direction of his artillery.

414 They are degraded and forfeited.

The diſgrace and forfeiture of the Douglaſſes having created many vacancies in the ſtate, Gavin Dunbar, archbiſhop of Glaſgow, and tutor to the king, was nominated lord chancellor, though but indifferently qualified for a poſt that ought to have been filled by an able ſtateſman; and Robert Carncroſs, a perſon (ſays Buchanan) more eminent for wealth than virtue, was made treaſurer: but this laſt was ſoon after diſplaced, being ſuſpected of favouring the Douglaſſes; and Robert Barton, one of the king's favourites, was appointed to ſucceed him. The Douglaſſes ſtill ſtill kept their arms; and being joined by a great number of outlaws and robbers in the ſouth, they ravaged all the lands of their enemies, carrying their devaſtations to the very gates of Edinburgh. A commiſſion of lieutenancy was offered to the earl of Bothwell to act againſt thoſe rebels: but he declining it, it was accepted by the earl of Argyle and lord Hume, who did great ſervice in protecting the country from the outlaws. Several villages, however, in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh were burnt; and all the proviſions the Douglaſſes could find were carried off to their caſtle of Tantallon, which now ſerved as their head-quarters, and was threatened with a ſiege.

415 They ravage the ſouthern parts.

It is remarkable, that the caſtle of Dunbar remained ſtill in the hands of the duke of Albany's garriſon, who recognized no maſter but him. The place was well ſtored with artillery of all kinds; and lying in the neighbourhood of Tantallon, it was eaſy to tranſport them to the ſiege: but James thought he had no right to make uſe of them without the conſent of one Maurice, governor of the caſtle. Having ſummoned, by proclamation, the inhabitants of Fife, Angus, Strathern, Stirlingſhire, Lothian, Merſe, and Teviotdale, to be ready to compear at Edinburgh on the 10th of December, with 40 days victuals, to aſſiſt in the ſiege, he ſent three noblemen to borrow artillery from Maurice, and to remain as pledges for the ſafe redelivery of the ſame; and the ſeveral pieces required were accordingly ſent him. This delicacy is the more remarkable, as we are told that the duke of Albany had given orders that every thing in his caſtle ſhould be at the king's ſervice. However unanimous the parliament might appear againſt the Douglaſſes, yet James was but ill ſeconded in this attempt. The unfortunate, if ſeverely proceeded againſt, generally find friends; and the enemies of the Douglaſſes had impolitically rendered it treaſonable for any perſon to ſhelter or protect the earl of Angus, his kinſmen, or followers. This proceeding, in a country where the Douglaſſes had ſo many connections, carried with it an appearance of cruelty and a thirſt of revenge, eſpecially as James had choſen ſuch a ſeaſon of the year for carrying on the ſiege. In ſhort, after battering the place for ſome days, and loſing one Falconer, his chief engineer, the king was obliged to abandon his enterpriſe, or rather to turn the ſiege into a blockade, with no great credit to his firſt eſſay in the field. Some hiſtorians intimate, that Angus found means to corrupt the other engineers: but we find, that before this time, a negociation was going forward between James and the king of England; the nature of which

416 James is diſappointed in his ſcheme of revenge.

proves

Scotland. proves that the former was now rendered more placable was towards the Douglasses, and was the true reason why the siege was suspended.

The truce between Scotland and England was now near expiring; and Henry, under colour of that, gave a commission to the prior of Durham, Thomas Magnus, Sir Anthony Ughtred captain of the town and castle of Berwick, William Frankelyn chancellor of Durham, and Sir Thomas Tempest. James seems to have been in no haste to enter upon this negociation, because he understood that the English commissioners were privately instructed to insist upon the Douglasses being restored to their estates and dignities. England was at that time the principal ally of Francis against the emperor; and this gave a handle for Francis to interpose so far in favour of the Douglasses, that he brought James to consent to a preliminary negociation for their obtaining at least a secure retreat in England. This was at last complied with.

417 The Douglasses obtain a secure retreat in England.

James being now delivered from all dread of the Douglasses, and under no controul from any party, shewed excellent dispositions for government. Finding that the borderers were by no means pleased with the late treaty, and that they were renewing their depredations, he resolved to strike at the root of an evil which had so long proved disgraceful and dangerous to his ancestors, by giving no quarter to the chiefs of these robbers, whose principal residence was in Liddesdale. This was the more necessary, as their daring attempts had exasperated the English so much, that they had actually burnt a town in Teviotdale; and they had killed one Robert Kerr, a man of some consequence. Two of the chiefs of the Scots borderers were Cockburn of Kenderlaw, and Adam Scot, commonly called king of the thieves. Both of them were barons; and had been so inured to the practice, that they thought there was no crime in robbing; they therefore appeared publicly in Edinburgh; where James ordered them to be apprehended, tried, and hanged. He next proceeded with great firmness against many noblemen and principal gentlemen, who were only suspected of being disaffected to the late peace. All of them had behaved with great loyalty, and some of them had done him the most important services. Of this number were the earl of Hume, the lord Maxwell, with the barons of Buccleugh, Farnihersf, Polwart, Johnston, and Mark Kerr. Though we know nothing particularly of what was laid to the charge of those noblemen and gentlemen, yet so zealous was James for the impartial administration of justice, that he ordered them all, with many other chief gentlemen of the borders, to be sent to prison; where they lay till they entered into recognizances themselves, and found bail for their good behaviour.

418 James reduces the borderers.

Of all the party of the Douglasses, none of any note, excepting Alexander Drummond of Carnock, was suffered to return home, at the earnest request of the ambassadors and the treasurer Barton. This lenity was of very little consequence; for James having appointed the earl of Murray to be sole warden of the Scotch marches, with power to treat with the earl of Northumberland, their conferences had broken off on account of fresh violences happening every day; and some information he had received from them, had prevailed with James to imprison the noblemen and gentlemen we have already mentioned. He now resolved to attempt in person what his predecessors and he had so often failed in by their deputies. As he was known to be violently addicted to hunting, he summoned his nobility, even by north the Forth, to attend him with their horses and dogs; which they did in such numbers, that his hunting retinue consisted of above 8000 persons, two-thirds of whom were well armed. This preparation gave no suspicion to the borderers, as great hunting-matches in those days commonly consisted of some thousands; and James having set out upon his diversion, is said to have killed 540 deer. Among the other gentlemen who had been summoned to attend him, was John Armstrong of Gilnockhall. He was the head of a numerous clan, who lived with great pomp and splendour upon the contributions under which they laid the English on the borders. He was himself always attended by twenty-six gentlemen on horseback, well mounted and armed, as his body-guards. Having received the king's invitation, he was fond of displaying his magnificence to his sovereign; and attiring himself and his guard more pompously than common, they presented themselves before James, from whom they expected some particular mark of distinction for their services against the English, and for the remarkable protection they had always given to their countrymen the Scots. On their first appearance, James, not knowing who he was, returned Armstrong's salute, imagining him to be some great nobleman; but upon hearing his name, he ordered him and his followers to be immediately apprehended, and sentenced them to be hanged upon the spot. It is said that James, turning to his attendants, asked them, pointing at Armstrong, "What does that knave want, that a king should have, but a crown and a sword of honour?" Armstrong begged hard for his life; and offered to serve the king in the field with forty horsemen, besides making him large presents of jewels and money, with many other tempting offers. Finding the king inexorable, "Fool that I am (said he) to look for warm water under ice, by asking grace of a graceless face;" and then he and his followers submitted to their fate. Those and some other executions of the same kind restored peace to the borders.

419 Hangs Armstrong, a noted robber, with 26 of his followers.

Hitherto we have considered only the civil transactions of Scotland; but now religion comes to be a principal affair in the history of the country. The opinions of Luther had been propagated in Britain soon after his preaching in 1517. They had for some years insensibly gained ground; and, at the time the contentions began between James and his nobility, were become formidable to the established religion. We have seen how James escaped from the hands of his nobles by means of the archbishop of St Andrew's. To the clergy, therefore, he was naturally favourable; and as they of necessity opposed the reformation, James became a zealous persecutor of the reformed. On the other hand, the nobility having already opposed the king and clergy in civil affairs, did so likewise in those of religion. The clergy finding themselves unequal in argument, had recourse to more violent methods. Rigorous inquisitions were made after heretics, and fires were every where prepared for them.

420 Account of the reformation.

421 Why James favoured the clergy.

The first person who was called upon to suffer for the reformed religion was Patrick Hamilton, abbot of Ferne.

422 Martyrdom of Patrick Hamilton.

Scotland. Ferne. At an early period of life he had been appointed to this abbacy; and having imbibed a favourable idea of the doctrines of Luther, he had travelled into Germany, where, becoming acquainted with the most eminent reformers, he was fully confirmed in their opinions. Upon his return to Scotland, he ventured to expose the corruptions of the church, and to insist on the advantages of the tenets which he had embraced. A conduct so bold, and the avidity with which his discourses were received by the people, gave an alarm to the clergy. Under the pretence of a religious and friendly conference, he was seduced to St Andrew's by Alexander Campbell, a dominican friar, who was instructed to remonstrate with him on the subject of the reformation. The conversations they held, only served to establish the abbot more firmly in his sentiments, and to inflame his zeal to propagate them. The archbishop of St Andrew's, the archbishop of Glasgow, and other dignitaries of the church, constituting a court, called him to appear before them.

The abbot neither lost his courage, nor renounced his opinions. He was convicted, accordingly, of heretical pravity, delivered over to the secular arm, and executed in the year 1527 (A). This reformer had not attained the 24th year of his age. His youth, his virtue, his magnanimity, and his sufferings, all operated in his favour with the people. To Alexander Campbell, who insulted him at the stake, he objected his treachery, and cited him to answer for his behaviour before the judgment-seat of Christ. And this persecutor, a few days after, being seized with a frenzy, and dying in that condition, it was believed with the greater sincerity and confidence, that Mr Hamilton was an innocent man and a true martyr.

423 Excites general indignation.

A deed so affecting, from its novelty and in its circumstances, excited throughout the kingdom an universal curiosity and indignation. Minute and particular inquiries were made into the tenets of Mr Hamilton. Converts to the new opinions were multiplying in every quarter, and a partiality to them began to prevail even among the Romish clergy themselves. Alexander Seton, the king's confessor, took the liberty to inveigh against the errors and abuses of Popery; to neglect, in his discourses, all mention of purgatory, and pilgrimages, and saints; and to recommend the doctrines of the reformed. What he taught was impugned; and his boldness rising with contradiction, he defended warmly his opinions, and even ventured to affirm, that in Scotland there were no true and faithful bishops, if a judgment of men in this station is to be formed from the virtues which St Paul has required of them. A sarcasm so just, and so daring, inflamed the whole body of the prelacy with resentment. They studied to compass his destruction; and, as Mr Seton had given offence to the king, whom he had exhorted to a greater purity of life, they flattered themselves with the hope of conducting him to the stake; but, being apprehensive of danger, he made his escape into England.

In 1533, Henry Forest, a Benedictine friar, who discovered a propensity to the reformed doctrines, was not so fortunate. After having been imprisoned for some time in the tower of St Andrews, he was brought to his trial, condemned, and led out to the flames. He had said, that Mr Hamilton was a pious man, and a martyr; and that the tenets for which he suffered might be vindicated. This guilt was aggravated by the discovery that friar Forest was in possession of a New Testament in the English language; for the priests esteemed a careful attention to the scriptures to be an infallible symptom of heresy. A cruelty so repugnant to the common sense and feelings of mankind, while it pleased the insolent pride of the ecclesiastics, was destroying their importance, and exciting a general disposition in the people to adopt in the fullest latitude the principles and sentiments of the reformed. Scotland.

424 Henry Forest burnt.

The following year, James Beaton archbishop of St Andrews, though remarkable for prudence and moderation, was overawed by his nephew and coadjutor David Beaton, and by the clergy. In his own person, or by commissions granted by him, persecutions were carried on with violence. Many were driven into banishment, and many were forced to acknowledge what they did not believe. The more strenuous and resolute were delivered over to punishment. Among these were two private gentlemen, Norman Gourlay and David Straton. They were tried at Holyroodhouse, before the bishop of Ross; and refusing to recant, were condemned. King James, who was present, appeared exceedingly solicitous that they should pass from their confession; and David Straton, upon being adjudged to the fire, having begged for his mercy, was about to receive it, when the priests proudly pronounced, that the grace of the sovereign could not be extended to a criminal whom their law and determination had doomed to suffer.

425 As also Gourlay and Straton.

A few years after, the bishops having assembled at Edinburgh, two Dominican friars, Killor and Beverage, with Sir Duncan Sympson a priest, Robert Forrester a gentleman of Stirling, and Thomas Forrest vicar of Dolour in Perthshire, were condemned to be consumed in the same fire.

426 With several others.

At Glasgow, a similar scene was acted in 1539, Hieronymus Russel a gray-friar, and a young gentleman of the name of *Kennedy*, were accused of heresy before the bishop of that see. Russel, when brought to the stake, displaying a deliberate demeanor, reasoned gravely with his accusers, and was only answered with reproaches. Mr Kennedy, who was not yet 18 years of age, seemed disposed to disavow his opinions, and to sink under the weight of a cruel affliction; but the exhortation and example of Russel awakening his courage, his mind assumed a firmness and constancy, his countenance became cheerful, and he exclaimed with a joyful voice, "Now, I defy thee, Death; I praise my God, I am ready."

James Beaton, the archbishop of St Andrews, happening

(A) His tenets were of the following import, and are enumerated in the sentence pronounced against him. "Man hath no free-will. Man is in sin so long as he liveth. Children, incontinent after their baptisme, are sinners. All Christians, that be worthie to be called Christians, do know that they are in grace. No man is justified by works, but by faith only. Good works make not a good man, but a good man doth make good works. And faith, hope, and charity, are so knit, that he that hath the one, hath the rest; and he that wanteth the one of them, wanteth the rest." Keith, Hist. of the Church and State of Scotland, Appendix, p. 3.

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417 Promotion of cardinal Beaton.

pening to die about this time, the ambition of David Beaton, his coadjutor, was gratified in the fullest manner. He had been created a cardinal of the Roman church, and he was now advanced into the possession of the primacy of Scotland. No Scottish ecclesiastic had been ever invested with greater authority; and the reformers had every thing to fear from so formidable an enemy. The natural violence of his temper had fixed itself in an overbearing insolence, from the successes which had attended him. His youth had been passed in scenes of policy and intrigue, which, while they communicated to him address and the knowledge of men, corrupted altogether the simplicity and candour of his mind. He was dark, designing, and artificial. No principles of justice were any bar to his schemes. His heart did not open to any impressions of pity. His ruling passion was an inordinate love of power; and the support of his consequence depending alone upon the church of Rome, he was animated to maintain its superstitions with the warmest zeal. He seemed to take a delight in perfidiousness and dissimulation: he had no religion; and he was stained with an inhuman cruelty, and the most open profligacy of manners. In connection with these defects, he possessed a persevering obstinacy in pursuing his measures, the ability to perceive and to practise all the arts which were necessary to advance them, and the allurements of ostentation and prodigality.

418 His character.

He was scarcely invested in the primacy, when he exhibited an example of his taste for magnificence, and of his aversion to the reformed. He proceeded to St Andrews with an uncommon pomp and parade. The earls of Huntley, Arran, Marischal, and Montrose, with the lords Fleming, Lindsey, Erskine, and Seton, did the honour to attend upon him; and there appeared in his train, Gavin archbishop of Glasgow and lord high chancellor, four bishops, six abbots, a great many private gentlemen, and a vast multitude of the inferior clergy. In the cathedral-church of St Andrews, from a throne erected by his command, he harangued concerning the state of religion and the church, to this company, and to a crowd of other auditors. He lamented the increase of heretics; he insisted upon their audacity and contempt of order; he said, that even in the court of the sovereign too much attention was shown to them; and he urged the strong necessity of acting against them with the greatest rigour. He informed this assembly, that he had cited Sir John Borthwick to appear before it, for maintaining tenets of faith hostile to the church, and for dispersing heretical books; and he desired that he might be assisted in bringing him to justice. The articles of his accusation (B) were read against Sir John Borthwick; who neither appeared in his own person, nor by any agent or deputy. He was found, notwithstanding, to be guilty; and the cardinal, with a solemnity calculated to strike with awe and terror, pronounced sentence against him. His goods and estate were confiscated; a painted representation of him was burned publicly, in testimony of the malediction of the church, and as a memorial of his obstinacy and condemnation. It was ordained, that in the event of his being apprehended, he should suffer as a heretic, without hope of grace or mercy. All Christians, whether men or women, and of whatever degree or condition, were prohibited from affording him any harbour or sustenance. It was declared, that every office of humanity, comfort, and solacement, extended to him, should be considered as criminal, and be punished with confiscations and forfeitures.

419 Sir John Borthwick impeached.

Sir John Borthwick, having been apprised of his danger, fled into England; where he was kindly received by Henry VIII. who employed him in negociations with the Protestant princes of Germany. Cardinal Beaton perceived with concern that this act of severity did not terrify the people. New defections from the church were announced to him. Andrew Cunningham son to the master of Glencairn, James Hamilton brother to Patrick Hamilton the martyr, and the celebrated George Buchanan the historian, were imprisoned upon suspicions of heresy; and, if they had not found the means to escape, must have died at the stake. In this declining condition of Popery, the cardinal held many mournful consultations with the bishops. All their intrigues and wisdom were employed to devise methods to support themselves. The project of an inquisitorial court was conceived, and exhibited a distant view of the extirpation of heretics. To erect this tribunal, they allured James V. with the hopes of the confiscation and spoils, which might enrich him, from the persecution and punishment of the reformed. He yielded himself to their solicitations, and gave them the sanction of his authority.

420 He flies into England.

A formal commission was granted, constituting a court

(B) They are preserved by archbishop Spotiswood, and display great liberality of mind, in a period when philosophy may be said to have been unknown in Scotland. They are thus detailed by this judicious writer.

1. "That he held the pope to have no greater authority over Christians, than any other bishop or prelate had.
2. "That indulgences and pardons granted by the pope were of no force nor effect, but devised to abuse people; ann deceive poor ignorant souls.
3. "That bishops, priests, and other clergymen, may lawfully marry.
4. "That the heresies, commonly called *heresies of England*, and their new liturgy, were commendable, and to be embraced of all Christians.
5. "That the people of Scotland are blinded by their clergy, and professed not the true faith.
6. "That churchmen ought not to enjoy temporalties.
7. "That the king ought to convert the rents of the church into other pious uses.
8. "That the church of Scotland ought to be governed after the manner of the English.
9. "That the canons and decrees of the church were of no force, as being contrary to the law of God.
10. "That the orders of the friars and monks should be abolished, as had been done in England.
11. "That he did openly call the pope *simoniac*, for that he sold spiritual things.
12. "That he did read heretical books, and the New Testament in English, and some other treatises written by Melancthon, Oecolampadius, and Erasmus, which he gave likewise unto others.
13. "The last and greatest point was, that he refused to acknowledge the authority of the Roman see, or be subject thereunto." Hist. of the Church, p. 70.

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431 Sir James Hamilton appointed a kind of inquisitor.

court of inquiry after heretics, and nominating for its president Sir James Hamilton of Fennard, natural brother to the earl of Arran. The officious assiduity of this man, his ambition, and his thirst of blood, were acceptable in a high degree to the clergy; and to this bad eminence their recommendation had promoted him. Upon the slightest suspicion he was allowed to call any person before him, to scrutinize into his creed, and to absolve or to condemn him. A tribunal so dreadful could not have found a director more suited to it. He was in haste to fill the prisons of the kingdom with culprits, and was marking down in lists the names of all those to whom heresy was imputed by popular report, and whom the arts of malicious men had represented as the objects of correction and punishment. But, while he was brooding over mischief, and multiplying in fancy the triumphs of his wickedness, an unexpected turn of affairs presented him in the light of a criminal, and conducted him to the scaffold.

432 Projects the ruin of Patrick Hamilton's brother.

The brother of Mr Hamilton the martyr, to avoid persecution, had been obliged to go into banishment; but, by the intercession of his friends, he was permitted to return for a short time to his own country, that he might regulate the affairs of his family. He was connected with Sir James Hamilton; and, trusting to the ties of blood, ventured to prolong his stay beyond the period allotted to him. This trespass was trivial. Sir James Hamilton, being willing to give a signal example of severity, and by this means to ingratiate himself the more with the priesthood, took the resolution to make his own relation the first victim of his power. Mr Hamilton, attentive to his personal security, and not unacquainted with the most private machinations of this inquisitor, dispatched his son to the king, who was about to pass the Forth in a barge, and intreated him to provide for his safety, as Sir James Hamilton had conspired with the house of Douglas to assassinate him. James V. being at variance with the house of Douglas, had reasons of suspicion, and was disposed to believe every thing that is most flagitious of Sir James Hamilton. He instructed the young gentleman to go with expedition to Edinburgh, and to open the matter to the privy-council; and that he might be treated with the greater respect, he furnished him with the ring which he was accustomed to send to them upon those important occasions which required their address and activity. Sir James Hamilton was apprehended and imprisoned. An accusation of having devised and attempted the king's death at different times, was preferred against him. His defence appeared to be weak and unsatisfactory. A jury, which consisted of men of rank and character, pronounced him guilty; and, being condemned to suffer the death of a traitor, he lost his head, and the quarters of his body were exposed upon the gates of the city of Edinburgh. The clergy, who could not prevent his trial and execution, regretted his death, but did not think of appointing a successor to him in their court of inquisition.

433 By whom he is accused of treason.

434 Condemned and executed.

In other respects, however, James shewed great concern for the welfare of his people. Being dissatisfied with the ordinary administration of justice, he had recourse to the parliament of Paris for a model of the like institution in Scotland. Great objections lay to juries in civil matters, and to ambulatory courts of justice. The authority of the heritable jurisdictions was almost exclusive of all law: for though the king might preside in them, yet he seldom did; and appeals before the council were disagreeable and expensive. The institution of the lords of articles, threw too much weight into their scale, as no business could be transacted in parliament but what they allowed of and prepared; and it was always in the power of the crown to direct them as the king pleased. The true source of the public grievances, in matters of property, lay in the disregard shown to the excellent acts which had passed during the reigns of the three first James's, and which had not been sufficiently supported in the late reigns. The evil had gathered strength during the minority of James V.; and he resolved to establish a standing jury for all matters of law and equity, (for, properly speaking, the court of session in Scotland is no other), with a president, who was to be the mouth of the assembly. On the 13th of May, this year, as we find by a curious manuscript in the British museum, the lords of the articles laid before the parliament the proposition for instituting this court, in the following words: "Item, anent (concerning) the second artickel concerning the order of justice; because our sovereign lord is maist desirous to have an permanent order of justice for the universal of all his liege; and therefore tendis to institute an college of cunning and wise men for doing and administration of justice in all civil actions: and therefore thinke to be chosen certain persons maist convenient and qualified yair (there), to the number of fifteen persons, half spiritual, half temporal, with an president.'

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435 James regulates the courts of justice.

436 Origin of the court of session.

In the year 1533, hostilities were recommenced with England; but after some slight incursions on both sides, a truce again took place. The most remarkable transactions of these years, however, next to the religious persecutions already mentioned, were the negociations for the king's marriage. Indeed, there is scarce any monarch mentioned in history who seems to have had a greater variety of choices, or who was more difficult to be pleased. The situation of affairs on the continent of Europe had rendered Scotland a kingdom of great consequence, as holding the balance between France, England, and the emperor of Germany; and each of the rival powers endeavoured to gain the favour of James by giving him a wife.—In 1534, king Francis offered him his daughter; and the match was strongly recommended by the duke of Albany, who was still living in France, and served James with great fidelity. The same year the Imperial ambassador arrived in Scotland, and presented, in the name of his master, the order of the golden fleece to James, who had already been invested with that of St Michael by Francis. At the same time he offered him his choice of three princesses; Mary of Austria, the emperor's sister, and widow of Lewis king of Hungary; Mary of Portugal, the daughter of his sister Eleonora of Austria; or Mary of England, the daughter of Catharine and Henry. Another condition, however, was annexed to this proposal, viz. that, to suppress the heresies of the time, a council should be held for obviating the calamities which threatened the Christian religion. Those proposals would have met with a more ready acceptance from James, had not his clergy, at this time

437 Negociations for the kings marriage.

438 Offers of the emperor of Germany.

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time, been disgusted with Charles, for allowing too great a latitude to the Protestants of Germany. James, in his answer, returned the emperor his acknowledgments, in the most polite terms, for the splendid alliances he had offered him. He touched the proposal of the council as being a measure rather to be wished for than hoped, because it ought to be free and holy, and upon the model of the first councils; its members consisting of the most charitable, quiet, and disinterested part of the clergy. He said, that if such a council could be obtained, he would willingly send ecclesiastics to it; but if not, that every prince ought to reform the errors of doctrine, and the faults of the clergy, within his own dominions. He bewailed the obstinate conduct of his uncle in his divorce and marriage; and offered his best offices for effecting a reconciliation between him and the emperor, wishing that all the princes of Christendom would unite their arms against their common enemy the Turks. He hinted, very justly, that his Imperial majesty had offered more than he could perform, because his cousin, Mary of England, was not at his disposal. The ambassador replied, that his master, if persuasions failed, would compel Henry by force of arms to resign her. James answered this ridiculous declaration by observing, that the emperor then would be guilty of a breach of all laws both divine and human; that it would be impolitic to give a preference to any of the three princesses, all of them being so illustrious and deserving; but, to show how much he valued an alliance with his Imperial majesty, he would become a suppliant to that prince for his niece, daughter to Christiern king of Denmark, to become his bride. The ambassador's answer to this unexpected request was, that she was already betrothed to the count palatine, and that before that time the marriage was probably consummated.

439 Which are rejected by James.

But whether the Imperial ambassador had any right to offer the English princess or not, it is agreed by most historians, that he was offered either Mary or Elizabeth by their father Henry himself. To Mary of Bourbon, the daughter of the duke of Vendosme, he is said to have been contracted; but for some reasons or other all these matches were broken off; and the king at last went to France, where he married Magdalen the eldest daughter of Francis. The nuptials were celebrated at Paris in the year 1537, with great magnificence; and among other things served up by way of desert at the marriage-feast, were a number of covered cups filled with pieces of gold and gold-dust, the native product of Scotland, which James distributed among the guests. This gold was found in the mines of Crawford-moor, which were then worked by the Germans. In the beginning of May the royal pair embarked for Leith, under convoy of four large ships of war, and landed on the 28th of the same month. The joy of the Scots was inexpressible, but it was of short continuance; for the young queen died of a fever on the 22d of July the same year.

440 He marries the king of France's daughter.

441 Who dies soon after.

King James did not long remain a widower; for the same year he sent Beaton abbot of Arbroath, to treat of his second marriage with a French lady, Mary of Guise, duchess-dowager of Longueville. In this he was rivalled by his uncle Henry VIII. but not before James had been contracted to her. But this was nothing to Henry; for he not only insisted upon having this lady for his wife, but threw out some menaces against Francis, because he would not comply with this unjustifiable request. In January 1538, she was married to James, and escorted to Scotland by the admiral of France with a considerable squadron; both James and Francis being suspicious that Henry would make some attempt to intercept the royal bride. But nothing of this kind happened, and she landed safely at Fifeness; from whence she was conducted to the king at St Andrew's.

442 James rivaled by his uncle in a second marriage.

But while James appeared thus to be giving himself up to the pleasures of love, he was in other respects showing himself a bloody tyrant. Some differences subsisted between the families of Gordon and Forbes in the north. The heir of the house last-mentioned had been educated in a loose dissipated manner, and kept company with a worthless fellow named *Strahan*. Having refused this favourite something he had asked, the latter attached himself to Gordon earl of Huntley, who, it is said, assisted him in forming a charge of treason against Forbes. He was accused of intending to restore the Douglasses to their forfeited estates and honours; which improbable story being supported by some venal evidences, the unhappy young man was condemned and executed as a traitor. The king could not but see the injustice of this execution; and, in order to make some amends for it, banished Strahan the kingdom. The following execution, which happened a few days after, was much more inhuman insomuch that it would have stained the annals even of the most despotic tyrants. The earl of Angus, finding that he could not regain the favour of the king, had recourse to the method usual in those days, viz. committing depredations on the borders. This crime was sufficient with James to occasion the death of his innocent sister, the dowager-lady of Glamis. She had been courted by one Lyon, whom she had rejected in favour of a gentleman of the name of *Campbell*. Lyon, exasperated at his repulse, found means of admittance to James, whom he filled with the greatest terrors on account of the practices of the family of Angus; and at last charged the lady, her husband, and an old priest, with a design of poisoning the king in order to restore Angus. The parties were all remarkable for the quiet and innocent lives they led; and even this circumstance was by their diabolical accuser turned to their prejudice, by representing it as the effect of cunning or caution. In this reign an accusation of treason was always followed by condemnation. However, the evidence against the lady appeared so absurd and contradictory, that some of the judges were for dropping the prosecution, and others for recommending her case to the king: but the majority prevailed to have it determined by a jury, who brought her in guilty; and she was condemned to be burnt alive in the Castle-hill of Edinburgh. The defence she made would have done honour to the ablest orator, and undeniably proved her innocence; but though it was reported to James, it was so far from mitigating her sentence, that it was aggravated by her husband being obliged to behold her execution. The unhappy husband himself endeavoured to make his way over the castle-wall of Edinburgh; but the rope proving too short, he was dashed

443 Cruel execution of the heir of the house of Forbes.

444 And of the dowager lady of Glamis.

445 Death of her husband.

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dashed in pieces: and lord Glamis her son, though but a child, was imprisoned during the remainder of this reign. The old priest, though put to the torture, confessed nothing, and was freed. Lyon, like the other accuser already mentioned, was banished the kingdom.

446 The king seized with a kind of distraction.

Whether these and other cruelties had affected the king's conscience, or whether his brain had been touched by the distractions of the different parties, is unknown; but it is certain, that, in the year 1540, he began to live retired: his palace appeared like the cloistered retreat of monks; his sleep was haunted by the most frightful dreams, which he construed into apparitions; and the body of Sir James Hamilton, whose execution has already been mentioned, seemed continually present to his eyes. Perhaps the loss of his two sons, who died on the same day that Sir James was executed, might have contributed to bring this man more remarkably to his remembrance. No doubt, it added to the gloom of his mind; and he now saw his court abandoned by almost all his nobility.

447 Hostilities commence between Scotland and England.

At last James was in some degree roused from his inaction, by the preparations made against him by his uncle Henry VIII. of England. Some differences had already taken place; to accommodate which, Henry had desired a conference with James at York. But this the latter, by the advice of his parliament, had declined. The consequence was a rupture between the two courts, and the English had taken 20 of the Scots trading vessels. Henry threatened to revive the antiquated claim of the English superiority over Scotland, and had given orders for a formidable invasion of the Scotch borders. He complained that James had usurped his title of Defender of the Faith, to which he had added the word Christian, implying that Henry was an infidel: but the kings of Scotland had, some time before, been complimented by the papal see with that title. James, on the other hand, threw his eyes towards Ireland, the north part of which was actually peopled with inhabitants who owned no sovereign but the king of Scotland, and who offered to serve James against the English; some of their chiefs having actually repaired to Scotland, and done homage to James. Henry had, about this time, declared himself king of Ireland, of which he was before only styled the *lord;* and James roundly asserted, that he had a preferable claim to at least one half of that island, which had been peopled by the subjects of Scotland. Though the Scotch historians of this reign take very little notice of this incident, yet James appears to have been very tenacious of his title; and that there was a vast intercourse carried on between the subjects of Scotland and the northern Irish, who unanimously acknowledged James for their natural sovereign. Indeed, this was the only ground of quarrel that the king, with the least shadow of justice, could allege against Henry.

448 The sovereignty of Ireland claimed by both kings.

449 An act of indemnity for crimes committed during the king's minority.

His parliament being met, many public-spirited acts were passed; and before the assembly was dissolved, the members renewed the acts against leasing-making; by which is meant the misrepresenting the king to his nobles, or the nobles to their king: and James, to dismiss them in good humour, passed an act of free grace for all crimes committed in his minority; the earl of Angus, and Sir George and Sir Archibald Douglas, being excepted.

Henry, after cutting off the head of his wife Catharine Howard, married and divorced the princess Anne of Cleves, and found himself either deserted or distrusted by all the princes on the continent, Protestant as well as Roman Catholic. James and his clergy relied greatly on this public odium incurred by Henry; but the emperor having again quarrelled with Francis, left Henry, whose dominions they had threatened jointly to invade, at liberty to continue his preparations against the Scots. He first ordered his fleet, then the most formidable of any in the world, to make fresh descents upon Scotland. At the same time, he appointed a very considerable army to rendezvous upon the borders, under the command of Sir Robert Bowes, one of his wardens, the earl of Angus, and his two brothers Sir George and Sir Archibald Douglas. James was every day expecting supplies of money, arms, and other necessaries from Francis; but these not arriving, he reassembled his parliament on the 14th of March, which gratified him in all his demands. Many excellent regulations were made for the internal government, peace, and security of the kingdom, and against the exportation of money instead of merchandise. Acts were passed for fortifying and embellishing the town of Edinburgh, and for better supplying the subjects with wine and all the other necessaries of life. The royal revenue was increased by many additional estates; and the last hand was put to one of the best plans for a national militia that perhaps ever appeared. As yet, excepting in the disappointment which Henry met with from his nephew in not meeting him at York, he had no grounds for commencing hostilities. But it is here proper to observe, that the queen-mother was then dead; and consequently the connection between James and Henry was weakened. Whatever her private character might have been, she was certainly a happy instrument of preventing bloodshed between the two kingdoms. She was buried with royal honours at Perth.

450 Preparations of Henry.

451 Death of the queen-mother.

James, to all appearance, was at this time in a most desirable situation. His domain, by forfeitures and otherwise, far exceeded that of any of his predecessors. He could command the purses of his clergy; he had large sums of ready money in his exchequer; his forts were well stored and fortified; and he was now daily receiving remittances of money, arms, and ammunition from France. All this show of happiness was only in appearance; for the affections of his nobility, and the wiser part of his subjects, were now alienated from him more than ever, by the excessive attachment he shewed to bigotry and persecution.

452 James loses the affections of his subjects.

He had nominated the earl of Huntley to command his army on the borders, consisting of 10,000 men; and his lieutenant-general was Sir Walter Lindsay of Torphichen, who had seen a great deal of foreign service, and was esteemed an excellent officer. Huntley acquitted himself admirably well in his commission; and was so well served by his spies, as to have certain intelligence that the English intended to surprise and burn Jedburgh and Kelso. The English army under Sir Robert Bowes and the Douglasses, with other northern Englishmen, continued still upon the borders;

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ders; and one of the resolutions the Scotch nobility and gentry had come to, was not to attack them on their own ground, nor to act offensively, unless their enemies invaded Scotland. Huntley being informed that the English had advanced, on the 24th of August, to a place called Haldanrig, and that they had destroyed great part of the Scotch and debateable lands, resolved to engage them: and the English were astonished, when at day-break they saw the Scotch army drawn up in order of battle. Neither party could now retreat without fighting; and Torphichen, who led the van, consisting of 2000 of the best troops of Scotland, charged the English so furiously, that Huntley gained a complete and an easy victory. Above 200 of the English were killed, and 600 taken prisoners; among whom were their general Sir Robert Bowes, Sir William Mowbray, and about 60 of the most distinguished northern barons; the earl of Angus escaping by the swiftness of his horse. The loss of the Scots was inconsiderable.

453 The English defeated by the earl of Huntley.

In the mean while, the duke of Norfolk having raised a great army, had orders to march northwards, and to disperse a manifesto, complaining of James for having disappointed him of the interview at York, and reviving the ridiculous claim of his own and his ancestors superiority over the kingdom of Scotland. It was plain, from the words of this manifesto, that Henry was still placable towards James; and that he would easily have dropt that claim, if his nephew would have made any personal advances towards a reconciliation.

The condition of James was now deplorable. The few faithful counsellors he had about him, such as Kirkaldy of Grange, who was then lord treasurer, plainly intimated, that he could have no dependence upon his nobles, as he was devoted to the clergy; and James, sometimes, in a fit of distraction, would draw his dagger upon the cardinal and other ecclesiastics, when they came to him with fresh propositions of murder and proscriptions, and drive them out of his presence. But he had no constancy of mind; and he certainly put into his pocket a bloody scroll that had been brought him by his priests, beginning with the earl of Arran, the first subject of the kingdom. In one of his cooler moments, he appointed the lord Erskine, and some others of his nobility, to make a fresh tentative for gaining time; and Henry even condescended to order the duke of Norfolk, (who was then advanced as far as York), the lord privy seal, the bishop of Durham, and others, to treat with him. The conferences were short and unsuccessful. The duke bitterly complained, that the Scots fought only to amuse him till the season for action was over. In short, he considered both them and Learmouth, who was ordered to attend him, as so many spies, and treated them accordingly. It was the 21st of October before he entered the east borders of Scotland. According to the Scotch historians, his army consisted of 40,000 men; but the English have fixed it at 20,000.

454 Distraction of James.

455 The duke of Norfolk enters Scotland with a formidable army.

James affected to complain of this invasion as being unprovoked; but he lost no time in preparing to repel the danger. The situation of his nobility, who were pressed by a foreign invasion on the one hand, and domestic tyrants on the other, induced them to hold frequent consultations; and in one of them, they resolved to renew the scene that had been acted at Lauder bridge under James III. by hanging all his grandfon's evil counsellors. The Scots historians say, that this resolution was not executed, because the nobility could not agree about the victims that were to be sacrificed; and that the king, who was then encamped with his army at Fallamoor, having intelligence of their consultation, removed hastily to Edinburgh; from whence he sent orders for his army to advance, and give battle to the duke of Norfolk, who appears as yet not to have entered the Scotch borders. The answer of the nobility was, that they were determined not to attack the duke upon English ground; but that if he invaded Scotland, they knew their duty. The earl of Huntley, who commanded the van of the Scotch army, consisting of 10,000 men, was of the same opinion: but no sooner did Norfolk pass the Tweed, than he harrassed the English army, cut off their foraging parties, and distressed them in such a manner, that the duke agreed once more to a conference for peace; which was managed, on the part of the Scots, by the bishop of Orkney and Sir James Learmouth; but nothing was concluded. The English general, finding it now impossible on many accounts to prosecute his invasion, repassed the Tweed; and was harrassed in his march by the earl of Huntley, who desisted from the pursuit the moment his enemies gained English ground.

456 Conspiracy against James's favourites.

457 The English obliged to retreat.

James, whose army at this time amounted to above 30,000 men, continued still at Edinburgh, from whence he sent frequent messages to order his nobility and generals to follow the duke of Norfolk into England; but they were disregarded. James was flattered, that now he had it in his power to be revenged for all the indignities that had been offered by England to Scotland. In this he was encouraged by the French ambassador, and the high opinion he had of his own troops. About the beginning of November, he came to a resolution of reassembling his army, which was disbanded upon the duke of Norfolk's retreat. This project appeared so feasible and so promising, that several of the nobility are said to have fallen in with it, particularly the lord Maxwell, the earls of Arran, Cassils, and Glencairn, with the lords Fleming, Somerville, and Erskine: others represented, but in vain, that the arms of Scotland had already gained sufficient honour, by obliging the powerful army of the English, with their most experienced general at their head, to make a shameful retreat before a handful; that the force of Scotland was inferior to that of England; and that an honourable peace was still practicable. It was said, in reply to those considerations, that the state of the quarrel was now greatly altered; that Henry had in his manifesto declared his intention to enslave their country; that he treated the nobility as his vassals; that the duke of Norfolk had been guilty of burning the dwellings of the defenceless inhabitants, by laying above twenty villages and towns in ashes; and that no Scotchman, who was not corrupted by Henry's gold, would oppose the king's will. The last, perhaps, was the chief argument that prevailed on the lord Maxwell, a nobleman of great honour and courage, to agree to carry the war into England by Solway, provided he was at the head of 10,000.

458 The Scots refuse to pursue.

459 Put at last consent to invade England.

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10,000 men. It was at last agreed, that the earl of Arran and the cardinal should openly raise men, as if they intended to enter the east marches, where they were to make only a feint, while the lord Maxwell was to make the real attempt upon the west. Private letters were every where circulated to raise the men who were to serve under the lord Maxwell; among whom were the earls of Cassils and Glencairn, the lords Fleming, Somerville, Erskine, and many other persons of great consideration. James, who never was suspected for want of courage, probably would have put himself at the head of this expedition, had he not been dissuaded from it by his priests and minions, who reminded him of the consultations at Fallamoor, and the other treasonable practices of the nobility. They added, that most of them being corrupted by the English gold, he could not be too much on his guard. He was at last persuaded to repair to the castle of Lochmaben or Carlaverock, and there to wait the issue of the inroad.

460 Lord Maxwell superseded in the command by Oliver Sinclair.

It was probably at this place that James was prevailed on to come to the fatal resolution of appointing one Oliver Sinclair, a son of the house of Rossin, and a favourite minion at court, to command the army in chief; and his commission was made out accordingly. On the 23d of November, the Scots began their march at midnight; and having passed the Esk, all the adjacent villages were seen in flames by the break of day. Sir Thomas Wharton, the English warden of those marches, the bastard Dacres, and Musgrave, hastily raised a few troops, the whole not exceeding 500 men, and drew them up upon an advantageous ground; when Sinclair, ordering the royal banner to be displayed, and being mounted on the shoulders of two tall men, produced and read his commission. It is impossible to imagine the consternation into which the Scots were thrown upon this occasion; and their leaders setting the example, the whole army declared, (according to the Scotch authors), that they would rather surrender themselves prisoners to the English, than submit to be commanded by such a general. In an instant, all order in the Scotch army was broken down; horse and foot, soldiers and scullions, noblemen and peasants, were intermingled. It was easy for the English general to perceive this confusion, and perhaps to guess at its cause. A hundred of his light horse happened to advance: they met no resistance: the nobles were the first who surrendered themselves prisoners; and the rest of the English advancing, they obtained a bloodless victory; for even the women and the boys made prisoners of Scotch soldiers, and few or none were killed. The lord Herbert relates the circumstances of this shameful affair with some immaterial differences; but agrees with the Scotch authorities upon the whole. He mentions, however, no more than 800 common soldiers having been made prisoners. The chief of the prisoners were the earls of Cassils and Glencairn, the lords Maxwell, Fleming, Somerville, Oliphant, and Gray, with above 200 gentlemen besides.

461 The Scots shamefully defeated at Solway Moss.

James was then at Carlaverock, which is about twelve miles distant from the place of action, depressed in his spirits, and anxious about the event of the expedition, which is to this day called the *Raid of Solway-moss*. When the news came to his ears, and that the earl of Arran and the cardinal were returned to Edinburgh, he was seized with an additional dejection of mind, which brought him to his grave. In such a situation, every peccant circumstance of his former life wounded his conscience; and he at last sunk into a sullen melancholy, which admitted of no consolation. From Carlaverock he removed to Falkland; and was sometimes heard to express himself as if he thought that the whole body of his nobility were in a conspiracy against his person and dignity. The presence of the few attendants who were admitted into his chamber, and who were the wicked instruments of his misconduct, seemed to aggravate his sufferings; and he either could not or would not take any sustenance. His death being now inevitable, Beaton approached his bed-side with a paper, to which he is said to have directed the king's hand, pretending that it was his last will. On the 18th of December, while James was in this deplorable state, a messenger came from Linlithgow, with an account that his queen was brought to bed of a daughter; and the last words he was distinctly heard to say, were, "It will end as it began: the crown came by a woman, and it will go with one; many miseries approach this poor kingdom; king Henry will either master it by arms, or win it by marriage." He then turned his face to the wall, and in broken ejaculations pronounced the word *Solway-moss*, and some faint expressions alluding to the disgrace he suffered. In this state he languished for some days; for it is certain he did not survive the 13th.

462 James V. dies of grief.

James V. was succeeded by his infant daughter Mary, whose birth we have already mentioned. James had taken no steps for the security of his kingdom, so that ambitious men had now another opportunity of throwing the public affairs into confusion. The situation of Scotland indeed at this time was very critical. Many of the nobility were prisoners in England, and those who remained at home were factious and turbulent. The nation was dispirited by an unsuccessful war. Commotions were daily excited on account of religion, and Henry VIII. had formed a design of adding Scotland to his other dominions. By a testamentary deed which cardinal Beaton had forged in the name of his sovereign, he was appointed tutor to the queen and governor of the realm, and three of the principal nobility were named to act as his counsellors in the administration. The nobility and the people, however, calling in question the authenticity of this deed, which he could not establish, the cardinal was degraded from the dignity he had assumed; and the estates of the kingdom advanced into the regency James Hamilton, earl of Arran, whom they judged to be entitled to this distinction, as the second person of the kingdom, and the nearest heir, after Mary, to the crown.

463 Is succeeded by Mary.

464 Critical situation of affairs.

465 Earl of Arran appointed regent.

The disgrace of cardinal Beaton might have proved the destruction of his party, if the earl of Arran had been endowed with vigour of mind and ability. But his views were circumscribed; and he did not compensate for this defect by any firmness of purpose. He was too indolent to gain partizans, and too irresolute to fix them. Slight difficulties filled him with embarrassment, and great ones overpowered him. His enemies, applying themselves to the timidity of his disposition, betrayed him into weaknesses; and the esteem which

466 His character.

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which his gentleness had procured him in private life, was lost in the contempt attending his public conduct, which was feeble, fluctuating, and inconsistent.

467 He becomes popular on account of his attachment to the reformation.

The attachment which the regent was known to profess for the reformed religion, drew to him the love of the people; his high birth, and the mildness of his virtues, conciliated their respect; and from the circumstance, that his name was at the head of the roll of heretics which the clergy had presented to the late king, a sentiment of tenderness was mingled with his popularity. His conduct corresponded, at first, with the impressions entertained in his favour. Thomas Guillame and John Rough, two celebrated preachers, were invited to live in his house; and he permitted them to declaim openly against the errors of the church of Rome. They attacked and exposed the supremacy of the pope, the worship of images, and the invocation of saints. Cardinal Beaton and the prelates were infinitely discontented, and indefatigably active to defend the established doctrines.

468 The people permitted to read the scriptures in their mother-tongue.

This public sanction afforded to the reformation was of little consequence, however, when compared with a measure which was soon after adopted by Robert lord Maxwel. He proposed, that the liberty of reading the scriptures in the vulgar tongue should be permitted to the people; and that, for the future, no heretical guilt should in inferred against any person for having them in his possession, or for making use of them. The regent and the three estates acknowleged the propriety of this proposal. Gavin Dunbar archbishop of Glasgow, and chancellor of Scotland, protested, indeed, for himself and for the church, that no act on this subject should pass and be effectual, till a provincial council of all the clergy of the kingdom should consider and determine, whether there was a necessity that the people should consult and study the scriptures in the vulgar tongue. But his protestation being disregarded, the bill of the lord Maxwel was carried into a law, and the regent made it generally known by a proclamation.

From this period, copies of the Bible were imported in great numbers from England; and men, allured by an appeal so flattering to their reason, were proud to recover from the supine ignorance in which they had been kept by an artful priesthood. To read became a common accomplishment; and books were multiplied in every quarter, which disclosed the pride, the tyranny, and the absurdities of the Romish church and superstitions.

469 Henry VIII. proposes to unite the kingdoms by the marriage of Edward VI. with Mary.

The death of James V. proved very favourable to the ambitious designs of Henry. He now proposed an union of the two kingdoms by the marriage of his son Edward VI. with Mary the young queen of Scotland. To promote this, he released the noblemen who had been taken prisoners at Solway, after having engaged them on oath, not only to concur in promoting the alliance, but to endeavour to procure him the charge and custody of the young queen, with the government of her kingdom, and the possession of her castles. The earl of Angus and his brother, who had been fifteen years in exile, accompanied them to Scotland, and brought letters from Henry recomending them to the restitution of their honours and estates. The regent was inclined to favour the demands of persons of such eminent station; but though the states were inclined to the marriage, they refused to permit the removal of the queen into England, and treated with contempt the idea of giving the government of Scotland and the care of the castles to the king of England. Sir Ralph Sadler, the English ambassador, exerted all his endeavours to induce the regent to comply with the requisitions of his master; but all his intrigues were unsuccessful; and Henry, perceiving that he must depart from such extravagant conditions, at last authorised the commissioners to consent to treaties of amity and marriage, on the most favourable terms that could be procured. In consequence of these powers given to the commissioners, it was agreed that a firm peace and alliance should take place between the two nations, and that they should mutually defend and protect one another in case of an invasion. The queen was to remain within her own dominions till she was ten years of age; and Henry was not to claim any share in the government. Six nobles, or their apparent heirs, were to be surrendered to him in security for the conveyance of the young queen into England, and for her marriage with prince Edward, as soon as she was ten years of age. It was also stipulated, that though the queen should have issue by Edward, Scotland should retain not only its name, but its laws and liberties.

470 He departs from some of his proposals.

471 The regent opposed by cardinal Beaton.

These conditions, however advantageous to Scotland, yet did not give entire satisfaction. Cardinal Beaton, who had been imprisoned on pretence of treasonable schemes, and was now released from his confinement by the influence of the queen-dowager, took all opportunities of exclaiming against the alliance, as tending to destroy the independency of the kingdom. He pointed out to the churchmen the dangers which arose from the prevalence of heresy, and urged them to unanimity and zeal. Awakening all their fears and selfishness, they granted him a large sum of money with which he might gain partizans; the friars were instructed to preach against the treaties with England; and fanatical men were instructed to display their rage in offering indignities to Sir Ralph Sadler.

472 And by several noblemen.

Cardinal Beaton was not the only antagonist the regent had to deal with. The earls of Argyle, Huntley, Bothwel, and Murray, concurred in the opposition; and having collected some troops, and possessed themselves of the queen's person, they assumed all the authority. They were joined by the earl of Lenox, who was made to hope that he might espouse the queen-dowager and obtain the regency. He was also inclined to oppose the earl of Arran, from an ancient quarrel which had subsisted between their two families; and from a claim he had to supersede him, not only in the enjoyment of his personal estates, but in the succession to the crown. The regent, alarmed at such a powerful combination against him, inclined to attend to some advances which were made him by the queen-dowager and cardinal. To refuse to confirm the treaties, after he had brought them to a conclusion, was, however, a step so repugnant to probity, that he could not be prevailed upon to adopt it. He therefore, in a solemn manner, ratified them in the abbey-church of Holyrood-house, and commanded the great seal of Scotland to be appended to them. The same day he went to St Andrew's, and issued a mandate

473 But confirms the treaties of amity and marriage with England.

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date to the cardinal, requiring him to return to his allegiance. To this the prelate refused to pay any attention, or to move from his castle; upon which the regent denounced him a rebel, and threatened to compel him to submission by military force. But in a few days after, the pusillanimous regent meeting with Beaton, forsook the interest of Henry VIII. and embraced that of the queen-dowager and of France. Being in haste also to reconcile himself to the church of Rome, he renounced publicly, at Stirling, the opinions of the reformed, and received absolution from the hands of the cardinal.

474 He abandons the English interest, and renounces the Protestant religion.

By this mean-spirited conduct the regent exposed himself to universal contempt, while cardinal Beaton usurped the whole authority. The earl of Lenox, finding that he had no hopes of success in his suit to the queen-dowager, engaged in negociations with Henry, to place himself at the head of the Scottish lords who were in the English interest, and to assert the cause of the reformation. The consequence of all this was a rupture with England. Henry not only delayed to ratify the treaties on his part, but ordered all the Scottish ships in the harbours of England to be taken and confiscated. This violent proceeding inflamed the national disgusts against the English alliance; and the party of the cardinal and queen-dowager thus obtained an increase of popularity. Henry himself, however, was so much accustomed to acts of outrage and violence, that he seemed to think the step he had just now taken a matter of no moment; and therefore he demanded that the hostages, in terms of the treaty of marriage, should still be delivered up to him. But the cardinal and regent informed his ambassador, Sir Ralph Sadler, that from their own authority they could not command any of the nobles to be committed to him as hostages; and that the offensive strain of behaviour assumed by the English monarch, might have altered the sentiments of the Scottish parliament with regard to a measure of such importance. After much altercation, the conferences were broken off; and as the lords who were released from captivity had promised to return prisoners to England, it now remained with them to fulfil their promise. None of them, however, had the courage to do so, excepting the earl of Cassils; and Henry, being struck with his punctilious sense of honour, dismissed him loaded with presents.

475 Henry's violent proceedings.

476 The negociations broken off.

Cardinal Beaton being thus in possession of power, took measures to secure it. The solemnity of the coronation of the young queen was celebrated at Stirling. A council was chosen to direct and assist the regent in the greater affairs of state, at the head of which was the queen-dowager. John Hamilton, the abbot of Paisley, who had acquired an ascendency over the regent, was also promoted to the privy seal, and made treasurer of the kingdom; and cardinal Beaton, upon the request of the regent and the three estates, accepted the office of lord high chancellor.

477 The queen crowned.

After the flatteries and the hopes with which the earl of Lenox had been amused, the cardinal had reason to dread the utmost warmth of his resentment. He had therefore written to Francis I. giving a detail of the critical situation of affairs in Scotland, and intreating him to recal to France the earl of Lenox, who was now interested to oppose the influence and operations of the queen-dowager. But the indignation with which the treachery of the cardinal had inflamed the earl of Lenox, precipitated him into immediate action, and defeated the intention of this artifice. In the hostile situation of his mind towards Scotland, an opportunity of commencing hostilities had presented itself. Five ships had arrived in the Clyde from France, loaded with warlike stores, and having on board the patriarch of Venice, Peter Contareni, legate from Paul III. with La Brosse, and James Mesnaige, ambassadors from France; and 30,000 crowns, which were to be employed in strengthening the French faction, and to be distributed by the queen-dowager and the cardinal. Prevailing with the commanders of these vessels, who conceived him to be the fast friend of their monarch, he secured this money for his own use, and deposited the military stores in his castle of Dumbarton, under the care of George Stirling the deputy-governor, who at this time was entirely in his interests.

478 Enmity between cardinal Beaton and the earl of Lenox.

479 Hostilities committed by the latter.

By the successful application of this wealth, the earl of Lenox called forth the full exertion of his party in levying a formidable army, with which he threatened the destruction of the regent and the cardinal, offering them battle in the fields between Leith and Edinburgh. The regent, not being in a condition to accept the challenge of his rival, had recourse to negociation. Cardinal Beaton and the earl of Huntley proposed terms of amity, and exerted themselves with so much address, that the earl of Lenox, losing the opportunity of chastising his enemies, consented to an accommodation, and indulged anew the hope of obtaining the queen-dowager in marriage. His army was dismissed, and he threw himself at the feet of his mistress, by whom he was, in appearance, favourably received: but many of his friends were seduced from him under different pretences; and at last, apprehending his total ruin from some secret enterprise, he fled to Glasgow, and notified himself in that city. The regent, collecting an army, marched against him; and having defeated his friend the earl of Glencairn in a bloody encounter, was able to reduce the place of strength in which he confided. In this ebb of his fortune, the earl of Lenox had no hope but from England.

480 Lenox suffers himself to be accused by his enemies.

481 And is obliged to fly.

The revolution produced in the political state of Scotland by the arts of cardinal Beaton, while it defeated the intrigues of Henry VIII. pointed all its strength against the progress of the reformation. After abandoning his old friends, the regent, in connection with the cardinal, was ambitious to undo all the services he had rendered to them. The three estates annulled the treaties of amity and marriage, and empowered commissioners to conclude an alliance with France. The regent discharged the two preachers Guillame and Rough, whom he had invited to impugn the doctrines of the church. He drove back into England many pious persons, whose zeal had brought them to Scotland, to explain and advance the new opinions. He caressed with particular respect the legate whom the pope had sent to discourage the marriage of the young queen with the prince of Wales, and to promise his assistance against the enterprises of Henry VIII. He procured an act of parliament to be passed for the persecution of heretics; and, upon the foundation of this authority, the most rigorous proceedings were concerted against the reformed; when the arms of Eng-

482 Alliance with France concluded, and the Protestants persecuted.

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England, rousing the apprehensions of the nation, gave the fullest employment to the regent and his counsellors.

483 Lenox engages in the English interest.

In the rage and anguish of disappointed ambition, the earl of Lenox made an offer to assist the views of the king of England; who, treating him as an ally, engaged, in the event of success, to give him in marriage his niece the lady Margaret Douglas, and to invest him in the regency of Scotland. To establish the reformation in Scotland, to acquire the superiority over it to Henry VIII. and to effectuate the marriage of the prince of Wales with the queen of Scots, were the great objects of their confederacy.

484 An English army enters Scotland.

Henry, though engaged in a war with France, which required all his military force, could not resist the earliest opportunity in his power to execute his vengeance against Scotland. Edward Seymour earl of Hartford was appointed to command 10,000 men; who were embarked at Tinmouth, aboard a fleet of 200 ships, under the direction of Sir John Dudley lord Lisle. This army was landed without opposition near Leith; and the earl of Hartford made it known to Sir Adam Otterburn, the provost of Edinburgh, that his commission empowered him to lay the country waste and desolate, unless the regent should deliver up the young queen to the king of England. It was answered, that every extremity of distress would be endured, before the Scottish nation would submit to so ignominious a demand. Six thousand horse from Berwick, under the lord Evers, now joined the earl of Hartford. Leith and Edinburgh, after a feeble resistance, yielded to the English commander; who abandoned them to pillage, and then set fire to them. A cruel devastation ensued in the surrounding villages and country, and an immense booty was conveyed on board the English fleet. But, while an extreme terror was every where excited, the earl of Hartford reimbarked a part of his troops, and ordered the remainder to march with expedition to the frontiers of England.

485 Who commit cruel devastations, and then suddenly retire.

The regent, assisted by cardinal Beaton and the earls of Huntley, Argyle, Bothwell, and Murray, was active, in the mean time, to collect an army, and to provide for the security of the kingdom. He felt, therefore, the greatest surprise on being relieved so unexpectedly from the most imminent hazard; and an expedition, conducted with so little discernment, did not advance the measures of Henry VIII. To accomplish the marriage of the young queen with the prince of Wales, to possess himself of her person, or to atchieve a conquest over Scotland, were all circumstances apparently within the reach of the English commander: and yet, in the moment of victory, he neglected to prosecute his advantages; and having inflamed the animosities of the Scottish nation, by a display of the passions and cruelty of his master, left them to recover from their disaster, and to improve in their resources.

486 Ill success of the earl of Lenox.

The earl of Lenox, taking the opportunity of the English fleet, went to consult with Henry VIII. upon the desperate state of his affairs. He renewed his engagements with this monarch; and received in marriage the lady Margaret Douglas, with possessions in England. Soon after, he arrived in the frith of Clyde, with 18 ships and 600 soldiers, that he might secure the castle of Dunbarton, and employ himself in committing spoil and devastation. But George Stirling, to whom the castle was intrusted refused to surrender it; and even obliged him to reimbark his troops. After engaging in a few petty incursions and skirmishes, he returned to England.

487 A truce concluded with England.

In 1544, Henry consented to a truce; and Scotland, after having suffered the miseries of war, was subjected to the horrors of persecution. The regent had procured an act of parliament for the persecution of the reformed; and the cardinal, to draw to himself an additional splendour and power, had obtained from the pope the dignity of legate *à latere*. A visitation of his own diocese appeared to him the most proper method of commencing the proposed extirpation of heresy; and he carried with him in his train the regent, and many persons of distinction, to assist in his judicatories, and to share in his disgrace.

488 Many cruel executions on account of religion.

In the town of Perth, a great many persons were accused and condemned. The most trifling offences were regarded as atrocious crimes, and made the subjects of prosecution and punishment, Robert Lamb was hanged for affirming that the invocations of saints had no merit to save. William Anderson, James Reynold, and James Finlayson, suffered the same death, for having abused an image of St Francis, by putting horns upon his head. James Hunter, having kept their company, was found to be equally guilty, and punished in the same manner. Helen Stirke, having refused, when in labour, to invoke the assistance of the Virgin, was drowned in a pool of water. Many of the burgesses of Perth, being suspected of heresy, were sent into banishment; and the lord Ruthven, the provost, was upon the same account dismissed from his office.

The cardinal was strenuous in persecuting heresy in other parts of his diocese. But the discontents and clamour attending the executions of men of inferior station were now lost in the same of the martyrdom of George Wishart; a person who, while he was respectable by his birth, was highly eminent from the opinion entertained of his capacity and endowments. The historians of the Protestant persuasion have spoken of this reformer in terms of the highest admiration. They extol his learning as extensive, insist on the extreme candour of his disposition, and ascribe to him the utmost purity of morals. But while the strain of their panegyric is exposed to suspicion from its excess, they have ventured to impute to him the spirit of prophecy; so that we must necessarily receive their eulogiums with some abatement. It may be sufficient to affirm, that Mr Wishart was the most eminent preacher who had hitherto appeared in Scotland. He was certainly cultivated by reflection and study, and he was amply possessed of those abilities and qualifications which awaken and agitate the passions of the people. His ministry had been attended with the most flattering success; and his courage to encounter danger grew with his reputation. The day before he was apprehended, he said to John Knox, who attended him; "I am weary of the world, since I perceive that men are weary of God." He had already reconciled himself to that terrible death which awaited him. He was found in the house of Cockburn of Ormiston, in East Lothian; who refusing to deliver him to the fer-

489 Account of Mr George Wishart.

Scotland. servants of the regent, the earl of Bothwell, the sheriff of the county, required that he should be intrusted to his care, and promised that no injury should be done to him. But the authority of the regent and his counsellors obliged the earl to surrender his charge. He was conveyed to the cardinal's castle at St Andrew's, and his trial was hurried on with precipitation. The cardinal and the clergy proceeding in it without the concurrence of the secular power, adjudged him to be burnt alive. In the circumstances of his execution, there appears a deliberate and most barbarous cruelty. When led out to the stake, he was met by priests, who, mocking his condition, called upon him to pray to the virgin, that she might intercede with her Son for mercy to him. "Forbear to tempt me, my brethren," was his mild reply to them. A black coat of linen was put upon him by one executioner, and bags of powder were fastened to his body by another. Some pieces of ordnance were pointed to the place of execution. He spoke to the spectators, intreating them to remember that he was to die for the true gospel of Christ. Fire was communicated to the faggots. From a balcony in a tower of his castle, which was hung with tapestry, the cardinal and the prelates, reclining upon rich cushions, beheld the inhuman scene. This insolent triumph, more than all his afflictions, affected the magnanimity of the sufferer. He exclaimed, that the enemy, who so proudly solaced himself, would perish in a few days, and be exposed ignominiously in the place which he now occupied.

Cardinal Beaton took a pleasure in receiving the congratulations of the clergy upon a deed, which, it was thought, would fill the enemies of the church with terror. But the indignation of the people was more excited than their fears. All ranks of men were disgusted with an exercise of power which despised every boundary of moderation and justice. The prediction of Mr Wishart, suggested by the general odium which attended the cardinal, was considered by the disciples of this martyr as the effusion of a prophet; and perhaps gave occasion to the assassination that followed. Their complaints were attended to by Norman Lesly, the eldest son of the earl of Rothes, whom the cardinal had treated with indignity, though he had profited by his services. He consented to be their leader. The cardinal was in his castle at St Andrew's, which he was fortifying after the strongest fashion of that age. The conspirators, at different times, early in the morning, entered into it. The gates were secured; and appointing a guard, that no intimation of their proceedings might go to the cardinal, they dismissed from the castle all his workmen separately, to the number of 100, and all his domestics, who amounted to no fewer than 50 persons. The eldest son of the earl of Arran, whom he kept as an hostage for his father's behaviour, was alone detained by them. The prelate, alarmed with their noise, looked from his window, and was informed that his castle was taken by Norman Lesly. It was in vain that he endeavoured to secure the door of his chamber by bolts and chests. The conspirators brought fire, and were ready to apply it, when, admitting them into his presence, he implored their mercy. Two of them struck him hastily with their swords. But James Melvil, rebuking their passion, told them, that this work and judgment of God, though secret, ought to be done with gravity. He reminded the cardinal, in general terms, of the enormity of his sins, and reproached him in a more particular manner with the death of Mr Wishart. He swore, that no hopes of his riches, no dread of his power, and no hatred to his person, were any motives which actuated him; but that he was moved to accomplish his destruction, by the obstinacy and zeal manifested by him against Christ Jesus and his holy gospel. Waiting for no answer to his harangue, he thrust the cardinal three times through the body with his dagger, on the 29th of May 1546.

490 Cardinal Beaton assassinated.

The rumour that the castle was taken, giving an alarm to the inhabitants of St Andrew's, they came in crowds to gratify their curiosity, and to offer their assistance, according to the sentiments they entertained. The adherents and dependents of the cardinal were clamorous to see him; and the conspirators, carrying his dead body to the very place from which he had beheld the sufferings of Mr Wishart, exposed it to their view.

491 Treaty of peace between England, France, and Scotland.

The truce, in the mean time, which had been concluded with England was frequently interrupted; but no memorable battles were fought. Mutual depredations kept alive the hostile spirit of the two kingdoms; and while the regent was making military preparations, which gave the promise of important events, a treaty of peace was finished between England and France, in which Francis I. took care to comprehend the Scottish nation. In this treaty it was stipulated by Henry, that he was not to wage war against Scotland, unless he should be provoked by new and just causes of hostility.

But the murderers of cardinal Beaton, apprehensive of their safety, had dispatched messengers into England, with applications to Henry for assistance; and being joined by more than 120 of their friends, they took the resolution of keeping the castle, and of defending themselves. Henry, notwithstanding his treaty with France, resolved to embrace this opportunity of augmenting the disturbances of Scotland. He hastened to collect troops; and the regent and his counsellors pressed France for supplies in men and money, and military stores and artillery.

492 Proceedings against the murderers of the cardinal.

The high places which the cardinal occupied were filled up immediately upon his death. John Hamilton abbot of Paisley was elected archbishop of St Andrew's, and George earl of Huntley was promoted to be chancellor. By these officers the regent was urged to proceed with vigour against the conspirators; and it was a matter of the greatest anxiety to him to recover his eldest son, whom they detained in custody. The clergy had, in the most solemn manner, pronounced them to be accursed; and agreed to furnish, for four months, a monthly subsidy of 3000 l. to defray the expence of reducing them to obedience. The queen-dowager and the French faction were eager, at the same time, to concur in avenging the assassination of a man to whose counsels and services they were so greatly indebted. And that no dangerous use might be made of the eldest son of the earl of Arran, who, after his father, was the heir of the monarchy, an act of parliament was passed, excluding him from his birthright

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while he remained in the poſſeſſion of the enemies of his country, and ſubſtituting his brothers in his place, according to their ſeniority. The dark politics of Henry ſuggeſted the neceſſity of this expedient; and in its meaning and tendency there may be remarked the ſpirit and greatneſs of a free people.

493 Caſtle of St Andrews beſieged.

A powerful army laid ſiege to the caſtle of St Andrew's, and continued their operations during four months; but no ſucceſs attended the aſſailants. The fortifications were ſtrong; and a communication with the beſieged was open by ſea to the king of England, who ſupplied them with arms and proviſions. The garriſon received his pay, and the principal conſpirators had penſions from him. In return for his generoſity, they were engaged to promote the marriage of his ſon with the young queen; to advance the reformation; and to keep in cuſtody the eldeſt ſon of the regent. Negociation ſucceeded to hoſtility; and as the regent expected aſſiſtance from France, and the conſpirators had the proſpect of ſupport from an Engliſh army, both parties were diſpoſed to gain time. A treaty was entered into and tranſacted; in which the regent engaged to procure from Rome an abſolution to the conſpirators, and to obtain to them from the three eſtates an exemption from proſecutions of every kind. Upon the part of the beſieged, it was ſtipulated, that when theſe conditions were fulfilled, the caſtle ſhould be ſurrendered, and the regent's ſon be delivered up to him. In the mean time Hen. VIII. died; and a few weeks after, Francis I. alſo paid his debt to nature. But the former, before his death, had recommended the proſecution of the Scottiſh war; and Henry II. the ſucceſſor of Francis, was eager to ſhow his attention to the ancient ally of his nation. When the abſolution arrived from Rome, the conſpirators refuſed to conſider it as valid; and an expreſſion uſed by the pope, implying an abſurdity, furniſhed an apology for their conduct. They knew that the counſellors of Edward VI. were making vigorous preparations to invade Scotland; they were confident of their preſent ability to defend themſelves; and the advocates for the reformation encouraged them with hopes and with flattery.

494 Death of Henry VIII. and Francis I.

The favourers of the reformation, in the mean time, adopting the intolerant maxims of the Roman Catholics, were highly pleaſed with the aſſaſſination of Beaton; and many of them congratulated the conſpirators upon what they called their godly deed and enterpriſe. John Rough, who had formerly been chaplain to the regent, entered the caſtle and joined them. At this time alſo John Knox began to diſtinguiſh himſelf in an eminent manner, both by his ſucceſs in argument, and the unbounded freedom of his diſcourſe; while the Roman clergy, every where defeated and aſhamed, implored the aſſiſtance of the regent and his council, who aſſured them that the laws againſt heretics ſhould be put in execution.

495 John Knox begins to diſtinguiſh himſelf.

496 Caſtle of St Andrew's taken.

In the mean time the caſtle of St Andrew's being inveſted by a fleet of 16 ſail under admiral Strozzi from France, was obliged to capitulate. Honourable conditions were granted to the conſpirators; but after being conveyed to France, they were cruelly uſed, from the hatred entertained by the Catholics againſt the Proteſtants. Many were confined in priſons; and others, among whom, ſays Dr Stewart, was John Knox, were ſent to the galleys. The caſtle itſelf was razed to the ground.

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497 Scotland invaded by the Engliſh.

The ſame year, 1547, Scotland was invaded by an Engliſh army under the duke of Somerſet, who had been choſen protector of England during the minority of Edward VI. The deſign of this invaſion was to oblige the Scots to comply with the ſcheme of Henry VIII. and conclude a marriage between Edward and the young queen of Scotland. The Engliſh army conſiſted of 18,000 men; beſides which the protector had a fleet of 60 ſail, one half of which were ſhips of war, and the others conſiſted of veſſels laden with proviſions and military ſtores. On the other hand, the regent oppoſed him with an army of 40,000 men. Before the commencement of hoſtilities, however, the duke of Somerſet addreſſed a letter or manifeſto to the government; in which he preſſed the marriage with ſuch powerful arguments, and ſo clearly ſhowed the benefits which would reſult from it to both nations, that the regent and his party, who were averſe to peace, thought proper to ſuppreſs it, and to circulate a report that the Engliſh had come to force away the queen, and to reduce the kingdom to a ſtate of dependence. All hopes of an accommodation being thus removed, the Engliſh army advanced in order to give battle to the Scots. They found the latter poſted in the moſt advantageous ſituation, around the villages of Muſſelburgh, Invereſk, and Monckton; ſo that he could not force them to an action, at the ſame time that he found himſelf in danger of having his communication with his ſhips cut off, which would have totally deprived his army of the means of ſubſiſtence. In this dangerous ſituation he had again recourſe to negociation, and offered terms ſtill more favourable than before. He now declared himſelf ready to retire into England, and to make ample compenſation for the injuries committed by his army, if the Scottiſh government would promiſe that the queen ſhould not be contracted to a foreign prince, but ſhould be kept at home till ſhe was of age to chooſe a huſband for herſelf, with the conſent of the nobility. Theſe conceſſions increaſed the confidence of the regent ſo much, that, without taking advantage of the ſtrength of his ſituation, he reſolved to come to a general engagement. The protector moved towards Pinkey, a gentleman's houſe to the eaſtward of Muſſelburgh; and the regent conceiving that he meant to rake refuge in his fleet, changed the ſtrong ground in which he was encamped. He commanded his army to paſs the river Eſk, and to approach the Engliſh forces, which were poſted on the middle part of Faſide-hill. The earl of Angus led on the van; the main body of the battle marched under the regent; and the earl of Huntley commanded in the rear. It was the regent's intention to ſeize the top of the hill. The lord Grey, to defeat this purpoſe, charged the earl of Angus, at the head of the Engliſh cavalry. They were received upon the points of the Scottiſh ſpears, which were longer than the lances of the Engliſh horſemen, and put to flight. The earl of Warwick, more ſucceſsful with his command of infantry, advanced to the attack. The ordnance from the fleet aſſiſted his operations; and a briſk fire from the Engliſh artillery, which was planted on a riſing-ground, ſerved ſtill more to intimidate the Scottiſh ſoldiery. The remaining troops under

498 Battle of Pinkey.

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under the protector were moving slowly, and in the best order, to take a share in the engagement. The earl of Angus was not well supported by the regent and the earl of Huntley. A panic spread itself thro' the Scottish army. It fled in different ways, presenting a scene of the greatest havoc and confusion. Few perished in the fight; but the chase continuing in one direction to Edinburgh, and in another to Dalkeith, with the utmost fury, a prodigious slaughter was made. The loss of the conquerors did not amount to 500 men; but 10,000 soldiers perished on the side of the vanquished. A multitude of prisoners were taken; and among these the earl of Huntley, the lord high chancellor.

499 The Scots defeated with great slaughter.

Amidst the consternation of this decisive victory, the duke of Somerset had a full opportunity of effectuating the marriage and union projected by Henry VIII. and on the subject of which such fond anxiety was entertained by the English nation. But the cabals of his enemies threatening his destruction at home, he yielded to the necessities of his private ambition, and marched back into England. He took precautions, however, to secure an entry into Scotland, both by sea and land. A garrison of 200 men was placed in the isle of St Columba in the Forth, and two ships of war were left as a guard to it. A garrison was also stationed in the castle of Broughty, which was situated in the mouth of the Tay. When he passed through the Merse and Teviotdale, the leading men of these counties repaired to him; and taking an oath of allegiance to king Edward, surrendered their places of strength. Some of these he demolished, and to others he added new fortifications. Hume castle was garrisoned with 200 men, and intrusted to Sir Edward Dudley; and he posted 300 soldiers, with 200 pioneers, in the castle of Roxburgh, under the command of Sir Ralph Bulmer.

500 Duke of Somerset returns to England.

The only resource of the regent now was the hope of assistance from France. The young queen was lodged in the castle of Dunbarton, under the care of the lords Erskine and Livingstone; and ambassadors were sent to Henry II. of France, acquainting him with the disaster at Pinkey, and imploring his assistance. The regent had asked permission from the protector to treat of peace, and the earl of Warwick was appointed to wait for them at Berwick; but none were ever sent on the part of Scotland. It was not long therefore before hostilities were recommenced by the English. Lord Gray led an army into Scotland, fortified the town of Haddington, took the castles of Yester and Dalkeith, laid waste the Merse, and the counties of East and Mid Lothian. On the other hand, in June 1548, Monsieur de Dessé, a French officer of great reputation, landed at Leith with 6000 soldiers and a formidable train of artillery.

501 Farther successes of the English.

In the mean time the regent was in disgrace on account of the disaster at Pinkey; and the queen-dowager being disposed to supersede his authority, attempted to improve this circumstance to her own advantage. As she perceived that her power and interest could best be supported by France, she resolved to enter into the strictest alliance with that kingdom. It had been proposed that the dauphin of France should marry the queen of Scotland; and this proposal now met with many partizans, the hostilities of the English having lost a great number of friends to the cause of that country. It was resolved to send the queen immediately to France, which would remove the cause of the present contentions, and her subsequent marriage with the dauphin would in the fullest manner confirm the friendship betwixt the two nations. The French government also entered deeply into the scheme; and in order to promote it, made presents of great value to many of the Scottish nobility. The regent himself was gained over by a pension of 12,000 livres, and the title of duke of Chattellerault. Monsieur de Villegagnon, who commanded four galleys in the harbour of Leith, making a feint as if he intended to proceed instantly to France, tacked about to the north, and, sailing round the isles, received the queen at Dunbarton; whence he conveyed her to France, and delivered her to her uncles the princes of Lorraine, in the month of July 1548.

502 The queen sent to France.

These transactions did not put an end to the military operations. The siege of Haddington had been undertaken as soon as the French auxiliaries arrived, and was now conducted with vigour. To reinforce the garrison, 1500 horse advanced from Berwick; but an ambuscade being laid for them, they were intercepted, and almost totally destroyed. Another body of English troops, however, which amounted only to 300 persons, was more successful. Eluding the vigilance of the Scots and the French, they were able to enter Haddington, and to supply the besieged with ammunition and provisions. The lord Seymour, high admiral of England, made a descent upon Fife with 1200 men, and some pieces of artillery; but was driven back to his ships with great slaughter, by James Stuart, natural brother to the young queen, who opposed him at the head of the militia of the county. A second descent was made by him at Montrose; but being equally unsuccessful there, he was obliged to leave Scotland without performing any important or memorable atchievement.

503 The English meet with several checks.

Having collected an army of 17000 men, and adding to it 3000 German Protestants, the protector put it under the direction of the earl of Shrewsbury. Upon the approach of the English, Dessé, though he had been reinforced with 15,000 Scots, thought it prudent to retreat, and to hazard a decisive battle. He raised the siege of Haddington, and marched to Edinburgh. The earl of Shrewsbury did not follow him to force an engagement; jealousies had arisen between the Scots and the French. The insolence and vanity of the latter, encouraged by their superior skill in military arts, had offended the quick and impatient spirit of the former. The fretfulness of the Scots was augmented by the calamities inseparable from war; and after the conveyance of the young queen to France, the efficacious and peculiar advantage conferred upon that kingdom by this transaction was fully understood, and appeared to them to be highly disgraceful and impolitic. In this state of their humour, Dessé found not at Edinburgh the reception he expected. The quartering of his soldiers produced disputes, which ended in an insurrection of the inhabitants. The French fired among the citizens. Several persons of distinction fell, and among these were the provost of Edinburgh and his son. The national discontents and inquietudes were driven, by this event, to the most dan-

504 Quarrels between the Scots and French.

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dangerous extremity; and Deſſé, who was a man of ability, thought of giving employment to his troops, and of flattering the people by the ſplendour of ſome martial exploit.

505 Unſuccesful attempt on Haddington.

The earl of Shrewſbury, after ſupplying Haddington with troops, proviſions, and military ſtores, retired with his army into England. Its garriſon, in the enjoyment of ſecurity, and unſuſpicious of danger, might be ſurpriſed and overpowered. Marching in the night, Deſſé reached this important poſt; and deſtroying a fort of obſervation, prepared to ſtorm the main gates of the city, when the garriſon took the alarm. A French deſerter pointing a double cannon to the thickeſt ranks of the aſſailants, the ſhot was incredibly deſtructive, and threw them into confuſion. In the height of their conſternation, a vigorous ſally was made by the beſieged. Deſſé renewed the aſſault in the morning, and was again diſcomfited. He now turned his arms againſt Broughty caſtle; and, though unable to reduce it, he yet recovered the neighbouring town of Dundee, which had fallen into the poſſeſſion of the enemy. Hume caſtle was retaken by ſtratagem. Deſſé entered Jedburgh, and put its garriſon to the ſword. Encouraged by this ſucceſs, he ravaged the Engliſh borders in different incurſions, and obtained ſeveral petty victories. Leith, which from a ſmall village had grown into a town, was fortified by him; and the iſland of Inchkeith, which is nearly oppoſite to that harbour, being occupied by Engliſh troops, he undertook to expel them, and made them priſoners after a briſk encounter.

506 Deſſé the French general gains ſome advantages.

His activity and valour could not, however, compoſe the diſcontents of the Scottiſh nation; and the queen dowager having written to Henry II. to recall him, he was ſucceeded in his command by Monſieur de Thermes, who was accompained into Scotland by Monluc biſhop of Valence, a perſon highly eſteemed for his addreſs and ability. This eccleſiaſtic was deſigned to ſupply the loſs of cardinal Beaton, and to diſcharge the office of lord high chancellor of Scotland. But the jealouſies of the nation increaſing, and the queen-dowager herſelf ſuſpecting his ambition and turbulence, he attained not this dignity, and ſoon returned to his own country.

507 Farther ſucceſſes of the French.

De Thermes brought with him from France a reinforcement of 1000 foot, 2000 horſe, and 100 men-at-arms. He erected a fort at Aberlady, to diſtreſs the garriſon of Haddington, and to intercept its ſupplies of proviſion. At Coldingham he deſtroyed a troop of Spaniards in the Engliſh pay. Faſt-caſtle was regained by ſurpriſe. Diſtractions in the Engliſh court, did not permit the protector to act vigorouſly in the war. The earl of Warwick was diverted from marching an army into Scotland. An infectious diſtemper had broke out in the garriſon at Haddington; and an apprehenſion prevailed, that it could not hold out for any length of time againſt the Scots. The earl of Rutland, therefore, with a body of troops, entered the town; and after ſetting fire to it, conducted the garriſon and artillery to Berwick. The regent, in the poſſeſſion of Haddington, was ſolicitous to recover the other places which were yet in the power of the Engliſh. De Thermes laid ſiege to Broughty caſtle, and took it. He then beſieged Lawder; and the garriſon was about to ſurrender at diſcretion, when the news arrived that a peace was concluded between France, England, and Scotland.

508 Peace concluded.

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By this treaty Henry II. obtained the reſtitution of Boulogne and its dependencies, which had been taken from him by the king of England, and for which he paid 400,000 crowns. No oppoſition was to be given to the marriage of the queen of Scotland with the dauphin; the fortreſſes of Lawder and Douglas were to be reſtored to the Scots, and the Engliſh were to deſtroy the caſtles of Roxburgh and Eymouth. After the ratification of the articles, the queen-dowager embarked with Leon Strozzi for France, attended by many of the nobility. Having arrived there, ſhe communicated to the king her deſign of aſſuming the government of Scotland, and he promiſed to aſſiſt her to the utmoſt of his power. But the jealouſy which prevailed between the Scotch and French rendered the accompliſhment of this deſign very difficult. To remove the regent by an act of power, might endanger the ſcheme altogether; but it might be poſſible to perſuade him to reſign his office voluntarily. For this purpoſe intrigues were immediately commenced; and indeed the regent himſelf contributed to promote their ſchemes by his violent perſecution of the reformed. The peace was hardly proclaimed, when he provoked the public reſentment by an action of ſanguinary inſolence. Adam Wallace, a man of ſimple manners, but of great zeal for the reformation, was accuſed of hereſy, and brought to trial in the church of the Black Friars at Edinburgh. In the preſence of the regent, the earls of Angus, Huntley, Glencairn, and other perſons of diſtinction and rank, he was charged with preaching without any authority of law, with baptizing one of his own children, and with denying the doctrine of purgatory; and it was ſtrenuouſly objected to him, that he accounted prayers to the ſaints and the dead to be an uſeleſs ſuperſtition, that he had pronounced the maſs to be an idolatrous ſervice, and that he had affirmed that the bread and wine in the ſacrament of the altar, after the words of the conſecration, do not change their nature, but continue to be bread and wine. Theſe offences were eſteemed too terrible to admit of any pardon. The earl of Glencairn alone proteſted againſt his puniſhment. The pious ſufferer bore with reſignation the contumelious inſults of the clergy; and by his courage and patience at the ſtake gave a ſanction to the opinions he had embraced.

509 The queen dowager goes to France, and ſchemes againſt the regent.

510 Adam Wallace ſuffers on account of religion.

Other acts of atrocity and violence ſtained the adminiſtration of the regent. In his own palace, William Crichton, a man of family and reputation, was aſſaſſinated by the lord Semple. No attempt was made to puniſh the murderer. His daughter was the concubine of the archbiſhop of St Andrew's, and her tears and intreaties were more powerful than juſtice. John Melvil, a perſon reſpectable by his birth and his fortune, had written to an Engliſh gentleman, recommending to his care a friend who at that time was a captive in England. This letter contained no improper information in matters of ſtate, and no ſuſpicion of any crime againſt Melvil could be inferred from it. Yet the regent brought him to trial upon a charge of high treaſon; and, for an act of humanity and friendſhip, he was condemned to loſe his head. The eſtate of Melvil, forfeited to his family, was given to David the youngeſt ſon of the regent.

511 Other inſtances of the regent's inhumanity and injuſtice.

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512 Schemes of the queen-dowager to obtain the regency.

Amidst the pleasures and amusements of the French court, the queen-dowager was not inattentive to the scheme of ambition which she had projected. The earls of Huntley and Sutherland, Marischal and Cassilis, with the lord Maxwell, and other persons of eminence who had accompanied her to France, were gained over to her interests. Robert Carnegie of Kinnaird, David Panter bishop of Ross, and Gavin Hamilton commendator of Kilwinning, being also at this time in that kingdom, and having the greatest weight with the regent, were treated with a most punctilious respect. Henry declared to them his earnest wish that the queen-dowager might attain the government of Scotland. In case the regent should consent to this measure, he expressed a firm intention that no detriment should happen to his consequence and affairs; and he desired them to inform him, that he had already confirmed his title of *duke of Chatelherault*, had advanced his son to be captain of the Scots gendarmes in France, and was ready to tender other marks of favour to his family and relations. Upon this business, and with this message, Mr Carnegie was dispatched to Scotland; and a few days after, he was followed by the bishop of Ross. The bishop being a man of eloquence and authority, obtained, tho' with great difficulty, a promise from the regent to resign his high office; and for this service he received, as a recompence, an abbey in Poitou. The queen-dowager, full of hopes, prepared to return to Scotland.

513 She returns to Scotland.

The queen-dowager now prepared to return to Scotland, and in her way thither made use of a safe-conduct obtained from Edward VI. by the king of France. The English monarch, however, had not yet forgot the beautiful queen of Scotland; and did not fail to urge his superiority of claim to her over the dauphin. The queen-dowager did not seriously enter upon the business; only in general terms complained of the hostilities committed by the English; and two days after this conversation, she proceeded towards Scotland, where she was conducted by the earl of Bothwel, lord Hume, and some other noblemen, to Edinburgh, amidst the acclamations of the people. She had not long been returned to the capital, when the bad conduct of the regent afforded her an opportunity of exerting her influence and address to the advantage of her project. The regent having proposed a judicial circuit through the kingdom, under pretence of repressing crimes and disorders, molested the people by plunder and rapine. Great fines were levied for offences pretended as well as real; and the Protestants in particular seemed to be the objects of his displeasure and severity. In his progress he was accompanied by the queen-dowager; and, as she affected to behave in a manner directly opposite, the most disagreeable comparisons were made between her and the regent. The bishop of Ross, to whom he had promised to resign his office, did not fail to put him in mind of his engagements; but he had now altered his mind, and wished still to continue in power. His resolution, however, failed him on the first intimation of a parliamentary inquiry into the errors of his administration. An agreement with the queen-dowager then took place; and it was stipulated, that he should succeed to the throne upon the death of the queen without issue; that his son should enjoy the command of the gendarmes; that no inquiry should be made into his expenditure of the royal treasures; that no scrutiny into his government should take place; and that he should enjoy in the most ample manner his duchy and his pension. These articles were ratified at an assembly of parliament, and the queen-dowager was formally invested with the regency.

514 Rapacity and injustice of the regent.

515 He resigns his office, which is given to the queen-dowager.

Mary of Lorraine, the new regent, though she had with great difficulty attained the summit of her wishes, seemed to be much less versant in the arts of government than of intrigue. She was scarce settled in her new office when she rendered herself unpopular in two respects; one was by her too great attachment to France, and the other by her persecution of the reformed religion. She was entirely guided by the councils of her brothers the duke of Guise and the cardinal of Lorraine; and paid by far too much attention to M. d'Oysel the French ambassador, whom they recommended to her as an able and faithful minister. Several high offices were filled with Frenchmen, which excited in the highest degree the resentment of the Scottish nobility; and the commonalty were instantly prejudiced against her by the partiality she showed to the Papists. At first, however, she enacted many salutary laws; and while she made a progress herself through the southern provinces of the kingdom to hold justiciary courts, she endeavoured to introduce order and law into the western countries and isles; first by the earl of Huntley, and afterwards by the earls of Argyle and Athole, to whom she granted commissions for this purpose with effectual powers. In another improvement, which the queen-regent attempted in vain to establish a standing army, she found herself opposed by her own people. It was proposed that the possessions of every proprietor of land in the kingdom should be valued and entered into registers; and that a proportional payment should be made by each. The application of this fund was to maintain a regular and standing body of soldiers. This guard or army, it was urged, being at all times in readiness to march against an enemy, would protect effectually the frontiers; and there would no longer be any necessity for the nobles to be continually in motion on every rumour of hostility or incursion from English invaders. No art, however, or argument, could recommend these measures. A perpetual tax and a standing army were conceived to be the genuine characteristics of despotism. All ranks of men considered themselves to be insulted and abused; and 300 tenants of the crown assembling at Edinburgh, and giving way to their indignation, sent their remonstrances to the queen-regent in such strong and expressive language, as induced her to abandon the scheme. Yet even thus the attempt she had made left an impression in the minds of the people. They suspected her to be a secret enemy to their government and liberties; and they were convinced that Henry II. was engaging her in refinements and artifices, that he might reduce Scotland to be a province of France.

515 She renders herself unpopular.

517 Attempts in vain to establish a standing army.

518 John Knox encourages the reformers.

While an alarm about their civil rights was spreading itself among the people, the Protestants were rising daily in their spirit and in their hopes. John Knox (A), whose courage had been confirmed by misfortunes, cha-

(A) When he was sent to France, (says Dr Stewart) with the conspirators against cardinal Beaton, he was confined to the galleys; but had obtained his liberty in the latter end of the year 1549.

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and whose talents had improved by exercise, was at this time making a progress through Scotland. The characteristic peculiarities of Popery were the favourite topics of his declamation and censure. He treated the mass, in particular, with the most sovereign contempt, representing it as a remnant of idolatry. Many of the nobility and gentry afforded him countenance and protection. They invited him to preach at their houses, and they partook with him in the ordinances of religion after the reformed method. Religious societies and assemblies were held publicly, in defiance of the Papists; and celebrated preachers were courted with assiduity and bribes, to reside and officiate in particular districts and towns. The clergy cited him to appear before them at Edinburgh, in the church of the Black-friars. On the appointed day he presented himself, with a numerous attendance of gentlemen, who were determined to exert themselves in his behalf. The priesthood did not choose to proceed in his prosecution; and Mr Knox, encouraged by this symptom of their fear, took the resolution to explain and inculcate his doctrines repeatedly and openly in the capital city of Scotland. In 1556, the earl of Glencairn allured the earl Marischal to hear the exhortations of this celebrated preacher; and they were so much affected with his reasonings and rhetoric, that they requested him to address the queen-regent upon the subject of the reformation of religion. In compliance with this request, he wrote a letter in very disagreeable terms; and the earl of Glencairn delivered it with his own hand, in the expectation that some advantage might in this manner be obtained for the reformed. But the queen-regent was no less offended with the freedom of the nobleman than the preacher; and, after perusing the paper, she gave it to James Beaton archbishop of Glasgow, with an expression of disdain, "Here, my lord, is a pasquil."

519 Writes an offensive letter to the queen-regent.

Amidst these occupations, Mr Knox received an invitation to take the charge of the English congregation at Geneva; which he accepted. The clergy called upon him, in his absence, to appear before them, condemned him to death as a heretic, and ordered him to be burned in effigy.

520 Goes to Geneva, and is burnt in effigy.

The injurious treatment of Mr Knox did not in the least obstruct the progress of the reformation. Desertions were made from Popery in every town and village; and even many members of the church, both secular and regular, were forward to embrace the new principles, and to atone for their past mistakes by the bitterest railleries against the corruptions and the folly of the Romish faith. The priests were treated in all places with ridicule and contempt. The images, crucifixes, and relics, which served to rouse the decaying fervours of superstition, were stolen from the churches, and trampled under foot. The bishops implored the assistance of the queen-regent. Citations were given to the preachers to appear in their defence. They obeyed; but with such a formidable retinue, that it was with difficulty she was permitted to apologise for her conduct. James Chalmers of Gaitgirth, pressing forward from the crowd, addressed himself to her: "We vow to God, that the devices of the prelates shall not be carried into execution. We are oppressed to maintain them in their idleness. They seek to undo and murder our preachers and us; and we are determined to submit no longer to this wickedness." The multitude, applauding his speech, put their hands to their daggers.

521 Progress of the reformation.

A trusty messenger was dispatched to Geneva, inviting John Knox to return to his own country. But in the infancy of their connection, the Protestants being apprehensive of one another, uncertain in their counsels, or being deserted by persons upon whom they had relied, it appeared to them that they had adopted this measure without a due preparation; and, by opposite dispatches, Mr Knox was requested to delay his journey for some time.

To this zealous reformer their unsteadiness was a matter of serious affliction; and in the answer he transmitted to their letters, he rebuked them with severity; but amidst this correction he intreated them not to faint under their purposes, from apprehensions of danger, which, he said, was to separate themselves from the favour of God, and to provoke his vengeance. To particular persons he wrote other addresses; and to all of them the greatest attention was paid. In 1557, a formal bond of agreement, which obtained the appellation of *the first Covenant*, was entered into, and all the more eminent persons who favoured the reformation were invited to subscribe it. The earls of Argyle, Glencairn, and Morton, with the lord Lorn, and John Erskine of Dun, led the way, by giving it the sanction of their names. All the subscribers to this deed, renouncing the superstitions and idolatry of the church of Rome, promised to apply continually their whole power and wealth, and even to give up their lives, to forward and establish the word of God. They distinguished the reformed, by calling them the *Congregation of Christ*; and by the opprobrious title of the *Congregation of Satan*, they peculiarized the favourers of Popery.

522 The first covenant.

After the leaders of the reformation had subscribed the first covenant, they addressed letters to John Knox, urging in the strongest terms his return to Scotland; and that their hopes of his assistance might not be disappointed, they sent an address to John Calvin, the celebrated reformer, begging him to join his commands to their intreaties. The archbishop of St Andrew's, who perceived the rising storm, was in a difficult situation. A powerful combination threatened ruin to the church; and he had separated himself from the politics of the queen-regent. The zeal of the Roman Catholics pointed out strong measures to him; and his dispositions were pacific. The clergy were offended with his remissness and neglect of duty. The reformers detested his loosenesses of principles, and were shocked with the dissolute depravity of his life and conversation. He resolved to try the force of address, and did not succeed. He then resolved to be severe, and was still more unsuccessful.

523 John Knox and Calvin invited into Scotland.

The earl of Argyle was the most powerful of the reformed leaders. To allure him from his party, the archbishop of St Andrew's employed the agency of Sir David Hamilton. But the kindness he affected, and the advices he bestowed, were no compliment to the understanding of this nobleman; and his threats were regarded with scorn. The reformers, instead of losing their courage, felt a sentiment of exultation and triumph; and the earl of Argyle happening to die about this time, he not only maintained the new doctrines in his last moments, but intreated his son to seek for

524 The archbishop of St Andrew's attempts in vain to seduce the earl of Argyle.

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for honour in promoting the public preaching of the gospel, and Jesus Christ, and in the utter ruin of superstition and idolatry.

It was determined by the archbishop and the prelates, that this disappointment should be succeeded by a furious persecution of the reformed. Walter Mill, a priest, had neglected to officiate at the altar; and having been long under the suspicion of heresy, was carried to St Andrew's, committed to prison, and accused before the archbishop and his suffragans. He was in an extreme old age; and he had struggled all his life with poverty. He sunk not, however, under the hardness of his fate. To the articles of his accusation he replied with signal recollection and fortitude. The firmness of his mind, in the emaciated state of his body, excited admiration. The insults of his enemies, and their contempt, served to discover his superiority over them. When the clergy declared him a heretic, no temporal judge could be found to condemn him to the fire. He was respited to another day; and so great sympathy prevailed for his misfortunes, that it was necessary to allure one of the archbishop's domestics to supply the place of the civil power, and to pronounce the sentence of condemnation. When brought to the stake, the resolution of this sufferer did not forsake him. He praised God, that he had been called to seal up the truth with his life; and he conjured the people, as they would escape eternal death, not to be overcome by the errors and the artifices of monks and priests, abbots and bishops.

525 Walter Mill executed on account of religion.

526 The Protestants resolve to assert their rights.

The barbarity of this execution affected the reformers with inexpressible horror. Subscriptions for mutual defence were taken. The leaders of the reformation, dispersing their emissaries to every quarter, encouraged the vehemence of the multitude. The covenant to establish a new form of religion extended far and wide. The sharp point of the sword, not the calm exertions of inquiry, was to decide the disputes of theology.

When the leaders of the reformation were apprised of the ardent zeal of the people, and considered the great number of subscriptions which had been collected in the different counties of the kingdom, they assembled to deliberate concerning the steps to be pursued. It was resolved, accordingly, that a public and common supplication of the whole body of the Protestants should be presented to the queen-regent; which, after complaining of the injuries they had suffered, should require her to bestow upon them her support and assistance, and urge her to proceed in the work of a reformation. To explain their full meaning, a schedule, containing particular demands, was at the same time to be presented to her scrutiny. To Sir James Sandilands of Calder they committed the important charge of their manifesto and articles of reformation; and in appointing him to this commission, they consulted the respect which was due both to the government and to themselves. His character was in the highest estimation. His services to his country were numerous; his integrity and honour were superior to all suspicion; and his age and experience gave him authority and reverence.

527 Petition the queen-regent.

The petition or supplication of the Protestants was expressed in strong but respectful terms. They told the queen-regent, that though they had been provoked by great injuries, they had yet, during a long period, abstained from assembling themselves, and from making known to her their complaints. Banishment, confiscation of goods, and death in its most cruel shape, were evils with which the reformed had been afflicted; and they were still exposed to these dreadful calamities. Compelled by their sufferings, they presumed to ask a remedy against the tyranny of the prelates and the estate ecclesiastical. They had usurped an unlimited domination over the minds of men. Whatever they commanded, though without any sanction from the word of God, must be obeyed. Whatever they discharged, though from their own authority only, must be avoided. All arguments and remonstrances were equally fruitless and vain. The fire, the faggot, and the sword, were the weapons with which the church enforced and vindicated her mandates. By these, of late years, many of their brethren had fallen; and upon this account they were troubled and wounded in their consciences. For, conceiving themselves to be a part of that power which God had established in this kingdom, it was their duty to have defended them, or to have concurred with them in an open avowal of their common religion. They now take the opportunity to make this avowal. They break a silence which may be misinterpreted into a justification of the cruelties of their enemies. And disdaining all farther dissimulation in matters which concern the glory of God, their present happiness, and their future salvation, they demand, that the original purity of the Christian religion shall be restored; and that the government shall be so improved, as to afford to them a security in their persons, their opinions, and their property.

With this petition, or supplication, of the Protestants, Sir James Sandilands presented their schedule of demands, or the preliminary articles of the reformation. They were in the spirit of their supplication, and of the following tenor.

528 Articles of the reformation.

I. It shall be lawful to the reformed to peruse the scriptures in the vulgar tongue; and to employ also their native language in prayer publicly and in private.

II. It shall be permitted to any person qualified by knowledge, to interpret and explain the difficult passages in the scriptures.

III. The election of ministers shall take place according to the rules of the primitive church; and those who elect shall inquire diligently into the lives and doctrines of the persons whom they admit to the clerical office.

IV. The holy sacrament of baptism shall be celebrated in the vulgar tongue, that its institution and nature may be the more generally understood.

V. The holy sacrament of the Lord's supper shall likewise be administered in the vulgar tongue; and in this communion, as well as in the ceremonial of baptism, a becoming respect shall be paid to the plain institution of Christ Jesus.

VI. The wicked and licentious lives of the bishops and estate ecclesiastical shall be reformed; and if they discharge not the duties of true and faithful pastors, they

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529 The Protestants flattered by the queen-regent.

The queen-regent now found it necessary to flatter the Protestants. She assured them by Sir James Sandilands, their orator or commissioner, that every thing they could legally desire should be granted to them; and that, in the mean time, they might, without molestation, employ the vulgar tongue in their prayers and religious exercises. But, upon the pretence that no encouragement might be given to tumults and riot, she requested that they would hold no public assemblies in Edinburgh or Leith. The Congregation, for this name was now assumed by the Protestants, were transported with these tender proofs of her regard; and while they sought to advance still higher in her esteem by the inoffensive quietness of their carriage, they were encouraged in the undertaking they had begun, and to accomplish the work of the reformation.

530 They offer to dispute with the Romish clergy.

Nor to the clergy, who at this time were holding a provincial council at Edinburgh, did the Congregation scruple to communicate the articles of the intended reformation. The clergy received their demands with a storm of rage, which died away in an innocent debility. Upon recovering from their passions, they offered to submit the controversy between them and the reformed to a public disputation. The congregation did not refuse this mode of trial; and desired, as their only conditions, that the scriptures might be considered as the standards of orthodoxy and truth, and that those of their brethren who were in exile and under persecution might be permitted to assist them. These requests, though reasonable in a high degree, were not complied with; and the church would allow no rule of right but the canon law and its own councils. Terms of reconciliation were then offered on the part of the estate ecclesiastical. It held out to the Protestants the liberty of praying and administering the sacraments in the vulgar tongue, if they would pay reverence to the mass, acknowledge purgatory, invoke the saints, and admit of petitions for the dead. To conditions so ineffectual and absurd the Congregation did not deign to return any answer.

531 Present their articles to the queen regent.

The meeting of the parliament approached. The parties in contention were agitated with anxieties, apprehensions, and hopes. An expectation of a firm and open assistance from the queen-regent, gave courage to the reformed; and, from the parliamentary influence of their friends in the greater and the lesser baronage, they expected the most important services. They drew up with eagerness the articles which they wished to be passed into a law; and as the spirit and sense of their transactions are to be gathered in the completest manner from the papers which were framed by themselves, it is proper to attend to them with a punctilious exactness. Their petitions were few and explicit.

I. They could not, in consequence of principles which they had embraced from a conviction of their truth, participate in the Romish religion. It was therefore their desire, that all the acts of parliament, giving authority to the church to proceed against them as heretics, should be abrogated; or, at least, that their power should be suspended till the disputes which had arisen were determined and brought to a conclusion. Scotland.

II. They did not mean that all men should be at liberty to profess what religion they pleased, without the control of authority. They consented that all transgressors in matters of faith should be carried before the temporal judge. But it was their wish that the clergy should have only the power to accuse; and they thought it conformable to justice, that a copy of the criminal charge should be lodged with the party upon trial, and that a competent time should be allowed him to defend himself.

III. They insisted, that every defence consistent with law should be permitted to the party accused; and that objections to witnesses, founded in truth and reason, should operate to his favour.

IV. They desired that the party accused should have permission to interpret and explain his own opinions; and that his declaration should carry a greater evidence than the deposition of any witness; as no person ought to be punished for religion, who is not obstinate in a wicked or damnable tenet.

V. In fine, they urged, that no Protestant should be condemned for heresy, without being convicted, by the word of God, of the want of that faith which is necessary to salvation.

The Congregation presented these articles to the queen-regent, expecting that she would not only propose them to the three estates assembled in parliament, but employ all her influence to recommend them. But finding themselves disappointed, they began to suspect her sincerity; and they were sensible that their petitions, though they should be carried in parliament, could not pass into a law without her consent. They therefore abstained from presenting them; but as their complaints and desires were fully known in parliament, they ordered a solemn declaration to be read there in their behalf, and demanded that it should be inserted in the records of the nation. In this declaration, after expressing their regret for having been disappointed in their scheme of reformation, they protested, that no blame should be imputed to them for continuing in their religion, which they believed to be founded in the word of God; that no danger of life, and no political pains, should be incurred by them, for disregarding statutes which support idolatry, and for violating rites which are of human invention; and that, if insurrections and tumults should disturb the realm, from the diversity of religious opinions, and if abuses should be corrected by violence, all the guilt, disorder, and inconvenience thence arising, instead of being applied to them, should be ascribed to those solely who had refused a timely redress of wrongs, and who had despised petitions presented with the humility of faithful subjects, and for the purposes of establishing the commandments of God, and a most just and salutary reformation. 532 Protest against her proceedings

The three estates received this formidable protest with attention and respect; but the intention of inserting it in the national records was abandoned by the Congregation, upon a formal promise from the queen-regent, that all the matters in controversy should speedily be brought by her to a fortunate issue.

While the Protestants were thus making the most vigo-

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vigorous exertions in behalf of their spiritual liberties, the queen-regent, in order to establish herself the more effectually, used every effort to promote the marriage of her daughter with the dauphin of France. In 1557, commissioners were appointed to negociate this marriage; but while these negociations were going on, the court of France acted in the most perfidious manner. The king and the princes of Lorraine, abusing the confidence reposed in them by the queen of Scotland, and taking advantage of her youth and inexperience, engaged her privately to sign three extraordinary deeds or instruments. By the first she conveyed the kingdom of Scotland to the king of France and his heirs, in the default of children of her own body. By the second she assigned him, if she should die without children, the possession of Scotland, till he should receive a million of pieces of gold, or be amply recompenced for the sums expended by him in the education of the queen of Scotland in France. By the third she confirmed both these grants in an express declaration, that they contained the pure and genuine sentiments of her mind; and that any papers which might be obtained, either before or after her marriage, by means of the Scottish parliament, should be invalid, and of no force nor efficacy. On the 24th of April, the nuptials were celebrated; and the dauphin, Francis, was allowed to assume the title of king of Scotland. The French court demanded for him the crown and other ensigns of royalty belonging to Scotland; but the commissioners had no power to comply with their request. It was then desired, that when they returned home, they should use all their influence to procure the crown-matrimonial of Scotland for the dauphin. This also was refused; the court of France was disgusted; and four of the commissioners died, it was supposed of poison, given them by the princes of Lorraine. This subject, however, was pressed, on the return of the surviving commissioners, by the king of France himself, the queen of Scotland, and the queen-regent. The Protestants also joined their interest, hoping by that means to gain over the queen and queen-regent to their party; so that an act of parliament was at length passed, by which the crown-matrimonial was given to the dauphin during the time of his marriage with queen Mary; but without any prejudice to the liberties of the kingdom, to the heirs of her body, or to the order of succession. With so many restraints, it is difficult to see the advantages which could accrue from this gift so earnestly sought after; and it is very probable that the usurpations of France in consequence of it would have been productive of many disturbances; but these were prevented by the death of Francis in December 1560.

533 Perfidious conduct of the court of France.

534 Marriage of the queen of Scots with the dauphin of France.

535 He obtains the crown of Scotland, but under certain restrictions.

But before this event took place, Scotland was, by the intrigues of France, involved in confusion on another account. After the death of Mary queen of England, and daughter to Henry VIII. the princess of Guise insisted on the claim of Mary queen of Scots to the crown of England, in preference to that of Elizabeth, whom they looked upon as illegitimate. This claim was supported by the king of France, who prevailed with the queen of Scots herself to assume the title of queen of England, and to stamp money under that character. The arms of England were quartered with those of France and Scotland; and employed as ornaments for plate and furniture of Mary and the dauphin. Thus was laid the foundation of an irreconcileable quarrel between Elizabeth and Mary; and to this in some measure are we to ascribe the inveteracy with which the former persecuted the unhappy queen of Scotland at every time she had it in her power.

536 The queen of Scots claims the crown of England.

537 Which lays the foundation of a quarrel with Elizabeth.

But while they imprudently excited a quarrel with England, they yet more imprudently quarrelled also with the majority of the people of Scotland. As Elizabeth professed the Protestant religion, it was easily foreseen, that the *Congregation*, or body of the reformed in Scotland, would never consent to act against her in favour of a Popish power; and as they could not be gained, it was resolved to destroy them at once, by putting to death all their leaders. The queen-regent gave intimation of her design to re-establish Popery, by proclaiming a solemn observance of Easter, receiving the sacrament according to the Romish communion herself, and commanding all her household to receive it in the same manner. She next expressed herself in a contemptuous manner against the reformed, affirmed that they had insulted the royal dignity, and declared her intention of restoring it to its ancient lustre. The preachers of the Congregation were next cited to appear at Sirling, to answer the charges which might be brought against them. Alexander earl of Glencairn, and Sir Hugh Campbell of Loudon, were deputed to admonish her not to persecute the preachers, unless they had been obnoxious by circulating erroneous doctrines, or disturbing the peace of government. The queen-regent in a passion told them, that the preachers should all be banished Scotland, though their doctrines were as sound as those of St Paul. The deputies urged her former kind behaviour and promises; but the queen-regent answered, that "the promises of princes ought not to be exacted with rigour, and that they were binding only when subservient to their conveniency and pleasure." To this they replied, that in such a case they could not look upon her as their sovereign, and must renounce their allegiance as subjects.

538 Scheme to destroy all the leaders of the Protestant party in Scotland.

539 Treacherous behaviour of the queen-regent.

Soon after this transaction, the queen-regent received the news that the reformation was established in Perth. Lord Ruthven the provost of the city was summoned to answer for this innovation; but his reply was, that he had no dominion over the minds and consciences of men. The provost of Dundee, being ordered to apprehend an eminent preacher named *Paul Methven*, sent him intelligence of the order, that he might provide for his safety. The proclamation for observing Easter was every where despised and neglected, and people exclaimed against the mass as an idol. New citations in the mean time had been given to the preachers to appear at Stirling. They obeyed the summons; but attended by such multitudes, that the queen-regent, dreading their power, though they were without arms, intreated Mr Erskine of Dun, whom they had sent before as a deputy, to stop their march; assuring him that all proceedings against the preachers should be stopped. In consequence of this, the multitude dismissed; yet, when the day came on which the preachers should have appeared, the queen-regent,

540 Proceedings against the Protestants.

541 They become formidable by their numbers.

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with unparallelled folly as well as treachery, caused them to be declared traitors, and proclaimed it criminal to afford them any subsistence.

542 John Knox returns to Scotland.

Mr Erskine, exasperated by this shameful conduct, hastened to the Congregation, apologised for his conduct, and urged them to proceed to the last extremities. At this critical period also John Knox returned from Geneva, and joined the Congregation at Perth. The great provocations which the Protestants had already received, joined to the impetuous passions of the multitude, were now productive of the greatest disorders. Images were destroyed, monasteries pulled down, and their wealth either seized by the mob or given to the poor. The example of Perth was followed by Coupar in Fife; and similar insurrections being apprehended in other places, the queen-regent determined to punish the inhabitants of Perth in the most exemplary manner. With this view she collected an army; but being opposed with a formidable power by the Protestants, she thought proper to conclude an agreement.

543 Second covenant. Treachery of the queen-regent.

The Protestants, however, dreaded her insincerity; and therefore entered into a new covenant to stand by and defend one another. There fears were not vain. The queen-regent violated the treaty almost as soon as made, and began to treat the Protestants with severity. The earl of Argyle, and the prior of St Andrew's, who about this time began to take the title of *lord James Stuart*, now openly headed the Protestant party, and prepared to collect their whole strength. The queen-regent opposed them with what forces she had, and which indeed chiefly consisted of her French auxiliaries; but, being again afraid of coming to an engagement, she consented to a truce, until commissioners should be sent to treat with the lords of an effectual peace. No commissioners, however, were sent on her part; and the nobles, provoked at such complicated and unceasing treachery, resolved to push matters to the utmost extremity.

544 Perth taken by the Protestants.

The first exploit of the reformed was the taking of the town of Perth, where the queen-regent had placed a French garrison. The multitude, elated with this atchievement, destroyed the palace and abbey of Scone, in spite of all the endeavours of their leaders, even of John Knox himself, to save them. The queen-regent, apprehensive that the congregation would commit farther ravages to the southward, resolved to throw a garrison into Stirling; but the earl of Argyle and lord James Stuart were too quick for her, and arrived there the very day after the demolition of the abbey and palace of Scone. The people, incapable of restraint, and provoked beyond measure by the perfidious behaviour of the Catholic party, demolished all the monasteries in the neighbourhood, together with the fine abbey of Cambuskenneth, situated on the north bank of the Forth. From Stirling they went to Linlithgow, where they committed their usual ravages; after which, they advanced to Edinburgh.

545 The queen-regent flies to Dunbar, and the Protestants become masters of Edinburgh.

The queen-regent, alarmed at their approach, fled to Dunbar; and the Protestants took up their residence in Edinburgh.

Having thus got possession of the capital, the congregation assumed to themselves the ruling power of the kingdom, appointed preachers in all the churches, and seized the mint, with all the instruments of coining. The queen-regent, unable to dispute the matter in the field, published a manifesto, in which she set forth their seditious behaviour, commanding them to leave Edinburgh within six hours, and enjoining her subjects to avoid their society under the pain of treason. The congregation having already lost somewhat of their popularity by their violent proceedings, were now incapable of coping with government. As they had not established themselves in any regular body, or provided a fund for their support, they felt their strength decay, and multitudes of them returned to their habitations. Those who remained found themselves obliged to vindicate their conduct; and, in an address to the regent, to disclaim all treasonable intentions. Negociations again took place, which ended as usual; the queen-regent, who had taken this opportunity of collecting her forces, marched against the congregation on the 23d of July 1558. The Protestants now found themselves incapable of making head against their enemies; and therefore entered into a negociation, by which all differences were for the present accommodated. The terms of this treaty were, that the town of Edinburgh should be open to the queen-dowager and her attendants; that the palace of Holyrood-house and the mint should be delivered up to her; that the Protestants should be subject to the laws, and abstain from molesting the Roman-catholics in the exercise of their religion. On the queen's part, it was agreed, that the Protestants should have the free exercise of their religion, and that no foreign troops should enter the city of Edinburgh.

546 They lose their popularity, and fall into distress.

547 A treaty concluded.

Notwithstanding this treaty, however, the reformed had no confidence in the queen's sincerity. Having heard of the death of Henry II. of France, and the accession of Francis II. and Mary to that kingdom, they seem to have apprehended more danger than ever. They now entered into a third covenant; in which they engaged themselves to refuse attendance to the queen-dowager, in case of any message or letter; and that immediately on the receipt of any notice from her to any of their number, it should be communicated without reserve, and be made a common subject of scrutiny and deliberation. It was not long before they had occasion for all their constancy and strength. The queen-regent repented of the favourable terms she had granted the reformed; and being denied the favour which she requested of saying mass in the high-church of Edinburgh, she ordered them to be every where disturbed in the exercise of their religion.

548 Third covenant.

549 The treaty broken by the queen-regent.

In this imprudent measure, the queen-regent was confirmed by letters which now came from Francis and Mary, promising a powerful army to support her interests. The envoy who brought these dispatches also carried letters to the lord James Stuart, now the principal leader of the Protestants, and natural brother to the queen. The letters were filled with reproaches and menaces, mixed with intreaties; and along with them the envoy delivered a verbal message, that the king his master was resolved rather to expend all the treasures of France than not to be revenged on the rebellious nobles who had disturbed the peace of Scotland. The lord James Stuart was not to be frightened by these menaces. He returned a cool and deliberate answer, apologizing for the Protestants, and vindicating them from the charge of rebellion; but at the same time intimating his full resolution of continuing to head the reformed as he had already done.

550 France supports the Catholic party.

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The letters of Francis and Mary were soon followed by 1000 French soldiers, with money and military stores; and the commander was immediately dispatched again to France, to solicit the assistance of as many more soldiers, with four ships of war, and 100 men-at-arms. But before he could set out, La Brosse, another French commander, arrived with 2000 infantry; and that the congregation might be defeated not only by arms but in disputation, the same ship brought three doctors of the Sorbonne, to show the pernicious tendency of the new doctrines. Thus matters were pushed on beyond all hopes of reconciliation. The nation was universally alarmed on account of the introduction of French troops, to which they saw no end. The queen-regent attempted to quiet the minds of the public by a proclamation; but their fears increased the more. The congregation assembled at Stirling, where they were joined by the earl of Arran, and soon after by his father the duke of Chattellerault. They next deliberated on the measures to be followed with the queen-regent; and the result of their consultations was, that an expostulatory letter should be addressed to her. This was accordingly done; but as the queen behaved with her usual duplicity, the nobles called the people to arms. Mutual manifestos were now published; and both parties prepared to decide the contest by the sword. The congregation having seized Broughty castle, marched from thence to Edinburgh. The queen-regent retired to Leith, which she had fortified and filled with French troops. Thither the nobles sent their last message to her, charging her with a design to overthrow the civil liberties of the kingdom. They requested her to command her Frenchmen and mercenaries to depart from Leith, and to make that place open and patent, not only to the inhabitants who had been dispossessed of their houses, but to all the inhabitants of Scotland. They declared, that her denial of this request should be considered by them as a proof of her intention to reduce the kingdom to slavery; in which case, they were determined to employ their utmost power to preserve its independency. Two days after this message, the queen-regent sent to them the lord Lyon, whom she enjoined to tell them, that she considered their demand not only as presumptous, but as an encroachment on the royal authority; that it was an indignity to her to be dictated to by subjects; that Frenchmen were not to be treated as foreigners, being entitled to the same privileges with Scotsmen; and that she would neither disband her troops, nor command the town of Leith to be made open and patent. The lord Lyon then, in the name of the queen-regent, commanded the lords of the congregation to depart from Edinburgh, and disperse themselves, under the pain of high-treason. The Protestants, irritated by this answer, after some deliberation, degraded the queen-regent; and to this purpose the nobility, barons, and burgesses, all agreed in subscribing an edict, which was sent to the principal cities in Scotland, and published in them.

561 French auxiliaries arrive, which alarms the nation.

562 The nobles send their last message to the queen-regent.

563 Receive an unfavourable answer.

564 They degrade her from her office, and lay siege to Leith.

The next step taken by the congregation was to summon Leith to surrender; but meeting with defiance instead of submission, it was resolved to take the town by scalade. For this service ladders were framed in the church of St Giles; a business which, interrupting the preachers in the exercise of public worship, made them prognosticate misfortune and miscarriage to the congregation. In the displeasure of the preachers, the common people found a source of complaint; and the emissaries of the queen-dowager acting with indefatigable industry to divide her adversaries, and to spread chagrin and dissatisfaction among them, discontent, animosity, and terror, came to prevail to a great degree. The duke of Chatellerault discouraged many by his example. Defections from the Protestants added strength to the queen-dowager. The most secret deliberations of the confederated lords were revealed to her. The soldiery were clamorous for pay; and it was very difficult to procure money to extinguish their claims. Attempts to soothe and appease them, discovering their consequence, engendered mutinies. They put to death a domestic of the earl of Argyle, who endeavoured to compose them to order: they insulted several persons of rank who discovered a solicitude to pacify them; and they even ventured to declare, that, for a proper reward, they were ready to suppress the reformation, and to re-establish the mass.

565 Divisions takes place amongst them.

It was absolutely necessary to give satisfaction to the Protestant soldiers. The lords and gentlemen of the congregation collected a considerable sum among them; but it was not equal to the present exigency. The avarice of many taught them to with-hold what they could afford, and the poverty of others did not permit them to indulge their generosity. It was resolved, that each nobleman should surrender his silver-plate to be struck into money. By the address, however, of the queen-dowager, the officers of the mint were bribed to conceal, or to convey to a distance, the stamps and instruments of coinage. A gloomy despair gave disquiet to the congregation, and threatened their ruin. Queen Elizabeth, with whose ministers the confederated lords maintained a correspondence at this time, had frequently promised them her assistance; but they could not now wait the event of a deputation to the court of England. In an extremity so pressing, they therefore applied for a sum of money to Sir Ralph Sadler and Sir James Croft, the governors of Berwick; and Cockburn of Ormiston, who was entrusted with this commission, obtained from them an aid of 4000 crowns. Traitors, however, in the councils of the congregation, having informed the queen-dowager of his errand and expedition, the earl of Bothwel, by her order, intercepted him upon his return, discomfited his retinue, and made a prize of the English subsidy.

566 They fall into distress and treat with queen Elizabeth.

567 English subsidy taken by the queen-regent.

To rouse the spirit of the party, an attack was projected upon Leith, and some pieces of artillery were planted against it. But before any charge could be made, the French soldiers sallied out to give battle to the troops of the congregation, possessed themselves of their cannon, and drove them back to Edinburgh. A report that the victors had entered this city with the fugitives, filled it with disorder and dismay. The earl of Argyle and his Highlanders hastened to recover the honour of the day, and harrassed the French in their retreat. This petty conflict, while it elated the queen-dowager, served to augment the despondence of the Protestants.

568 The Protestants defeated.

Vain of their prowess, the French made a new sally from Leith, with a view to intercept a supply of provisions

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visions and stores for the congregation. The earl of Arran and the lord James Stuart advanced to attack them, and obliged them to retire. But pursuing them with too much heat, a fresh body of French troops made its appearance. It was prudent to retreat, but difficult. An obstinate resistance was made. It was the object of the French to cut off the soldiers of the congregation from Edinburgh, and by this means to divide the strength of that station. The earl of Arran and the lord James Stuart had occasion for all their address and courage. Though they were able, however, to effect their escape, their loss was considerable, and the victory was manifestly on the side of their adversaries.

569 The Protestants again defeated.

570 Maitland, the queen-dowager's secretary, revolts to the Protestants.

About this time William Maitland of Lethington, secretary to the queen-dowager, withdrew secretly from Leith, and joined himself to the confederated nobles. He had been disgusted with the jealousies of the French counsellors, and was exposed to danger from having embraced the doctrines of the reformed. His reception was cordial, and corresponded to the opinion entertained of his wisdom and experience. He was skilled in business, adorned with literature, and accustomed to reflection. But as yet it was not known, that his want of integrity was in proportion to the greatness of his talents.

The accession of this statesman to their party could not console the lords of the congregation for the unpromising aspect of their affairs. The two discomfitures they had received, sunk deeply into the minds of their followers. Those who affected prudence, retired privately from a cause which they accounted to be desperate; and the timorous fled with precipitation. The wailings and distrust of the brethren were melancholy and infectious; and exciting the ridicule and scorn of the partisans of the queen-dowager, were thence augmented the more. A distress not to be comforted seemed to have invaded the Protestants; and the associated nobles consented to abandon the capital. A little after midnight, they retired from Edinburgh; and so great was the panic which prevailed, that they marched to Stirling without any stop or intermission.

571 They retire from Edinburgh to Stirling.

572 John Knox encourages them.

John Knox, who had accompanied the congregation to Stirling, anxious to recover their unanimity and courage, addressed them from the pulpit. He represented their misfortunes as the consequences of their sins; and intreating them to remember the goodness of their cause, assured them in the end of joy, honour, and victory. His popular eloquence corresponding to all their warmest wishes, diffused satisfaction and cheerfulness. They passed from despair to hope. A council was held, in which the confederated nobles determined to solicit, by a formal embassy, the aid of queen Elizabeth. Maitland of Lethington, and Robert Melvil, were chosen to negociate this important transaction; and they received the fullest instructions concerning the state and difficulties of the congregation, the tyrannical designs of the queen-dowager, and the danger which threatened England from the union of Scotland with France.

573 Elizabeth determines to assist the reformers.

The queen of England having maturely considered the case, determined to assist the reformers; whose leaders now dispersed themselves, and went to different parts of the kingdom, in order to employ their activity there for the common cause. The queen-dowager, imagining that the lords were fled, conceived great hopes of being able to crush the reformed at once. Her sanguine hopes, however, were soon checked, on receiving certain intelligence that queen Elizabeth was resolved to give them assistance. She now took the best measures possible, as circumstances stood; and determined to crush her enemies before they could receive any assistance from England. Her French troops took the road to Stirling, and wasted in their march all the grounds which belonged to the favourers of the reformation. After renewing their depredations at Stirling, they passed the bridge there; and proceeding along the side of the river, exercised their cruelties and oppressions in a district which had distinguished itself by an ardent zeal against popery. While the terror of their arms was thus diffusing itself, they resolved to seize the town and castle of St Andrew's, which they considered as an important military station, and as a convenient place of reception for the auxiliaries they expected from France.

574 The French troops waste the estates of the reformed.

575 They are opposed with success by lord James Stuart.

But the lord James Stuart employed himself to interrupt their progress and retard their attempts; and it was his object at the same time to keep the force of the congregation entire, to hazard no action of importance, and to wait the approach of the English army. A small advantage was obtained by the French at Petticurr; and they possessed themselves of Kinghorn. The lord James Stuart, with 500 horse and 100 foot, entered Dysart. With this inconsiderable strength he proposed to act against an army of 4000 men. His admirable skill in military affairs, and his heroic courage, were eminently displayed. During 20 days he prevented the march of the French to St Andrew's, intercepting their provisions, harrassing them with skirmishes, and intimidating them by the address and the boldness of his stratagems.

Monsieur d'Oysel, enraged and ashamed to be disconcerted and opposed by a body of men so disproportioned to his army, exerted himself with vigour. The lord James Stuart was obliged to retire. Dysart and Wemyss were given to the French troops to be pillaged; and when d'Oysel was in full march to St Andrew's, he discovered a powerful fleet bearing up the frith. It was concluded, that the supplies expected from France were arrived. Guns were fired by his soldiers, and their joy was indulged in all its extravagance. But this fleet having taken the vessels which contained their provisions, and the ordnance with which they intended to improve the fortifications of the castle at St Andrew's, a period was put to their rejoicings. Certain news was brought, that the fleet they observed was the navy of England, which had come to support the congregation. A consternation, deepened by the giddiness of their preceding transports, invaded them. Monsieur d'Oysel perceived now the value and merit of the service which had been performed by the lord James Stuart; and thinking no more of St Andrew's and conquest, fled to Stirling, in his way to Leith, from which he dreaded to be intercepted; but he reached that important station after a march of three days.

576 Arrival of the English fleet.

577 The French general flies.

578 Treaty between Elizabeth and the Scots Protestants.

A formal treaty was now concluded between the lords of the Congregation and queen Elizabeth; and in the mean time the queen-dowager was disappointed in her expectations from France. The violent administration

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579 The queen-regent disappointed in her expectations from France.

ſtration of the houſe of Guiſe had involved that nation in troubles and diſtreſs. Its credit was greatly ſunk, and its treaſury was nearly exhauſted. Perſecutions, and the ſpirit of Calviniſm, produced commotions and conſpiracies; and amidſt domeſtic and dangerous intrigues and ſtruggles, Scotland failed to engage that particular diſtinction which had been promiſed to its affairs. It was not, however, neglected altogether. The count De Martigues had arrived at Leith, with 1000 foot and a few horſe. The marquis D'Elbeuf had embarked for it with another body of ſoldiers; but, after loſing ſeveral ſhips in a furious tempeſt, was obliged to return to the haven from which he had ſailed.

580 She is deſerted by great numbers of her ſubjects.

In this reverſe of her fortunes, many forſook the queen-dowager. It was now underſtood that the Engliſh army was upon its march to Scotland. The Scottiſh lords who had affected a neutrality, meditated an union with the Proteſtants. The earl of Huntley gave a ſolemn aſſurance that he would join them. Proclamations were iſſued throughout the kingdom, calling upon the ſubjects of Scotland to aſſemble in arms at Linlithgow, to re-eſtabliſh their ancient freedom, and to aſſiſt in the utter expulſion of the French ſoldiery.

581 The princes of Lorraine attempt to negociate with queen Elizabeth in vain.

The Engliſh fleet, mean while, under Winter the vice-admiral, had taken and deſtroyed ſeveral ſhips, had landed ſome troops upon Inchkeith, and diſcomfited a body of French mercenaries. Upon the foundation of theſe acts of hoſtility, the princes of Lorraine diſpatched the chevalier de Seure to queen Elizabeth, to make repreſentations againſt this breach of the peace, and to urge the recall of her ſhips. This ambaſſador affected likewiſe to negociate concerning the evacuation of Scotland by the French troops, and to propoſe methods by which the king of France might quarter the arms of England without doing a prejudice to queen Elizabeth. But to prevent the execution of vigorous reſolutions againſt the queen-dowager, and to gain time, were the only objects he had in view. With ſimilar intentions, John Monluc biſhop of Valence, a man of greater addreſs and ability, and equally devoted to the houſe of Guiſe, was alſo ſent at this time to the court of England. Queen Elizabeth, however, and her miniſters, were too wiſe to be amuſed by artifice and dexterity. The lord Grey entered Scotland with an army of 1200 horſe and 6000 foot; and there commanded under him the lord Scroop, Sir James Croſt, Sir Henry Percy, and Sir Francis Lake. By an inclement policy, the queen-dowager had already waſted all the country around the capital. But the deſolation ſhe had made, while it was ruinous to the Scottiſh peaſants, affected not the army of England. The leaders of the Congregation did not want penetration and foreſight, and had provided themſelves againſt this difficulty. The duke of Chatellerault, the earls of Argyle, Glencairn, and Menteith, the lord James Stuart, and the lords Ruthven, Boyd, and Ochiltree, with a numerous and formidable force, joined the Engliſh commander at Preſton.

582 An Engliſh army enters Scotland.

583 The queen-dowager retires to Edinburgh caſtle.

Struck with the ſad condition of her affairs, deſpairing of a timely and proper ſuccour from France, and reminded by ſickneſs of her mortality, the queen-dowager retired from Leith to the caſtle of Edinburgh, and put herſelf under the protection of the lord Erſkine. At the period when ſhe was appointed to the regency, the lord Erſkine had received from the three eſtates the charge of this important fortreſs, with the injunction to hold it till he ſhould know their farther orders; and giving way to the ſolicitations of neither faction, he had kept it with fidelity. By admitting the queen-dowager, he yielded to ſentiments of honour and humanity, and did not mean to depart from his duty. A few only of her domeſtics accompanied her, with the archbiſhop of St Andrews, the biſhop of Dunkeld, and the earl Mariſchal.

584 The Proteſtants invite her to an accommodation.

The confederated nobles now aſſembled at Dalkeith to hold a council; and conforming to thoſe maxims of prudence and equity which, upon the eve of hoſtilities, had been formerly exerciſed by them, they invited the queen-dowager to an amicable concluſion of the preſent troubles. In a letter which they wrote to her, they called to her remembrance the frequent manifeſtos and meſſages in which they had preſſed her to diſmiſs the French ſoldiery, who had ſo long oppreſſed the lower ranks of the people, and who threatened to reduce the kingdom itſelf to ſervitude. The averſion, however, with which ſhe had conſtantly received their ſuit and prayers, was ſo great, that they had given way to a ſtrong neceſſity, and had intreated the aſſiſtance of the queen of England to expel theſe ſtrangers by the force of arms. But though they had obtained the powerful protection of this princeſs, they were yet animated with a becoming reſpect for the mother of their ſovereign; and, abhorring to ſtain the ground with Chriſtian blood, were diſpoſed once more to ſolicit the diſmiſſion of theſe mercenaries, with their officers and captains. And that no juſt objection might remain againſt the grant of this their laſt requeſt, they aſſured her, that a ſafe paſſage by land, to the ports of England, ſhould be allowed to the French; or that, if they judged it more agreeable, the navy of queen Elizabeth ſhould tranſport them to their own country. If theſe propoſals ſhould be rejected, they appealed and proteſted to God and to mankind, that it ſhould be underſtood and believed, that no motive of malice, or hatred, or wickedneſs of any kind, had induced them to employ the fatal expedient of arms and battles; but that they had been compelled to this diſagreeable and diſtreſſful remedy, for the preſervation of their commonwealth, their religion, their perſons, their eſtates, and their poſterity. They begged her to weigh the equity of their petition, to conſider the inconveniences of war, and to think of the reſt and quiet which were neceſſary to relieve the afflictions of her daughter's kingdom; and they beſought her to embalm her own memory, by an immortal deed of wiſdom, humanity, and juſtice.

585 She ſtill behaves with infincerity.

To give authority and weight to the letter of the aſſociated lords, the lord Grey directed Sir George Howard and Sir James Croft to wait upon the queen-dowager, and to ſtipulate the peaceable departure of the Engliſh troops, upon the condition that the French mercenaries were immediately diſmiſſed from her ſervice, and prohibited from reſiding in Scotland. Returning no direct anſwer to the applications made to her, ſhe deſired time to deliberate upon the reſolution which it became her to adopt. This equivocal behaviour correſponded with the ſpirit of intrigue which

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which had uniformly distinguished the queen-dowager; and it is probable, that her engagements with France did not permit her to be open and explicit.

586 The French defeated by the Protestant allies.

The combined armies marched towards Leith. A body of the French, posted upon a rising ground called the *Hawk-hill*, disputed their progress. During five hours the conflict was maintained with obstinate valour. At length the Scottish horsemen charged the French with a fury which they were unable to resist. They fled to Leith with precipitation; and might have been cut off from it altogether, if the English cavalry had exerted themselves. Three hundred of the French soldiers perished in this action, and a few combatants only fell on the side of the Congregation.

587 Who lay siege to Leith.

Leith was invested. The pavilions and tents of the English and Scottish nobility were planted at Restalrig, and around it. Trenches were cast; and the ordnance from the town annoying the combined armies, a mount was raised, upon which eight cannons were erected. A continued fire from these, against St Anthony's tower in South Leith, being kept up and managed with skill, the walls of this fabric were shaken, and the French found it necessary to dismount their artillery. Negligent from security, and apprehensive of no attack, the English and Scottish officers occupied themselves in amusements, and permitted a relaxation of military discipline. The French, informed of this supineness and levity, made a sally from Leith. While some of the captains were diverting themselves at Edinburgh, and the soldiery were engaged at dice and cards, they entered the trenches unobserved, and, pushing their advantage, put 600 men to the sword. After this slaughter, the Protestants were more attentive to their affairs. Mounts were built at proper distances, which, being fortified with ordnance, served as places of retreat and defence in the event of sudden incursions: and thus they continued the blockade in a more effectual manner.

588 A party of them cut off.

The army under the marquis D'Elbeuf, promised so often to the queen-regent, was in vain expected by her: but she received, at this time, supplies in money and military stores; and Monluc bishop of Valence, though defeated in dexterity by Elizabeth and her ministers, had arrived in Scotland to try anew the arts of delay and negociation. Conferences were held by him with the queen-dowager, with the English commanders, and with the confederated nobles; but no contract or agreement could be concluded. His credentials neither extended to the demolition of Leith, nor to the recall of the French mercenaries: and tho' he obtained powers from his court to consent to the former of these measures, they were yet burdened with conditions which were disgraceful to the Congregation; who, in the present prosperous state of their fortunes, were not disposed to give up any of the objects for which they had struggled so long, and to the attainment of which they now looked forward with a settled hope and expectation.

589 Fruitless negociation with England.

Though the grave and measured orations of Monluc could not overpower the plain and stubborn sense of the Congregation, yet as he affected to give them admonitions and warnings, and even ventured to insult them with menaces, they appear to have conceived a high indignation against him. Under this impulse, and that in so advanced a stage of their affairs they might exhibit the determined firmness of their resolutions, and bind to them by an indissoluble tie the earl of Huntley and the other persons who had joined them in consequence of the English alliance, they thought of the assurance and stability of a *new league and covenant*, more solemn, expressive, and resolute, than any which they had yet entered into and subscribed.

590 The fourth covenant.

The nobles, barons, and inferior persons, who were parties to this bond and association, bound themselves in the presence of Almighty God, as a society, and as individuals, to advance and set forward the reformation of religion, and to procure, by every possible means, the true preaching of the gospel, with the proper administration of the sacraments, and the other ordinances in connection with it. Deeply affected, at the same time, with the misconduct of the French statesmen, who had been promoted to high offices; with the oppressions of the French mercenaries, whom the queen-dowager kept up and maintained under the colour of authority; with the tyranny of their captains; and with the manifest danger of conquest to which the country was exposed, by different fortifications upon the sea-coast, and by other dangerous innovations; they promised and engaged, generally and individually, to join with the queen of England's army, and to concur in an honest, plain, and unreserved resolution to expel all foreigners from the realm, as oppressors of public liberty; that, by recovering the ancient rights, privileges, and freedom of their nation, they might live for the future under the due obedience of their king and queen, be ruled by the laws and customs of the country, and by officers and statesmen born and educated among them. It was likewise contracted and agreed by the subscribers to this bond and covenant, that no private intelligence by writing or message, or communication of any kind, should be kept up with their adversaries; and that all persons who resisted the godly enterprise in which they were united, should be regarded as their enemies, and reduced to subjection and obedience.

591 The queen-dowager gives herself up to despair.

When the strong and fervid sentiment and expression of this new association were communicated to the queen-dowager, she resigned herself to sorrow. Her mind, inclined to despondence by the increase of her malady, felt the more intensely the cruel distractions and disquiets into which the kingdom had been driven by the ambition of France, her own doating affection for the princes of Lorraine, and the vain prognostications of flatterers and courtiers. In the agony of passion, she besought the malediction and curse of God to alight upon all those who had counselled her to persecute the preachers, and to refuse the petitions of the most honourable portion of her subjects.

In the mean time, the siege of Leith was prosecuted. But, the strength of the garrison amounting to more than 4000 soldiers, the operations of the besiegers were slow and languid. An accidental fire in the town, which destroyed many houses and a great part of the public granary, afforded them an opportunity of playing their artillery with some advantage; and a few days after they made a general assault. But the scaling-ladders which were applied to the walls being too short, and Sir James Croft, who had been gained to the queen-dowager, having acted a treacherous

592 The Protestants make an unsuccessful attack on Leith.

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593 A reinforcement arrives from England.

Amidſt this diſtreſs the queen-dowager, waſted with a lingering diſtemper and with grief, expired in the caſtle of Edinburgh. A few days before her death, ſhe invited to her the duke of Chatellerault, the lord James Stuart, and the earls of Argyle, Glencairn, and Mariſhal, to bid them a laſt adieu. She expreſſed to them her ſorrow for the troubles of Scotland; and made it her earneſt ſuit, that they would conſult their conſtitutional liberties, by diſmiſſing the French and Engliſh from their country; and that they would preſerve a dutiful obedience to the queen their ſovereign. She profeſſed an unlimited forgiveneſs of all the injuries which had been done to her; and entreated their pardon for the offences ſhe had committed againſt them. In token of her kindneſs and charity, ſhe then embraced them by turns; and, while the tear ſtarted in her eye, preſented to them a cheerful and ſmiling aſpect. After this interview, the ſhort portion of life which remained to her was dedicated to religion; and that ſhe might allure the Congregation to be compaſſionate to her Popiſh ſubjects and her French adherents, ſhe flattered them, by calling John Willocks, one of the moſt popular of their preachers, to aſſiſt and comfort her by his exhortations and prayers. He made long diſcourſes to her about the abominations of the maſs; but ſhe appears to have died in the communion of the Romiſh church; and her body being tranſported to France, was depoſited in the monaſtery of St Peter, at Rheims, in Champagne, where her ſiſter Renée was an abbeſs.

594 Death of the queen-regent.

The death of the queen-dowager, at a period ſo critical, broke altogether the ſpirit of the French troops. They were blocked up ſo completely, that it was almoſt impoſſible for any ſupplies to reach them either by ſea or land; and France had delayed ſo long to fulfil its magnificent promiſes, that it was no longer in a capacity to take any ſteps towards their accompliſhment. Its internal diſtreſs and diſquiets were multiplying. The nobility, impoveriſhed by wars, were courting the rewards of ſervice, and ſtruggling in hoſtility. The clergy were avaricious, ignorant, and vindictive. The populace, knowing no trade but arms, offered their ſwords to the factious. Francis II. the huſband of Mary, was without dignity or underſtanding. Catharine de Medicis his mother was full of artifice and falſehood. Inſurrections were dreaded in every province. The houſe of Guiſe was encompaſſed with difficulties, and trembling with apprehenſions, ſo that they could not think of preſiſting in their views of diſtant conqueſts. It was neceſſary that they ſhould abandon for a time all the proud projects they had formed for the extenſion of the French monarchy. It was chiefly in the exemption from foreign wars that they could hope to ſupport their own greatneſs, and apply a remedy to the domeſtic diſturbances of France.

595 The French troops ſubmit.

It appeared to Francis and Mary, that they could not treat in a direct method with the Congregation, whom they affected to conſider as rebellious ſubjects, without derogating from their royal dignity. In negociating a peace, they therefore addreſſed themſelves to queen Elizabeth. It was by her offices and interference that they projected a reconciliation with the confederated lords, and that they meant to extinguiſh the animoſities which, with ſo much violence, had agitated the Scottiſh nation. They granted their commiſſion to John Monluc biſhop of Valence, Nicholas Pelleve biſhop of Amiens, Jacques de la Broſſe, Henry Clentin ſieur d'Oyſel, and Charles de la Rochefaucault ſieur de Randan; authoriſing them in a body, or by two of their number, to enter into accords and agreements with the queen of England. The Engliſh commiſſioners were Sir William Cecil principal ſecretary of ſtate, Nicolas Wotton dean of Canterbury and York, Sir Ralph Sadler, Sir Henry Percy, and Sir Peter Crew; and the powers of treaty were to be exercifed by them all in conjunction, or by four, three, or two of them.

596 Francis and Mary enter into a negociation with Elizabeth.

The plenipotentiaries of France, though empowered only to treat with England, were yet, by a ſeparate commiſſion, entruſted to aſſure the Congregation, that, notwithſtanding the heinous guilt incurred by them, Francis and Mary were inclined to receive them into favour, upon their repentance and return to obedience; and to abſtain for ever from all inquiry into their conduct. They had full authority, at the ſame time, by this new deed, to hear, in conjunction with the commiſſioners of Elizabeth, the complaints of the Congregation, and to grant, with their conſent, the relief which appeared to them to be the moſt proper and ſalutary.

597 Promiſe an indemnity to the Proteſtants.

The nobility and people of Scotland, choofing for their repreſentatives the lord James Stuart, the lord Ruthven, and Maitland of Lethington, expreſſed their willingneſs to concur in reaſonable meaſures for the reeſtabliſhment of the public union and tranquillity. By the mode of a formal petition, they enumerated their grievances, laid claim to a redreſs of them, and beſought a uniform protection to their conſtitution and laws. To this petition the interceſſion of queen Elizabeth effected the friendly attention of Francis and Mary; and upon a foundation concerted with ſo much propriety, Monluc and Randan, Cecil and Wotton, the acting plenipotentiaries of England and France, drew up and authenticated the celebrated deed of relief and conceſſion which does ſo much honour to the ſpirit, preſeverance, and magnanimity of the Scottiſh nation.

598 And at laſt grant their petition.

By this accord and agreement, Francis and Mary ſtipulated

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599 Nature of their treaty with the Proteſtants.

ſtipulated and conſented, that no French ſoldiers and no foreign troops ſhould be ever introduced into Scotland without the counſel and advice of the three eſtates. They concurred in the opinion, that the French mercenaries ſhould be ſent back into France, and that the fortifications of Leith ſhould be demoliſhed. They agreed that commiſſioners ſhould be applied to viſit Dunbar, and to point out the works there which ought to be deſtroyed; and they bound and engaged themſelves to build no new fortreſs or place of ſtrength within the kingdom, and to repair no old one, without a parliamentary authority and ſanction. They conſented to extinguiſh all debts which had been contracted for the maintenance of the French and Scotch ſoldiery in their ſervice. They appointed the eſtates of the realm to hold a parliament for the diſcuſſion of affairs of ſtate; and they obliged themſelves to conſider the acts of this aſſembly as valid and effectual in every reſpect. They confirmed the ancient law of the country, which prohibited the princes of Scotland from making peace and war without the advice of the three eſtates. It was accorded and agreed by them, that the three eſtates, in concurrence with the queen, ſhould elect a council for the adminiſtration of affairs during her majeſty's abſence. They became bound to employ the natives of Scotland in the management of juſtice both civil and criminal, in the offices of chancellor, keeper of the ſeals, treaſurer, comptroller, and in other ſtations of a ſimilar nature; and to abſtain from the promotion of all foreigners to places of truſt and honour, and from inveſting any clergyman in the charge of affairs of the revenue. They determined to eſtabliſh an act of oblivion, and to forget and bury for ever the memory of all the late tranſactions of war and offence. It was concluded by them, that a general peace and reconciliation ſhould take place among all parties. They expreſſed their determination, that no pretence ſhould be aſſumed by them, from the late contentions, to deprive any of their ſubjects of their eſtates or offices. And they referred the reparation which might be proper to compenſate the injuries that had been ſuſtained by biſhops and eccleſiaſtics, to the judgement of the three eſtates in parliament.

Upon the ſubject of the reformation, the plenipotentiaries of England and France did not chooſe to deliberate and decide, although articles with regard to it had been preſented to them by the nobles and the people. They referred this delicate topic to the enſuing meeting of the parliament; and the leaders of the congregation engaged, that deputies from the three eſtates ſhould repair to the king and queen, to know their intention concerning matters of ſuch high importance.

After having granted theſe conceſſions to the nobility and the people of Scotland, upon the part of their reſpective courts, Monluc and Randan, Cecil and Wotton, concluded another deed of treaty and agreement. By this convention it was determined, that the Engliſh and French troops ſhould depart out of Scotland; that all warlike preparations ſhould ceaſe; that the fort of Aymouth ſhould be raſed to the ground, in terms of the treaty of Cambray; that Francis and Mary ſhould abſtain from bearing the title and arms of England or Ireland; that it ſhould be conſidered, whether a farther compenſation ſhould be made to Elizabeth for the injuries committed againſt her; and that the king and queen of Scots ſhould be fully and ſincerely reconciled to the nobility and the people of their kingdom. The intereſts of England and France were the particular objects of this agreement. But though the conceſſions to the Proteſtants were not inſerted in it at full length, an expreſſive reference was made to them; and they received a confirmation in terms which could not be miſunderſtood or controverted. This deed recorded the clemency of Francis and Mary to their ſubjects of Scotland, the extreme willingneſs of the nobility and the people to return to their duty and allegiance, the repreſentation they had offered of their grievances, and the requeſt of queen Elizabeth that redreſs ſhould be afforded to them; and it appealed to the conſequent conceſſions which had been ſtipulated to their advantage.

600 Articles relating to the French troops.

By theſe important negociations, the Proteſtants, while they humbled France, flattered queen Elizabeth; and while they acquired a power to act in the eſtabliſhment of the reformation, reſtored its civil conſtitution to Scotland. The excluſion of foreigners from offices of ſtate, the limitation of the Scottiſh princes with regard to peace and war, the advancement of the three eſtates to their ancient conſequence, and the act of oblivion of all offences, were acquiſitions moſt extenſively great and uſeful; and, while they operated the fulleſt ſecurity to the reformed, gratified all their happieſt and moſt ſanguine expectations.

601 Peace proclaimed.

The peace, ſo fortunately concluded, was immediately proclaimed. The French mercenaries embarked for their own country, and the Engliſh army took the road to Berwick. Amidſt events ſo joyful, the preachers exhorted the confederated nobles to command the ſolemnity of a thankſgiving. It was ordered accordingly; and after its celebration, the commiſſioners of the boroughs, with ſeveral of the nobility, and the tenants *in capite*, were appointed to chooſe and depute miniſters to preach the goſpel in the principal towns throughout the kingdom. John Knox was called to diſcharge the paſtoral functions at Edinburgh, Chriſtopher Goodman at St Andrew's, Adam Heriot at Aberdeen, John Row at Perth, Paul Methven at Jedburgh, William Chriſtiſon at Dundee, David Ferguſon at Dunfermling, and David Lindſey at Leith. That the buſineſs of the church, at the ſame time, might be managed with propriety, ſuperintendents were elected to preſide over the eccleſiaſtical affairs of particular provinces and diſtricts. Mr John Spotſwood was named the ſuperintendant for the diviſion of Lothian, Mr John Willocks for that of Glaſgow, Mr John Winram for that of Fife, Mr John Erſkine of Dun for that of Angus and Merns, and Mr John Carſwell for that of Argyle and the Iſles. This inconſiderable number of miniſters and ſuperintendants gave a beginning to the reformed church of Scotland.

602 Appointment of preachers in different places.

603 The parliament meets.

Amidſt the triumph and exultation of the Proteſtants, the meeting of the parliament approached. All perſons who had a title from law, or from ancient cuſtom, to attend the great council of the nation, were called to aſſemble there. While there was a full convention of the greater barons and the prelates, the inferior tenants *in capite*, or the leſſer barons, upon an occaſion ſo great, inſtead of appearing by repreſenta-

tion,

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It was objected to this parliament when it was assembled, that it could not be valid, since Francis and Mary were not present, and had not empowered any person to represent them. But by the terms of the late concessions to the nobility and the people, they had in effect dispensed with this formality; and the objection, after having been agitated with heat for some days, was rejected by a majority of voices. The lords of the articles were then chosen; and as the Protestant party were superior to the Popish faction, they were careful, in electing the members of this committee, to favour all those who were disposed to forward the work of the reformation. The first object which the lords of the articles held out to the parliament, was the supplication of the nobility, gentry, and all the other persons who professed the new doctrines. It required, that the Romish church should be condemned and abolished. It reprobated the tenet of transubstantiation, the merit of works, papistical indulgences, purgatory, pilgrimages, and prayers to departed saints; and considering them as pestilent errors, and as fatal to salvation, it demanded, that all those who should teach and maintain them, should be exposed to correction and punishment. It demanded, that a remedy should be applied against the profanation of the holy sacraments by the Roman Catholics, and that the ancient discipline of the church should be restored. In fine, it insisted, that the supremacy and authority of the pope should be abolished; and that the patrimony of the church should be employed in supporting the reformed ministry, in the provision of schools, and in the maintenance of the poor.

604 Supplication of the Protestants.

This supplication of the Protestants was received in parliament with marks of the greatest deference and respect. The popish doctrines it censured, and the strong language it employed, excited no dispute or altercation. The nobility, however, and the lay members, did not think it expedient that the patrimony of the church, in all its extent, should be allotted to the reformed ministry, and the support of schools and the poor. Avoiding, therefore, any explicit scrutiny into this point, the parliament gave it in charge to the ministers and the leading men of the reformation, to draw up, under distinct heads, the substance and sense of those doctrines which ought to be established over the kingdom. Within four days this important business was accomplished. The writing or instrument to which the reformed committed their opinions was termed, "The Confession of Faith, professed and believed by the Protestants within the realm of Scotland (A)." It was read first to the lords of the articles. It was then read to the parliament; and the prelates of the Romish church were commanded, in the name of God, to make publicly their objections to the doctrines it proposed. They preserved a profound silence. A new diet was appointed for concluding the transaction. The articles of the confession were again read over in their order, and the votes of the parliament were called. Of the temporal nobility, three only refused to bestow upon it their authority. The earl of Athol, and the lords Somerville and Bothwel, protested, that "they would believe as their fathers had done before them." The bishops and the estate ecclesiastical, from a consciousness of the weakness of popery, seemed to have lost all power of speech. No dissent, no vote, was given by them. "It is long," said the earl Marischal, "since I entertained a jealousy of the Romish faith, and an affection to the reformed doctrines. But this day has afforded me the completest conviction of the falsehood of the one, and the truth of the other. The bishops, who do not conceive themselves to be deficient in learning, and whose zeal for the maintenance of the hierarchy cannot be doubted, have abandoned their religion, and their interest in it, as objects which admit of no defence or justification." All the other constituent members of this great council were zealous for the establishment of the reformation, and affirmed the propriety of its doctrines. Thus the high court of parliament, with great deliberation and solemnity, examined, voted, and ratified the confession of the reformed faith.

605 A Confession of Faith drawn up.

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606 Abolition of the mass.

A few days after the establishment of the Confession of Faith, the parliament passed an act against the mass and the exercise of the Romish worship. And it scrupled not to ordain, that all persons saying or hearing mass should, for the first offence, be exposed to the confiscation of their estates, and to a corporal chastisement, at the discretion of the magistrate; that for the second offence, they should be banished out of the kingdom; and that for the third offence they should incur and suffer the pains of death. This fierceness, it is to be acknowledged, did not suit the generosity of victory; and while an excuse is sought for it in the perfidiousness of the Romish priesthood, it escapes not the observation of the most superficial historians, that these severities were exactly those of which the Protestants had complained so loudly, and with so much justice. By another ordination, the parliament, after having declared, that the pope, or bishop of Rome, had inflicted a deep wound and a humiliating injury upon the sovereignty and government of Scotland, by his frequent interferences and claims of power, commanded and decreed, that, for the future, his jurisdiction and authority should be dead and extinct; and that all persons maintaining the smallest connection with him, or with his sect, should be liable to the loss of honour and offices, proscription and banishment.

607 Persecuting spirit of the Protestants.

These memorable and decisive statutes atchieved the overthrow of the Romish religion. To obtain to these proceedings, and to its other ordinances, the approbation of Francis and Mary, was an object of the greatest anxiety, and of infinite moment to the three estates. Sir James Sandilands lord St John, was therefore appointed to go to France, and to express to the king and queen the affection and allegiance of their subjects, to explain what had been done in consequence of the late concessions and treaty, and to solicit their royal ratification of the transactions of the parliament. The spirited behaviour of the congregation had, however, exceeded all the expectations of the princes of Lorraine; and the business of the embassy, and the ambassador himself, though a man of character and probity, were treated not only with ridicule, but with insult

608 Francis and Mary refuse to confirm the acts of this parliament.

(A) It is given at full length in Knox, in the collection of confessions of faith, vol. 2. and in the statute book, parl. 1567.

Scotland. insult and contumely. He returned accordingly without any answer to his commission. Instead of submitting the heads and topics of a reformation to Francis and Mary, by a petition or a narrative, the parliament had voted them into laws; and from this informality the validity of its proceedings has been suspected. But it is observable of the Protestants, that they had not concealed their views with regard to religion and the abolition of Popery; that in the grant of redress and concession, and in the deed of treaty, no actual prohibition was made to bar the establishment of the reformation; that a general authority was given to the parliament to decide in affairs of state; and that Francis and Mary were solemnly bound to authenticate its transactions. Though a formality was invaded, the spirit of the treaties was yet respected and maintained. The nation, of consequence, imputed the conduct of Francis and Mary to political reasons suggested by the princes of Lorraine, and to the artifices of the popish clergy; and as Elizabeth did not refuse, upon her part, the ratification of the agreements, and solicited and pressed the French court in vain to adopt the same measure, a strength and force were thence communicated to this conclusion.

When the three estates dispached Sir James Sandilands to France, they instructed the earls of Morton and Glencairn, with Maitland of Lethington, to repair to the court of England. By these ambassadors they presented to Elizabeth their sincere and respectful thanks, for the attention shown by her to Scotland, in her late most important services. And while they solicited the continuance of her favour and protection, intreated, in an earnest manner, that her majesty, for the establishment of a perpetual peace and amity, would be pleased to take in marriage the earl of Arran, the next heir after his father to the Scottish monarchy. The queen made new and fervent protestations of her regard and attachment; and gave the promise of her warmest aid when it should be necessary, in their just defence, upon any future occasion. She spoke in obliging terms of the earl of Arran; but as she found in herself no present disposition to marriage, she desired that he might consult his happiness in another alliance. She expressed a favourable opinion of the Scottish nobility; and as a demonstration of her affection and esteem, she took the liberty to remind them of the practices which had been employed to overturn their independency, and begged them to consider the unanimity and concord of their order as a necessary guard against the ambition and the artifice of the enemies of their nation.

The success of the Congregation, though great and illustrious, was not yet completely decisive. The refusal of Francis and Mary to ratify their proceedings, opened up a source of bitterness and inquietude. The Popish party, though humbled, was not annihilated. Under the royal protection it would soon be formidable. Political considerations might arise, not only to cool the amity of England, but even to provoke its resentment. And France, though it could now transport no army against Scotland, might soon be able to adopt that expedient. Cruel distractions and severe calamities were still to be dreaded. In the narrowness of their own resources they could find no solid and permanent security against the rage and weight of domestic faction, and the strenuous exertions of an extensive kingdom. All their fair atchievements might be blasted and overthrown. Popery might again build up her towers, and a sanguinary domination destroy alike their religious and civil liberties. Scotland.

While the anguish of melancholy apprehensions repressed the triumph of the congregation, the event which could operate most to their interests was announced to them. This event was the death of Francis II. The tie which knit Scotland to France was thus broken. A new scene of politics displays itself. Catharine de Medicis, the queen-mother, ruled Charles IX. and was the personal enemy of the queen of Scots. The power and the credit which Mary had lent to her uncles, and the frequent and humiliating disappointments which the queen-mother had suffered from her influence over Francis, were now repaid with a studied indifference and neglect. In the full perfection of her charms, with two crowns upon her head, and looking towards a third, she felt herself to be without grandeur and without consequence. Leaving a court where she had experienced all the enjoyments of which humanity is susceptible, she retired to Rheims to indulge her sorrow. 609 Death of Francis II.

In the humiliation of their queen, and in the change produced in the councils of France, the Protestants found every possible encouragement to proceed with vigour in the full establishment of the reformed doctrines. After the dissolving of the parliament, they turned their thoughts and attention to the plan of policy which might suit best the tenets and religion for which they had contended. The three estates, amidst their other transactions, had granted a commission to Mr John Winram, Mr John Spotiswood, John Willocks, Mr John Douglas, Mr John Row, and John Knox, to frame and model a scheme or platform of ecclesiastical government. They were not long in complying with an order so agreeable to them, and composed what is termed the *First Book of Discipline;* in which they explained the uniformity and method which ought to be preserved concerning doctrine, the administration of the sacraments, the election and provision of ministers, and the policy of the church. 610 Ecclesiastical government of Scotland new modelled.

A convention of the estates gave its sanction to the Presbyterian scheme of government. But while the Book of Discipline sketched out a policy beautiful for its simplicity, yet it required that the patrimony, and the rich possessions of the ancient church, should be allotted to the new establishment. The reformers, however, so successful in the doctrines and the policy they had proposed, were here very unfortunate. This convention of the estates did not pay a more respectful regard to this proposal than the celebrated parliament had done, which demolished the mass and the jurisdiction of the see of Rome. They affected to consider it as no better than a dream. The expression "a devout imagination" was applied to it in mockery; and it was not till after long and painful struggles, that the new establishment was able to procure to itself a becoming and necessary provision and support. The Romish clergy were strenuous to continue in their possessions, and to profit by them; and the nobles and the 611 The revenues of the ancient church refused to the reformed preachers.

Scotland. the laity having seized upon great proportions of the property of the church, were no less anxious to retain the acquisitions they had made.

The aversion entertained from bestowing riches upon the Presbyterian establishment, encouraged the ardour which prevailed for advancing all the other views and interests of the reformed. And this end was also promoted in no inconsiderable degree by the insidious policy of Catharine de Medicis. She was willing to increase and to foster all the difficulties and dangers in the situation of the queen of Scots and her subjects. Upon this account she had engaged Charles IX. to dispatch Monsieur Noailles to the Scotch parliament, to urge it in strong terms to renew the ancient league between the two kingdoms, to dissolve the alliance with England, and to re-establish over Scotland the Popish doctrines and the Popish clergy. A new meeting of the estates was assembled, which considered these strange requisitions, and treated them with the indignation they merited. Monsieur Noailles was instructed to inform his sovereign, that France having acted with cruelty and perfidiousness towards the Scots, by attacking their independency and liberties under the cover and pretence of amity and marriage, did not deserve to know them any longer as an ally; that principles of justice, a love of probity, and a high sense of gratitude, did not permit the Scottish parliament to break the confederacy with England, which had generously protected their country against the tyrannical views of the French court, and the treacherous machinations of the house of Guise; and that they were never to acknowledge the Popish clergy to be an order of men, or the legal possessors of the patrimony of the church; since, having abolished the power of the pope, and renounced his doctrines, they could bestow no favour or countenance upon his vassals and servants.

To this council of the estates a new supplication was presented by the Protestants. They departed from the high claim which they had made for the riches and patrimony of the Popish church; and it was only requested by them, that a reasonable or decent provision should be allotted to the true preachers of the gospel. This application, however, no less than their former exorbitant demand, was treated with neglect and indifference. But amidst the anxiety manifested by the nobles and the tenants of the crown to hold the Presbyterian clergy in subjection and in poverty, they discovered the warmest zeal for the extension and continuance of the reformed opinions. For in this supplication of the Protestants, an ardent desire being intimated and urged, that all the monuments of idolatry which remained should be utterly destroyed, the fullest and most unbounded approbation was given to it. An act accordingly was passed, which commanded that every abbey-church, every cloister, and every memorial whatsoever of Popery, should be finally overthrown and demolished: and the care of this cruel, but popular employment, was committed to those persons who were most remarkable for their keenness and ardour in the work of the reformation. Its execution in the western counties was given in charge to the earls of Arran, Argyle, and Glencairn; the lord James Stuart attended to it in the more northern districts; and in the inland divisions of the country, it was intrusted to the barons in whom the Congregation had the greatest confidence. A dreadful devastation ensued. The populace, armed with authority, spread their ravages over the kingdom. It was deemed an execrable lenity to spare any fabric or place where idolatry had been exercised. The churches and religious houses were every where defaced, or pulled to the ground; and their furniture, utensils, and decorations, became the prizes and the property of the invader. Even the sepulchres of the dead were ransacked and violated. The libraries of the ecclesiastics, and the registers kept by them of their own transactions and of civil affairs, were gathered into heaps, and committed to the flames. Religious antipathy, the sanction of law, the exhortation of the clergy, the hope of spoil, and, above all, the ardour to put the last hand to the reformation, concurred to drive the rage of the people to its wildest fury; and, in the midst of havoc and calamity, the new establishment surveyed its importance and its power.

612 Final destruction of monasteries and every mark of the Popish religion in Scotland.

613 Mary solicited to return to her own country.

The death of Francis II. having left his queen Mary in a very disagreeable situation while she remained in France, it now became necessary for her to think on returning to her own country. To this she was solicited both by the Protestants and Papists; the former that they might gain her over to their party; and the latter, hoping that, as Mary was of their own persuasion, Popery might once more be established in Scotland. For this deputation, the Protestants chose lord James Stuart, natural brother to the queen; and the Papists, John Lesly, official and vicar-general of the diocese of Aberdeen. The latter got the start of the Protestant ambassador, and thus had the opportunity of first delivering his message. He advised her strongly to beware of the lord James Stuart, whom he represented as a man of unbounded ambition, who had espoused the Protestant cause for no other reason than that he might advance himself to the highest employments in the state; nay, that he had already fixed his mind on the crown itself. For these reasons he advised that the lord James Stuart should be confined in France till the government of Scotland could be completely established. But if the queen was averse to this measure, he advised her to land in some of the northern districts of Scotland, where her friends were most numerous; in which case an army of 20,000 men would accompany her to Edinburgh, to restore the Popish religion, and to overawe her enemies. The next day the lord James Stuart waited upon her, and gave an advice very different from that of Lesly. The surest method of preventing insurrections, he said, was the establishment of the Protestant religion; that a standing army and foreign troops would certainly lose the affections of her subjects; for which reason he advised her to visit Scotland without guards and without soldiers, and he became solemnly bound to secure their obedience to her. To this advice Mary listened with attention; and lord James, perceiving that she was prejudiced in his favour, took care to improve the favourable opportunity; by which means he obtained a promise of the earldom of Marre.

614 Her disputes with Elizabeth.

Before Mary set out from France, she received an embassy from queen Elizabeth, pressing her to ratify the treaty of Edinburgh, in which she had taken care to get a clause inserted, that Francis and Mary should *for ever* abstain from assuming the title and arms of

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England and Ireland. But this was declined by the queen of Scotland; and her refusal greatly augmented the jealousies which already prevailed between her and Elizabeth, insomuch that the latter refused her a safe passage through her dominions into Scotland. This was considered by Mary as a very high indignity; she returned a very spirited answer, informing her rival, that she could return to her own dominions without any assistance from her, or indeed whether she would or not. In the month of August 1561, Mary set sail from Calais for Scotland. She left France with much regret; and at night ordered her couch to be brought upon deck, desiring the pilot to awaken her in the morning if the coast of France should be in view. The night proved calm, so that the queen had an opportunity once more of indulging herself with a sight of that beloved country. A favourable wind now sprung up, and, a thick fog coming on, she escaped a squadron of men of war which Elizabeth had sent out to intercept her; and on the 20th of the month she landed safely at Leith.

615 Mary lands in Scotland.

But though the Scots received their queen with the greatest demonstrations of joy, it was not long before an irreconcileable quarrel began to take place. The Protestant religion was now established all over the kingdom; and its professors had so far deviated from their own principles, or what ought to have been their principles, that they would grant no toleration to the opposite party, not even to the sovereign herself. In consequence of this, when the queen attempted to celebrate mass in her own chapel of Holyroodhouse, a violent mob assembled, and it was with the utmost difficulty that the lord James Stuart and some other persons of high distinction could appease the tumult. Mary attempted to allay these ferments by a proclamation, in which she promised to take the advice of the states in religious matters; and in the mean time declared it to be death for any person to attempt an innovation or alteration of the religion which she found generally established upon her arrival in Scotland. Against this proclamation the earl of Arran protested, and formally told the herald, the queen's proclamation should not protect her attendants and servants if they presumed to commit idolatry and to say mass. John Knox declared from the pulpit, that one mass was more terrible to him than if 10,000 armed enemies had landed in any part of the kingdom to re-establish Popery. The preachers every where declaimed against idolatry and the mass; keeping up, by their mistaken zeal, a spirit of discontent and sedition throughout the whole kingdom. John Knox was called before the queen to answer for the freedom of his speeches; but his unbounded boldness when there gave Mary much disquiet, as not knowing in what manner to deal with him. The freedoms, however, which were taken with the queen, could not induce her to depart from that plan of government which she had laid down in France. To the Protestants she resolved to pay the greatest attention; from among them she chose her privy-council, and heaped favours upon the lord James Stuart, who for his activity in promoting the reformation was the most popular man in the kingdom; while to her courtiers of the Roman Catholic persuasion she behaved with a distant formality.

616 Is insulted by the Protestants.

In the mean time the difference between the two rival queens became every day greater. The queen of Scotland pressed Elizabeth to declare her the nearest heir to the crown of England, and Elizabeth pressed Mary to confirm the treaty of Edinburgh. With this the latter could not comply, as it would in fact have been renouncing for ever the title to that crown for which she was so earnestly contending. Endless negociations were the consequence, and the hatred of Elizabeth to Mary continually increased. This year the queen of Scotland amused herself by making a circuit through part of her dominions. From Edinburgh she proceeded to Stirling; from thence to Perth, Dundee, and St Andrew's. Though received every where with the greatest acclamations and marks of affection, she could not but remark the rooted aversion which had universally taken place against Popery; and upon her return to Edinburgh, her attention was called to an exertion of this zeal, which may be considered as highly characteristic of the times. The magistrates of this city, after their election, enacted rules according to custom, for the government of their borough. By one of these acts, which they published by proclamation, they commanded all monks, friars, and priests, together with all adulterers and fornicators, to depart from the town and its limits within 24 hours, under the pains of correction and punishment. Mary, justly interpreting this exertion of power to be an usurpation of the royal authority and a violation of order, displaced the magistrates, commanded the citizens to elect others in their room, and granted by proclamation a plenary indulgence to all her subjects not convicted of any crime, to repair to and remain in her capital at their pleasure.

617 Bigotry of the magistrates of Edinburgh.

Besides these disturbances on account of religion, the kingdom was now in confusion on another account. The long continuance of civil wars had left a proneness to tumults and insurrections every where; and thefts, rapine, and licentiousness of every kind, threatened to subvert the foundations of civil society. Mary made considerable preparations for the suppression of these disorders, and appointed the lord James Stuart her chief justiciar and lieutenant. He was to hold two criminal courts, the one at Jedburgh and the other at Dumfries. To assist his operations against the banditti, who were armed, and often associated into bodies, a military force was necessary; but as there were at present neither standing army nor regular troops in the kingdom, the county of Edinburgh, and ten others, were commanded to have their strength in readiness to assist him. The feudal tenants, and the allodial or free proprietors of these districts, in complete armour, and with provisions for 20 days, were appointed to be subservient to the purposes of his commission, and to obey his orders in establishing the public tranquillity. In this expedition he was attended with his usual success. He destroyed many of the strong-holds of the banditti; hanged 20 of the most notorious offenders; and ordered 50 more to be carried to Edinburgh, there to suffer the penalties of law on account of their rebellious behaviour. He entered into terms with the lord Grey and Sir John Foster, the wardens of the English borders, for the mutual benefit of the two nations; and he commanded the chiefs of the disorderly clans to submit to the queen, and to obey her orders with regard to the securing

618 Disordered state of the nation.

619 Suppressed by lord James Stuart.

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620 Mary distrusted by both parties.

curing of the peace, and preventing insurrections and depredations for the future.

In the mean time the queen was in a very disagreeable situation, being suspected and distrusted by both parties. From the concessions she had made to the Protestants, the Papists supposed that she had a design of renouncing their religion altogether; while on the other hand the Protestants could scarce allow themselves to believe that they owed any allegiance to an idolater. Disquiets of another kind also now took place. The duke of Chattellerault, having left the Catholics to join the opposite party, was neglected by his sovereign. Being afraid of some danger to himself, he fortified the castle of Dunbarton, which he resolved to defend; and in case of necessity to put himself under the protection of the queen of England.—The earl of Arran was a man of very slender abilities, but of boundless ambition. The queen's beauty had made an impression on his heart, and his ambition made him fancy himself the fittest person in the kingdom for her husband. But his fanaticism, and the violence with which he had opposed the mass, disgusted her. He bore her dislike with an uneasiness that preyed upon his intellects and disordered them. It was even supposed that he had concerted a scheme to possess himself of her person by armed retainers; and the lords of her court were commanded to be in readiness to defeat any project of this sort. The earl of Bothwel was distinguished chiefly by his prodigalities and the licentiousness of his manners. The earl of Marischal had every thing that was honourable in his intentions, but was over wary and slow. The earl of Morton possessed penetration and ability, but was attached to no party or measures from any principles of rectitude: His own advantage and interests were the motives which governed him. The earl of Huntley the lord chancellor, was unquiet, variable, and vindictive: His passions, now fermenting with violence, were soon to break forth in the most dangerous practices. The earls of Glencairn and Menteith were deeply tinctured with fanaticism; and their inordinate zeal for the new opinions, not less than their poverty, recommended them to queen Elizabeth. Her ambassador Randolph, advised her to secure their service, by addressing herself to their necessities. Among courtiers of this description, it was difficult for Mary to make a selection of ministers in whom to confide. The consequence and popularity of the lord James Stuart, and of Maitland of Lethington, had early pointed them out to this distinction; and hitherto they had acted to her satisfaction. They were each of eminent capacity: but the former was suspected of aiming at the sovereignty; the latter was prone to refinement and duplicity; and both were more connected with Elizabeth than became them as the ministers and subjects of another prince.

621 Characters of her different courtiers.

Beside the policy of employing and trusting statesmen who were Protestants, and the precaution of maintaining a firm peace with England, Mary had it also at heart to enrich the crown with the revenues of the ancient church. A convention of estates was assembled to deliberate upon this measure. The bishops were alarmed with their perilous situation. It was made known to them, that the charge of the queen's household required an augmentation; and that as the rents of the church had flowed chiefly from the crown, it was expedient that a proper proportion of them should now be resumed to uphold its splendour. After long consultations, the prelates and estate ecclesiastical, considering that they existed merely by the favour of the queen, consented to resign to her the third part of their benefices, to be managed at her pleasure; with the reservation that they should be secured during their lives against all farther payments, and relieved from the burden of contributing to the maintenance of the reformed clergy. With this offer the queen and the convention of estates were satisfied. Rentals, accordingly, of all their benefices throughout the kingdom, were ordered to be produced by the ancient ecclesiastics; the reformed ministers, superintendants, elders, and deacons, were enjoined to make out registers of the grants or provisions necessary to support their establishment; and a supereminent power of judging in these matters was committed to the queen and the privy-council.

622 She obtains a part of the ecclesiastical revenues.

While the prelates and estate ecclesiastical submitted to this offer from the necessity of their affairs, it was by no means acceptable to the reformed clergy, who at this time were holding an assembly. It was their earnest wish to effect the entire destruction of the ancient establishment, to succeed to a large proportion of their emoluments, and to be altogether independent of the crown. But while the Protestant preachers were naturally and unanimously of these sentiments, the nobles and gentlemen who had promoted the reformation were disposed to think very differently. To give too much of the wealth of the church to the reformed clergy, was to invest them with a dangerous power. To give too great a proportion of it to the crown, was a step still more dangerous. At the same time it was equitable, that the ancient clergy should be maintained during their lives; and it consisted with the private interests of the noblemen and gentlemen, who had figured during the reformation, not to consent to any scheme that would deprive them of the spoils of which they had already possessed themselves out of the ruins of the church, or which they might still be enabled to acquire.

623 Bad success of the demands of the Protestants.

Thus public as well as private considerations contributed to separate and divide the lay Protestants and the preachers. The general assembly, therefore, of the church, was not by any means successful in the views which had called them together at this time, and which they submitted to the convention of estates. Doubts were entertained whether the church had any title to assemble itself. The petition preferred for the complete abolition of idolatry, or for the utter prohibition of the mass, was rejected, notwithstanding all the zeal manifested by the brethren. The request that Mary should give authority to the book of discipline, was not only refused, but even treated with ridicule. The only point pressed by the church, which attracted any notice, was its requisition of a provision or a maintenance; but the measure invented for this end was in opposition to all its warmest desires.

This measure, however, so unpromising to the preachers in expectation, was found to be still more unsatisfactory upon trial. The wealth of the Romish church had been immense, but great invasions had been made upon it. The fears of the ecclesiastics, upon

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on the overthrow of popery, induced them to engage in fraudulent transactions with their kinsmen and relations; in consequence of which many possessions were conveyed from the church into private hands. For valuable considerations, leases of church-lands, to endure for many years, or in perpetuity, were granted to strangers and adventurers. Sales also of ecclesiastical property, to a great extent, had been made by the ancient incumbents; and a validity was supposed to be given to these transactions by confirmations from the pope, who was zealous to assist his votaries. Even the crown itself had contributed to make improper dispositions of the ecclesiastical revenues. Laymen had been presented to bishoprics and church-livings, with the power of disposing of the territory in connection with them. In this diffusion of the property of the church, many fair acquisitions, and much extensive domain, came to be invested in the nobles and the gentry.

From these causes, the grant of the third of their benefices, made by the ancient ecclesiastics to the queen, with the burden of maintaining the reformed clergy, was not near so considerable as might have been expected. But the direction of the scheme being lodged in the queen and the privy-council, the advantage to the crown was still greater than that bestowed upon the preachers. Yet the carrying the project into execution, was not without its inconveniences. There were still many opportunities for artifice and corruption; and the full third of the ecclesiastical benefices, even after all the previous abstractions of them which had been made, could not be levied by any diligence. For the ecclesiastics often produced false rentals of their benefices; and the collectors for the crown were not always faithful to the trust reposed in them. The complete produce of the thirds did not amount to a great sum; and it was to operate to the expences of the queen, as well as to the support of the preachers. A scanty proportion went to the latter; and yet the persons who were chosen to fix and ascertain their particular stipends or provisions, were the fast friends of the reformation. For this business was committed in charge to the earls of Argyle and Morton, the lord James Stuart, and Maitland of Lethington, with James Mackgill the clerk-register, and Sir John Ballenden the justice-clerk. One hundred Scottish merks were deemed sufficient for a common minister. To the clergymen of greater interest or consideration, or who exercised their functions in more extensive parishes, 300 merks were allotted; and, excepting to superintendants, this sum was seldom exceeded. To the earl of Argyle, to the lord James Stuart, to lord Erskine, who had large ecclesiastical revenues, their thirds were usually remitted by the queen; and upon the establishment of this fund or revenue, she also granted many pensions to persons about her court and of her household.

614 Provision made for the Protestant preachers.

The complaints of the preachers were made with little decency, and did not contribute to better their condition. The coldness of the Protestant laity, and the humanity shewn to the ancient clergy, were deep wounds both to their pride and to their interests. To a mean spirit of flattery to the reigning power, they imputed the defection of their friends; and against the queen they were animated with the bitterest animosity.

625 The whole party dissatisfied.

The poverty in which they were suffered to remain inflamed all their passions. They industriously sought to indulge their rancour and turbulence; and inveterate habits of insult fortified them into a contempt of authority.

To the queen, whose temper was warm, the rudeness of the preachers was a painful and endless inquietude, which, while it fostered her religious prejudices, had the good effect to confirm her constancy to her friends, and to keep alive her gratitude for their activity. The lord James Stuart, who was entitled to her respect and esteem from his abilities, and his proximity to her in blood, had merited rewards and honours by his public services and the vigour of his counsels. After his successful discharge of her commission as chief justicier and lord lieutenant, she could not think of allowing him to descend from these offices, without bestowing upon him a solid and permanent mark of her favour. She advanced him into the rank of her nobility, by conferring upon him the earldom of Marre. At the same time she contributed to augment his consequence, by facilitating his marriage with Agnes the daughter of the earl of Marischal; and the ceremonial of this alliance was celebrated with a magnificence and ostentation so extravagant in that age, as to excite the fears of the preachers lest some avenging judgment or calamity should afflict the land. They exclaimed with virulence against his riotous feasting and banquets; and the masquerades which were exhibited upon this occasion, attracting in a still greater degree their attention, as being a species of entertainment hitherto unknown in Scotland, and which was favourable to the profaneness of gallantry, they pointed against them the keenest strokes of their censure and indignation.

626 Honours conferred upon lord James Stuart.

The abilities of the earl of Marre, the ascendency he maintained in the councils of his sovereign, and the distinctions which he had acquired, did not fail to expose him to uncommon envy. The most desperate of his enemies, and the most formidable, was the earl of Huntley. In their rivalship for power, many causes of disgust had arisen. The one was at the head of the Protestants, the other was the leader of the Papists. Upon the death of Francis II. Huntley and the Popish faction had sent a deputation to Mary, inviting her to return to Scotland, and offering to support her with an army of 20,000 men. His advances were treated with attention and civility, but his offer was rejected. The invitation of the Protestants, presented by the earl of Marre, was more acceptable to her. Huntley had advised her to detain his rival in confinement in France, till the Roman Catholic religion should be re-established in Scotland. This advice she not only disregarded, but caressed his enemy with particular civilities. Upon her arrival in her own country, Huntley renewed his advances, offering to her to set up the mass in all the northern countries. He even conversed in a pressing manner upon this subject with her uncles and the French courtiers who attended her. Still no real attention was paid to him. He came to her palace, and was received only with respect. He was lord high chancellor without influence, and a privy counsellor without trust. The earl of Marre had the confidence of his sovereign, and was drawing to him the authority of government. These were cruel mortifications to a man of high rank, inordinate ambition,

627 Enmity of the earl of Huntley towards him.

628 Huntley presses the queen to restore the Popish religion.

bition, immenſe wealth, and who commanded numerous and warlike retainers. But he was yet to feel a ſtroke ſtill more ſeverely excruciating, and far more deſtructive of his conſequence. The opulent eſtate of Marre, which Mary had erected into an earldom, and conferred upon his rival, had been lodged in his family for ſome time. He conſidered it as his property, and that it was never to be torn from his houſe. This blow was at once to inſult moſt ſenſibly his pride, and to cut moſt fatally the ſinews of his greatneſs.

629 He accuſes the lord James Stuart of treaſon.

After employing againſt the earl of Marre thoſe arts of detraction and calumny which are ſo common in courts, he drew up and ſubſcribed a formal memorial, in which he accuſed him of aiming at the ſovereignty of Scotland. This paper he preſented to the queen; but the arguments with which he ſupported his charge being weak and inconcluſive, ſhe was the more confirmed in her attachment to her miniſter. Huntley then addreſſing himſelf to the earl of Bothwel, a man diſpoſed to deſperate courſes, engaged him to attempt to involve the earl of Marre and the houſe of Hamilton in open and violent contention. Bothwel repreſented to Marre the enmity which had long ſubſiſted between him and the houſe of Hamilton. It was an obſtacle to his greatneſs; and while its deſtruction might raiſe him to the higheſt pinnacle of power, it would be moſt acceptable to the queen, who, beſide the hatred which princes naturally entertain to their ſucceſſors, was animated by particular cauſes of offence againſt the duke of Chatellerault and the Earl of Arran. He concluded his exhortation with making an unlimited offer of his moſt ſtrenuous ſervices in the execution of this flagitious enterpriſe. The earl of Marre, however, abhorring the baſeneſs of the project, ſuſpicious of the ſincerity of the propoſer, or ſatiſfied that his eminence did not require the aid of ſuch arts, rejected all his advances. Bothwel, diſappointed upon one ſide, turned himſelf to the other. He practiſed with the houſe of Hamilton to aſſaſſinate the earl of Marre, whom they conſidered as their greateſt enemy. The buſineſs, he ſaid, might be performed with eaſe and expedition. The queen was in uſe to hunt the deer in the park of Falkland; and there the earl of Marre, unſuſpecting any danger, and ſlenderly attended, might be overpowered and put to death. The perſon of the queen, at the ſame time, might be ſeized; and by detaining her in cuſtody, a ſanction and ſecurity might be given to their crime. The integrity of the earl of Arran revolting againſt this conſpiracy, defeated its purpoſes. Dreading the perpetration of ſo cruel an action, and yet ſenſible of the reſolute determination of his friends, he wrote privately to the earl of Marre, informing him of his danger. But the return of Marre to his letter, thanking him for his intelligence, being intercepted by the conſpirators, Arran was confined by them under a guard in Kenneil houſe. He effected

630 And attempts to aſſaſſinate him.

631 But fails in his attempt.

notwithſtanding his eſcape, and made a full diſcovery of the plot to the queen. Yet in a matter ſo dark he could produce no witneſſes and no written vouchers to confirm his accuſations. He therefore, according to the faſhion of the times, offered to prove his information, by engaging Bothwel in ſingle combat. And though, in his examinations before the privy council, his love to the queen, his attachment to the earl of Marre, the atrocity of the ſcheme he revealed, and, above all, his duty and concern for his father the duke of Chattelleraut, threw him into a perturbation of mind which expreſſed itſelf violently in his ſpeech, his countenance, and his actions; yet his declarations, in general, were ſo conſiſtent and firm, that it was thought adviſeable to take the command of the caſtle of Dunbarton from the duke of Chatellerault, to confine the other conſpirators to different priſons, and to wait the farther diſcoveries which might be made by accident and time.

The earl of Huntley, inflamed by theſe diſappointments, invented other devices. He excited a tumult while the queen and the earl of Marre were at St Andrew's with only a few attendants; imagining that the latter would ſally forth to quell the inſurgents, and that a convenient opportunity would thus be afforded for putting him to the ſword without detection. The caution, however, of the earl of Marre, defeating this purpoſe, he ordered ſome of his retainers to attack him in the evening when he ſhould leave the queen; but theſe aſſaſſins being ſurpriſed in their ſtation, Huntley affected to excuſe their being in arms in a ſuſpicious place and at a late hour, by frivolous apologies, which, though admitted, could not be approved.

About this period, too, letters were received by Mary from the pope and the cardinal of Lorraine, in conſequence of the intrigues of the earl of Huntley and the Roman Catholic faction. They preſſed her to conſider, that while this nobleman was the moſt powerful of her ſubjects, he was by far the moſt zealous in the intereſts of the church of Rome. They intreated her to flatter him with the hope of her marriage with Sir John Gordon his ſecond ſon; held out to her magnificent promiſes of money and military ſupplies, if ſhe would ſet herſelf ſeriouſly to recover to power and ſplendour the ancient religion of her country; and recommended it to her to take meaſures to deſtroy the more ſtrenuous Proteſtants about her court, of whom a roll was tranſmitted to her, which included the name of her confident and miniſter the earl of Marre. Theſe letters could not have reached her at a juncture more unfavourable for their ſucceſs. The earl of Marre, to whom ſhe communicated them, was encouraged to proceed with the greateſt vigour in undermining the deſigns and the importance of his enemies.

632 Sir John Gordon wounds lord Ogilvy, and is apprehended.

New incidents exaſperated the animoſities of the enemies of the earl of Marre and his own. Sir John Gordon and the lord Ogilvie having a private diſpute, happened to meet each other in the high ſtreet of Edinburgh. They immediately drew their ſwords; and the lord Ogilvie receiving a very dangerous wound, Sir John Gordon was committed to priſon by the magiſtrates. The queen, at this time in Stirling, was informed by them of the riot; and while they expreſſed a fear leſt the friends of the priſoner ſhould riſe up in arms to give him his liberty, they mentioned a ſuſpicion which prevailed, that the partizans of the lord Ogilvie were to aſſemble themſelves to vindicate his quarrel. The queen, in her reply, after commending their diligence, inſtructed them to continue to have a watch over their priſoner; made known her deſire that the law ſhould take its courſe; and counſelled them to have no apprehenſions of the kindred of the parties at variance, but to rely upon the earl of Marre for providing

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633 But escapes from prison.

viding a sufficient force for their protection. Sir John Gordon, however, found the means to break from his confinement; and flying into Aberdeenshire, filled the retainers of his family with his complaints, and added to the disquiets of his father the earl of Huntley.

The queen, upon returning to Edinburgh, held a consultation upon affairs of state with her privy council; and soon after set out upon a progress to the northern parts of her kingdom. At Aberdeen she was met by the lady Huntley, a woman of deep dissimulation and of refined address; who endeavoured to conciliate her affections, was prodigal of flattery, expressed her zeal for the Popish religion, and let fall insinuations of the great power of her husband. She then interceded with the queen for forgiveness to her son; and begged with a keen importunity, that he might be permitted to have the honour to kiss her hand. But Mary having told her, that the favour she had solicited could not possibly be granted till her son should return to the prison from which he had escaped, and submit to the justice of his country, the lady Huntley engaged that he should enter again into custody, and only intreated, that, instead of being confined at Edinburgh, he should be conducted to the castle of Stirling. This request was complied with; and in the prosecution of the business, a court of justiciary being called, Sir John Gordon made his appearance, and acknowledged himself to be the queen's prisoner. The lord Glamis was appointed to conduct him to the castle of Stirling. But upon the road to this fortress, he deceived the vigilance of his guards, hastened back, and, gathering 1000 horsemen among his retainers, entrusted his security to the sword.

634 And attempts to raise a rebellion.

In the mean time, the queen continued her progress. The earl of Huntley joined himself to her train. His anxiety to induce her to allow him to attend her to his house of Strathbogy was uncommon; his intreaties were even pressed beyond the bounds of propriety. The intelligence arrived of the escape and rebellion of Sir John Gordon. The behaviour of the father and the son awakened in her the most alarming suspicions. Assembling her privy-council, who, according to the fashion of those times, constituted her court, and attended her person in her progresses through her dominions; she, with their advice, commanded her heralds to charge Sir John Gordon and his adherents to return to their allegiance, and to surrender up to her their houses of strength and castles, under the pains of high-treason and forfeiture. Disdaining now to go to the house of the earl of Huntley, where, as it afterwards appeared, that nobleman had made secret preparations to hold her in captivity, she advanced to Inverness she proposed to take up her residence; but Alexander Gordon the deputy governor, a dependent of the family of Huntley, refused to admit her. She was terrified with the prospect of a certain and imminent danger. Her attendants were few in number, the town was without walls, and the inhabitants were suspected. In this extremity, some ships in the river were kept in readiness as a last refuge; and she issued a proclamation, commanding all her loyal subjects in those parts immediately to repair to her for her protection. The Frasers and Monroes came in crowds to make her the offer of their swords. The Clan Chattan, though called to arms by the earl of Huntley, forsook his standard for that of their sovereign, when they discovered that his intentions were hostile to her. She employed this strength in laying siege to the castle, which surrendered itself upon the first assault. The lives of the common soldiers were spared, but the deputy-governor was instantly executed. The queen, full of apprehensions, returned to Aberdeen.

To intimidate the earl of Huntley, to punish the troubles which his family had created to the queen, and to convince him that his utter ruin was at hand, a measure infinitely humiliating was now concerted and put in practice. The earl of Marre resigned the rich estate of that name to the lord Erskine, who laid claim to it as his right; and received in recompence, after its erection into an earldom, the territory of Murray, which made an extensive portion of the possessions of the earl of Huntley.

The lady Huntley hastened to Aberdeen to throw herself at the feet of her sovereign, to make the offer of the most humble submissions on the part of her husband, and to avert by every possible means the downfal of his greatness, But all access to the queen was refused to her; and the earl of Huntley was summoned to appear in person before the privy council, to answer for his conduct, and to make a full resignation of all his castles and fortresses. He did not present himself, and was declared to be in open rebellion. A new proclamation was circulated by the queen to collect together a sufficient strength to subdue the insurgents. The command of her troops was given to the earl of Murray, who put them instantly into motion. Huntley advancing towards Aberdeen to give them battle, was informed of their approach. He halted at Corrichie, solacing himself with the hope of a decisive victory. The army of the queen was the most numerous; but there were several companies in it in whom little confidence could be placed. These the earl of Murray posted in the front of the battle, and commanded them to begin the attack. They recoiled upon him in disorder, according to his expectation; but a resolute band, in whom he trusted, holding out their spears, obliged them to take a different course. Their confusion and flight made Huntley conceive that the day was his own. He therefore ordered his soldiers to throw aside their lances, and to rush upon the enemy sword in hand, His command was obeyed, but with no precaution or discipline. When his men came to the place where the earl of Murray had stationed himself, the points of the extended spears of his firm battalion put a termination to their progress. The panic communicated by this unexpected resistance was improved by the vigour with which he pressed the assailants. In their turn they took to flight. The companies of the queen's army which had given way in the beginning of the conflict were now disposed to atone for their misconduct; and taking a share in the battle, committed a signal slaughter upon the retainers of the earl of Huntley. This nobleman himself expired in the throng of the pursuit. His sons Sir John Gordon and Adam Gordon were made prisoners, with the principal gentlemen who had assisted him.

633 Earl of Huntley defeated by the earl of Murray

Mary, upon receiving the tidings of this success, discovered neither joy nor sorrow. The passions, however,

ever, of the earl of Murray and his party were not yet completely gratified. Sir John Gordon was brought immediately to trial, confessed his guilt, and was condemned to suffer as a traitor. The sentence accordingly was executed, amidst a multitude of spectators, whose feelings were deeply affected, while they considered his immature death, the manliness of his spirit, and the vigour of his form. Adam Gordon, upon account of his tender age, was pardoned; and fines were levied from the other captives of condition according to their wealth. The lord Gordon, after the battle of Corrichie, fled to his father-in-law the duke of Chatellerault, and put himself under his protection; but was delivered up by that nobleman, all whose endeavours in his favour were ineffectual. He was convicted of treason, and condemned; but the queen was satisfied with confining him in prison. The dead body of the earl of Huntley was carried to Edinburgh, and kept without burial, till a charge of high-treason was preferred against him before the three estates. An ostentatious display was made of his criminal enterprises, and a verdict of parliament pronounced his guilt. His estates, hereditary and moveable, were forfeited; his dignity, name, and memory, were pronounced to be extinct; his ensigns armorial were torn from the book of arms; and his posterity were rendered unable to enjoy any offices, honour, or rank within the realm.

636 An interview proposed between Mary and Elizabeth, but in vain.

While these scenes were transacting, Mary, who was sincerely solicitous to establish a secure amity between the two kingdoms, opened a negociation to effectuate an interview with Elizabeth. Secretary Maitland, whom she employed in this business, met with a most gracious reception at the court of London. The city of York was appointed as the place where the two queens should express their mutual love and affection, and bind themselves to each other in an indissoluble union; the day of their meeting was fixed; the fashion and articles of their interview were adjusted; and a safe-conduct into England was granted to the queen of Scots by Elizabeth. But in this advanced state of the treaty it was unexpectedly interrupted. The disturbances in France, the persecution of the Protestants there, and the dangerous consequence which threatened the reformed countries, seemed to require Elizabeth to be particularly upon her guard, and to watch with eagerness against the machinations of the adversaries of her religion. Upon these pretences she declined for a season the projected interview; sending to Mary with this apology Sir Henry Sidney, a minister of ability, whom she instructed to dive into the secret views of the Scottish queen. This was a severe disappointment to Mary; but it is reasonable to believe, that Elizabeth acted in the negociation without sincerity, and upon principles of policy. It was not her interest to admit into her kingdom a queen who had pretensions to her crown, and who might strengthen them; who might raise the expectations of her Roman-Catholic subjects, and advance herself in their esteem; and who far surpassed her in beauty, and in the bewitching allurement of conversation and behaviour.

637 Chatelard falls in love with the queen.

Amidst affairs of great moment, a matter of smaller consequence, but which is interesting in its circumstances, deserves to be recorded. Chatelard, a gentleman of family in Dauphiny, and a relation of the chevalier de Bayard, had been introduced to queen Mary by the sieur Damville, the heir of the house of Montmorency. Polished manners, vivacity, attention to please, the talent of making verses, and an agreeable figure, were recommendations to this man. In the court they drew attention to him. He made himself necessary in all parties of pleasure at the palace. His assiduities drew to him the notice of the queen; and, at different times, she did him the honour to dance with him. His complaisance become gradually more familiar. He entertained her with his wit and good-humour; he made verses upon her beauty and accomplishments; and her politeness and condescension insinuated into him other sentiments than gratitude and reverence. He could not behold her charms without feeling their power; and instead of stifling in in its birth the most dangerous of all the passions, he encouraged its growth. In an unhappy moment, he entered her apartment; and, concealing himself under her bed, waited the approach of night. While the queen was undressing, her maids discovered his situation, and gave her the alarm. Chatelard was dismissed with disgrace; but soon after received her pardon. The frenzy, however, of his love compelling him to repeat his crime, it was no longer proper to show any compassion to him. The delicate situation of Mary, the noise of these adventures, which had gone abroad, and the rude suspicions of her subjects, required that he should be tried for his offences and punished. This imprudent man was accordingly condemned to lose his head; and the sentence was put in execution.

638 Is put to death.

The disagreeable circumstances in which Mary found herself involved by reason of her quarrel with Elizabeth, the excessive bigotry and overbearing spirit of her Protestant subjects, together with the adventure of Chatelard, and the calumnies propagated in consequences of it, determined Mary to think of a second marriage. Her beauty and expectations of the crown of England, joined to the kingdom which she already possessed, brought her many suitors. She was addressed by the king of Sweden, the king of Navarre, the prince of Conde, the duke of Ferrara, Don Carlos of Spain, the arch-duke Charles of Austria, and the duke of Anjou. Amidst so many illustrious names, it seems wonderful how queen Elizabeth could propose one of her own subjects, lord Robert Dudley, a nobleman possessed of no good quality excepting those external perfections which usually gain the hearts of the fair sex. Numberless were the intrigues and negociations which were carried on by the friends of the respective candidates for this amiable princess; who at last resolved to yield to the dictates of love, without much consulting those of policy or ambition. Lord Darnley, the eldest son of the earl of Lennox, arrived in Scotland in the year 1565, and was presented to the queen at the castle of Wemyss in Fife. He was received by her majesty with an approbation which at once discovered her intentions; and soon after, she declared her intention of marrying him, dispatching at the same time ambassadors to England and France, to acquaint these courts with her design, and to gain their consent. The French court made no objections; but Elizabeth's consent was by no means

639 Mary inclines to a second marriage, and is addressed by a number of suitors.

640 She makes choice of lord Darnley.

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to be gained; and even from her own subjects May met with considerable opposition. An inveterate enmity had taken place between the duke of Chatelleraulr and the earl of Lennox, in consequence of which the former deserted the court, and very few of the Hamiltons repaired to it. The lord James Stuart, now earl of Murray, fought to promote the match with lord Dudley. In consequence of this he was treated openly with disrespect by the earl of Lennox; he lost the favour of his sovereign, and Darnley threatened him with with his vengeance when he should be married to the queen. John Knox in the mean time behaved in the most furious manner, forgetting not only the meek and peaceable behaviour of a Christian, but the allegiance of a subject. This preacher even interfered with the marriage of his sovereign. He warned the nobility, that if they allowed a Papist or an infidel to obtain her person and the government of Scotland, they would be guilty, to the full extent of their power, of banishing Jesus Christ from the kingdom, of bringing down upon it the vengeance of God, of being a curse to themselves, and of depriving their queen of all comfort and consolation. As Darnley was a Papist, he was of consequence execrated by the whole body of Protestants, laity as well as clergy; while, on the other hand, he was supported by the earls of Athol and Caithness, the lords Ruthven and Hume, and the whole Popish faction.

641 Extravagant behaviour of John Knox.

It was exceedingly unfortunate for the queen, that neither lord Darnley himself, nor his father the earl of Lennox, had any talents for business; and as they naturally had the direction of the queen's affairs, it is no wonder that they were very ill managed. But a source of opposition, more violent than any imperfections of their own, rose up to them in the attachment which they discovered to a person upon whom the queen had of late bestowed her favour with an imprudent prodigality. David Rizzio from a mean origin raised himself to a distinguished eminence. He was born at Turin, where his father earned a subsistence as a musician. Varieties of situation and adventure, poverty, and misfortunes, had taught him experience. In the train of the count de Morette, the ambassador from the duke of Savoy, he had arrived in Scotland. The queen, desirous to complete her band of music, admitted him into her service. In this humble station he had the dexterity to attract her attention; and her French secretary falling into disgrace, from negligence and incapacity, he was promoted to discharge the duties of his office. A necessary and frequent admission to her company afforded him now the fullest opportunity to recommend himself to her; and while she approved his manners, she was sensible of his fidelity and his talents. His mind, however, was not sufficiently vigorous to bear with success and prosperity. Ambition grew upon him with preferment. He interfered in affairs of moment, intruded himself into the conventions of the nobles at the palace, and was a candidate for greatness. The queen consulted with him upon the most difficult and important business, and intrusted him with real power. The suppleness, servility, and unbounded complaisance which had characterised his former condition, were exchanged for insolence, ostentation, and pride. He exceeded the most potent barons in the stateliness of his demeanor, the sumptuousness of his apparel, and the splendour of his retinue. The nobles, while they despised the lowness of his birth, and detested him as a foreigner and a favourite, were mortified with his grandeur, and insulted with his arrogance. Their anger and abhorrence were driven into fury; and while this undeserving minion, to uphold his power, courted Darnley, and with officious assiduities advanced his suit with the queen, he hastened not only his own ruin, but laid the foundation of cruel outrages and of public calamity.

642 Account of David Rizzio.

To the earl of Murray the exaltation of Rizzio, so offensive in general to the nation, was humiliating in a more particular degree. His interference for the earl of Leicester, the partiality he entertained for Elizabeth, his connections with secretary Cecil, and the favour he had shown to Knox, had all contributed to create in Mary a suspicion of his integrity. The practices of Darnley and Rizzio were thence the more effectual; and the fullest weight of their influence was employed to undermine his power. His passions and disgusts were violent; and in his mind he meditated revenge. Mary, aware of her critical situation, was solicitous to add to her strength. Bothwel, who had been imprisoned for conspiring against the life of the earl of Murray, and who had escaped from confinement, was recalled from France; the earl of Sutherland, an exile in Flanders, was invited home to receive his pardon; and George Gordon, the son of the earl of Huntley, was admitted to favour, and was soon to be reinstated in the wealth and honours of his family.

643 The earl of Murray loses the queen's favour.

As soon as Bothwel arrived, the earl of Murray insisted that he should be brought to a trial for having plotted against his life, and for having broke from the place of his confinement. This was agreed to; and on the day of trial Murray made his appearance with 800 of his adherents. Bothwel did not chuse to contend with such a formidable enemy; he therefore fled to France, and a protestation was made, importing that his fear of violence had been the cause of his flight. The queen commanded the judge not to pronounce sentence. Murray complained loudly of her partiality, and engaged deeper and deeper in cabals with queen Elizabeth. Darnley, in the mean time, pressed his suit with eagerness. The queen used her utmost endeavours to cause Murray subscribe a paper expressing a consent to her marriage; but all was to no purpose. However, many of the nobility did subscribe this paper; and she ventured to summon a convention of the estates at Stirling, to whom she opened the business of the marriage; and who approved of her choice, provided the Protestant religion should continue to be the establishment.

In the mean time ambassadors arrived from England, with a message importing Elizabeth's entire disapprobation and disallowance of the queen's marriage with lord Darnley. But to these ambassadors Mary only replied, that matters were gone too far to be recalled; and that Elizabeth had no solid cause of displeasure, since, by her advice, she had fixed her affections not upon a foreigner, but upon an Englishman; and since the person she favoured was descended of a distinguished lineage, and could boast of having in his veins the royal blood of both kingdoms. Immediately after this audience she created lord Darnley a lord and a knight.

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In the mean time the day appointed for the assembly of parliament, which was finally to determine the subject of the marriage, was now approaching. The earl of Murray, encouraged by the apparent firmness of Elizabeth, goaded on by ambition, and alarmed with the approbation bestowed by the convention of the estates on the queen's choice of lord Darnley, perceived that the moment was at hand when a decisive blow should be struck. To inspirit the resentments of his friends, and to justify, in some measure, the violence of his projects, he affected to be under apprehensions of being assassinated by the lord Darnley. His fears were founded abroad; and he avoided to go to Perth, where he affirmed that the plot against him was to be carried into execution. He courted the enemies of Darnley with unceasing assiduity; and he united to him in a confederacy the duke of Chatellerault, and the earls of Argyle, Rothes, and Glencairn. It was not the sole object of their association to oppose the marriage. They engaged in more criminal enterprises. They meditated the death of the earl of Lennox and the lord Darnley; and while the queen was upon the road to Calendar place to visit the lord Livingston, they proposed to intercept her and to hold her in captivity. In this state of her humiliation, Murray was to advance himself into the government of the kingdom, under the character of its regent. But Mary having received intelligence of their conspiracy, the earl of Athol and the lord Ruthven raised suddenly 300 men to protect her in her journey. Defeated in this scheme, the earl of Murray and his associates did not relinquish their cabals. They thought of new atchievements; and the nation was filled with alarms, suspicions, and terror.

644 An association against the queen and Darnley.

Amidst the arts employed by the Scottish malcontents to inflame the animosities of the nation, they forgot not to insist upon the dangers which threatened the Protestant religion from the advancement of lord Darnley, and from the rupture that must ensue with England. Letters were every where dispersed among the faithful, reminding them of what the eternal God had wrought for them in the abolition of idolatry, and admonishing them to oppose the restoration of the mass. A supplication was presented to the queen, complaining of idolaters, and insisting upon their punishment. In the present juncture of affairs it was received with unusual respect; and Mary instructed the Popish ecclesiastics to abstain from giving offence of any kind to the Protestants. A priest, however, having celebrated the mass, was taken by the brethren, and exposed to the insults and fury of the populace at the market-place of Edinburgh, in the garments of his profession, and with the chalice in his hand; and the queen having given a check to this tumultuous proceeding, the Protestants, rising in their wrath, were the more confirmed in the belief that she meant to overthrow their religion. The clergy, the most learned and able, held frequent consultations together; and while the nation was disturbed with dangerous ferments, the general assembly was called to deliberate upon the affairs of the church. Their hope of success being proportioned to the difficulties in the situation of the queen, they were the less scrupulous in forming their resolutions; and the commissioners, whom they deputed to her, were ordered to demand a parliamentary ratification of their desires.

645 Disturbances raised by the Protestants.

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646 Their demands.

They insisted, that the mass, with every remain whatsoever of Popery, should be universally suppressed throughout the kingdom; that in this reformation, the queen's person and household should be included; and that all Papists and idolaters should be punished upon conviction according to the laws. They contended, that persons of every description and degree should resort to the churches upon Sunday, to join in prayers, and to attend to exhortations and sermons; that an independent provision should be assigned for the support of the present clergy, and for their successors; that all vacant benefices should be conferred upon persons found to be qualified for the ministry, upon the trial and examination of the superintendants; that no bishopric, abbey, priory, deanery, or other living, having many churches, should be bestowed upon a single person; but that, the plurality of the foundation being dissolved, each church should be provided with a minister; that the glebes and manses should be allotted for the residence of the ministers, and for the reparation of churches; that no charge in schools or universities, and no care of education, either public or private, should be intrusted to any person who was not found and able in doctrine, and who was not approved by the superintendants; that all lands which of old had been devoted to hospitality, should again be made subservient to it; that the lands and rents which formerly belonged to the monks of every order, with the annuities, alterages, obits, and the other emoluments which had appertained to priests, should be employed in the sustentation of the poor and the upholding of schools; that all horrible crimes, such as idolatry, blasphemy, breaking of the sabbath, witchcraft, sorcery, inchantment, adultery, manifest whoredom, the keeping of brothels, murder, and oppression, should be punished with severity; that judges should be appointed in every district, with powers to pronounce sentences and to execute them; and, in fine, that for the ease of the labouring husbandmen, some order should be devised concerning a reasonable payment of the tythes.

647 Moderation of the queen.

To these requisitions, the queen made an answer full of moderation and humanity. She was ready to agree with the three estates in establishing the reformed religion over the subjects of Scotland; and she was steadily resolved not to throw into hazard the life, the peace, or the fortune, of any person whatsoever upon account of his opinions. As to herself and her household, she was persuaded that her people would not urge her to adopt tenets in contradiction to her conscience, and thereby involve her in remorse and uneasiness. She had been nourished and brought up in the Romish faith; she conceived it to be founded on the word of God; and she was desirous to continue in it.

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But, setting aside her belief and religious duty, she ventured to assure them, that she was convinced from political reasons, that it was her interest to maintain herself firm in the Roman Catholic persuasion. By departing from it she would forfeit the amity of the king of France, and that of other princes who were now strongly attached to her; and their disaffection could not be repaired or compensated by any new alliance. To her subjects she left the fullest liberty of conscience; and they could not surely refuse to their sovereign the same right and indulgence. With regard to the patronage of benefices, it was a prerogative and property which it would ill become her to violate. Her necessities, and the charge of her royal dignity, required her to retain in her hands the patrimony of the crown. After the purposes, however, of her station, and the exigences of government, were satisfied, she could not object to a special assignment of revenue for the maintenance of the ministry; and, on the subject of the other articles which had been submitted to her, she was willing to be directed by the three estates of the kingdom, and to concur in the resolutions which should appear to them the most reasonable and expedient.

638 The Protestants are displeased with her answer.

The clergy, in a new assembly or convention, expressed a high displeasure with this return to their address. They took the liberty to inform the queen, that the doctrines of the reformation which she refused to adopt, were the religion which had been revealed by Jesus Christ, and taught by the apostles. Popery was of all persuasions the least alluring, and had the fewest recommendations. In antiquity, consent of people, authority of princes, and number of proselytes, it was plainly inferior to Judaism. It did not even rest upon a foundation so solid as the doctrines of the alcoran. They required her, therefore, in the name of the eternal God, to embrace the means of attaining the truth, which were offered to her in the preaching of the word, or by the appointment of public disputations between them and their adversaries. The terrors of the mass were placed before her in all their deformity. The sayer of it, the action itself, and the opinions expressed in it, were all pronounced to be equally abominable. To hear the mass, or to gaze upon it, was to commit the complicated crimes of sacrilege, blasphemy, and idolatry. Her delicacy in not renouncing her opinions from the apprehension of offending the king of France and her other allies, they ridiculed as impertinent in the highest degree. They told her, that the true religion of Christ was the only means by which any confederacy could endure; and that it was far more precious than the alliance of any potentate whatsoever, as it would bring to her the friendship of the King of kings. As to patronages, being a portion of her patrimony, they intended not to defraud her of her rights: but it was their judgment, that the superintendants ought to make a trial of the qualifications of candidates for the ministry; and as it was the duty of the patron to present a person to the benefice, it was the business of the church to manage his institution or collation. For without this restraint, there would be no security for the fitness of the incumbent; and if no trials or examinations of ministers took place, the church would be filled with mistrule and ignorance. Nor was it right or just that her majesty should retain to herself any part of the revenue of benefices; as it ought to be all employed to the uses of the clergy, for the purposes of education, and for the support of the poor. And as to her opinion, that a suitable assignment should be made for them, they could not but thank her with reverence: but they begged to solicit and importune her to condescend upon the particulars of a proper scheme for this end, and to carry it into execution; and that, taking into a due consideration the other articles of their demands, she would study to comply with them, and to do justice to the religious establishment of her people.

649 They rise in arms, but are soon quelled.

From the fears of the people about their religion, disturbances and insurrections were unavoidable; and before Mary had given her answer to the petitions or address of the clergy, the Protestants, to a formidable number, had marched to St Leonard's Craig; and, dividing themselves into companies, had chosen captains to command them. But the leaders of this tumult being apprehended and committed to close custody, it subsided by degrees; and the queen, upon the intercession of the magistrates of Edinburgh, instead of bringing them to trial, gave them a free pardon. To quiet, at the same time, the apprehensions which had gone abroad, and to controvert the insidious reports which had been industriously spread of her inclination to overturn the reformed doctrines, she repeatedly issued proclamations, assuring her subjects, that it was her fixed determination not to molest or disturb any person whatsoever upon account of his religion or conscience; and that she had never presumed even to think of any innovation that might endanger the tranquillity or do a prejudice to the happiness of the commonwealth.

650 Intrigues of the rebellious nobles with Elizabeth.

While Mary was conducting her affairs with discernment and ability, the earl of Murray and his confederates continued their consultations and their intrigues. After their disappointment in the conspiracy against the queen and the lord Darnley, they perceived that their only hope of success or security depended upon Elizabeth; and as Randolph had promised them her protection and assistance, they scrupled not to address a letter to her, explaining their views and situation. The pretences of their hostility to their sovereign upon which they affected to insist, were her settled design to overturn the Protestant religion, and her rooted desire to break all correspondence and amity with England. To prevent the accomplishment of these purposes, they said, was the object of their confederacy; and with her support and aid they did not doubt of being able to advance effectually the emolument and advantage of the two kingdoms. In the present state of their affairs they applied not, however, for any supply of her troops. An aid from her treasury was now only necessary to them; and they engaged to bestow her bounty in the manner the most agreeable to her inclinations and her interests. The pleasure with which Elizabeth received their application was equal to the aversion she had conceived against the queen of Scots. She not only granted to them the relief they requested, but assured them by Randolph of her esteem and favour while they should continue to uphold the reformed religion and the connection of the two nations. Flattered by her assurances and generosity, they were strenuous to gain partizans, and to disunite

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disunite the friends of their sovereign; and while they were secretly preparing for rebellion, and for trying their strength in the field, they disseminated among the people the tenets, That a Papist could not legally be their king; that the queen was not at liberty of herself to make the choice of a husband; and that, in a matter so weighty, she ought to be entirely directed by the determination of the three estates assembled in Parliament.

651 Treachery of Elizabeth.

Elizabeth, at the same time, carrying her dissimulation to the most criminal extremity, commanded Randolph to ask an audience of Mary; and to counsel her to nourish no suspicions of the earl of Murray and his friends; to open her eyes to their sincerity and honour; and to call to mind, that as their services had hitherto preserved her kingdom in repose, her jealousies of them might kindle it into combustion, make the blood of her nobles to flow, and cast into hazard her person and her crown. Full of astonishment at a message so rude and so improper, the queen of Scots desired him to inform his mistress, that she required not her instructions to distinguish between patriotism and treachery; that she was fully sensible when her will or purpose was resisted or obeyed; and that she possessed a power which was more than sufficient to repress and to punish the enormities and the crimes of her subjects. The English resident went now to the earl of Lennox and the lord Darnley, and charged them to return to England. The former expressed an apprehension of the severity of his queen, and sought an assurance of her favour before he could venture to visit her dominions. The latter, exerting greater fortitude, told him, that he acknowledged no duty or obedience but to the queen of Scots. The resident treating this answer as disrespectful to Elizabeth, turned his back upon the lord Darnley, and retired without making any reverence, or bidding him an adieu.

The behaviour of Elizabeth, so fierce and so perfidious, was well calculated to confirm all the intentions of Mary; and this, doubtless, was one of the motives with which she was actuated. But while the queen of Scots was eager to accomplish her marriage, she was not inattentive to the rising troubles of her country. The parliament which she had appointed could not now be held: it was therefore prorogued to a more distant day; and the violence of the times did not then permit it to assemble. By close letters she invited to her, with all their retainers, the most powerful and the most eminent of her subjects. Bothwel was recalled anew from France; and by general proclamations she summoned to her standard the united force of her kingdom. The castle of Edinburgh was likewise provided amply with stores and ammunition, that, in the event of misfortunes, it might afford her a retreat and defence. The alacrity with which her subjects flocked to her from every quarter, informed her of her power and popularity; and while it struck Murray and his adherents with the danger to which they were exposed, it declared to them the opinion entertained by the nation of the iniquity and the selfishness of their proceedings.

652 Marriage of Mary with lord Darnley.

On the 29th of July 1565, the ceremony of marriage between the queen and lord Darnley was performed. The latter had been previously created duke of Albany. The day before the marriage, a proclamation was published, commanding him to be styled *king of the realm*, and that all letters after their marriage should be directed in the names of her husband and herself. The day after it, a new proclamation was issued confirming this act: he was pronounced king by the sound of trumpets, and associated with the queen in her government. This measure seems to have been the effects of the extreme love the queen had for her husband, which did not permit her to see that it was an infringement of the constitution of the kingdom; tho' perhaps she might also be urged to it by the pressing eagerness of lord Darnley himself, and the partial counsels of David Rizzio. The earl of Murray made loud complaints, remonstrated, that a king was imposed upon the nation without the consent of the three estates, and called upon the nation to arm against the beginnings of tyranny. The malcontents accordingly were immediately in arms; but their success was not answerable to their wishes. The bulk of the nation were satisfied with the good intentions of their sovereign, and she herself took the earliest opportunity of crushing the rebellion in its infancy. The earl of Murray was declared a traitor; and similar steps were taken with others of the chiefs of the rebels. She then took the field against them at the head of a considerable army; and having driven them from place to place, obliged them at last to take refuge in England. Queen Elizabeth received them with that duplicity with which her conduct was so remarkable. Though she herself had countenanced, and even excited them to revolt, she refused to give an audience to their deputies. Nay, she even caused them to emit a public declaration, that neither she, nor any person in her name, had ever excited them to their rebellious practices. Yet, while the public behaviour of Elizabeth was so acrimonious, she afforded them a secure retreat in her kingdom, treated the earl of Murray in private with respect and kindness, and commanded the earl of Bedford to supply him with money. Mary, however, resolved to proceed against the rebels with an exemplary rigour. The submissions of the duke of Chatellerault alone, who had been less criminal than the rest, were attended to. But even the favour which he obtained was precarious and uncertain; for he was commanded to use the pretence of sickness, and to pass for some time into foreign countries. A parliament was called; and a summons of treason being executed against the earls of Argyle, Glencairn, and Rothes, with others of the principal rebels, they were commanded to appear before the three estates; in default of which their lives and estates were declared to be forfeited.

653 He is proclaimed king of Scotland.

654 The rebellious nobles driven into England.

In the mean time Throgmorton the English ambassador solicited the pardon of the rebels; which Mary was at first inclined to grant. However, by the persuasion of the court of France, she was not only induced to proceed against them with rigour; but acceded to the treaty of Bayonne, by which the destruction of the Protestants was determined. This measure filled the whole court with terror and dismay. The rebels were acquainted with the danger of their situation; and being now driven desperate, they were ready to engage in the most atrocious designs. Unhappily, the situation of affairs in Scotland rendered the accomplishment of their purposes but too easy. Violent dis-

655 Mary accedes to the treaty of Bayonne.

gusts

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656 Quarrels between the queen and her husband.

gusts had taken place between the queen and her husband. Her fondness had been excessive; but she soon perceived that the qualities of his mind were not proportioned to his personal accomplishments. He was proud, disdainful, and suspicious. No persuasions could correct his wilfulness; and he was at the same time giddy and obstinate, insolent and mean. The queen in consequence began to show an indifference towards him; which he took care to augment, by showing the like indifference towards her, and engaging in low intrigues and amours, indulging himself in dissipation and riot, &c. However, the desire of dominion was his ruling passion; and the queen, finding his total incapacity for exercising his power to any good purpose, had excluded him from it altogether. He was therefore at present a proper object for the machinations of the rebels, and readily entered into an agreement with them to depose the queen; vainly thinking by that means that he should secure the crown to himself. However, as the parliament was soon to assemble, in which the rebels had every reason to believe that they would be condemned for high-treason, it was necessary therefore that the kingdom should be thrown into disorder before that time came, otherwise their fate was inevitable. Practising on the imbecillity of

657 The king conspires the destruction of David Rizzio, with the rebellious nobles.

Darnley, they persuaded him that a criminal correspondence subsisted betwixt the queen and David Rizzio (A). For this reason the king resolved upon his destruction; and the conspirators hoped thereby not only to get an indemnity to themselves, but to effect a total revolution at court, and the entire humiliation of Bothwel, Huntley, and Athol, who were the associates of Rizzio. However, in order to save themselves, they engaged the king to subscribe a bond, affirming that the project of assassinating Rizzio was altogether of his own devising; acknowledging that he had solicited them to take a part in it, from the apprehensions that resistance might be made to him; and agreeing, upon the word and honour of a prince, to protect and secure them against every hazard and injury to which they might be exposed from the atchievement of his enterprise. Having procured this security, and having allured the earl of Lennox the king's father to approve their measures, they adjusted the method of the projected murder; and dispatched a messenger to the English frontier, advertising the earl of Murray and the rebels of their intentions, and inviting them to return to the court.

658 Rizzio cruelly murdered.

Upon the 9th day of March, about 7 o'clock in the evening, armed men, to the number of 500, surrounded the palace of Holyrood-house. The earl of Morton and the lord Lindsay entered the court of the palace, with 160 persons. The queen was in her chamber at supper, having in her presence her natural sister the countess of Argyle, her natural brother Robert commendator of Holyrood-house, Beton of Creich master of the household, Arthur Erskine, and David Rizzio. The king entering the apartment, seated himself by her side. He was followed by the lord Ruthven, who being wasted with sickness, and cased in armour, exhibited an appearance that was hideous and terrible. Four ruffians attended him. In a hollow voice he commanded Rizzio to leave a place which did not become him. The queen, in astonishment and consternation, applied to the king to unfold to her this mysterious enterprise. He affected ignorance. She ordered Ruthven from her presence, under the pain of treason; declaring to him at the same time, that if Rizzio had committed any crime, she would produce him before the parliament, and punish him according to the laws. Ruthven drawing his dagger, advanced towards Rizzio. The queen rose to make an exertion of her authority. The unfortunate stranger laid hold of her garments, crying out for justice and mercy. Other conspirators rushing into the chamber, overturned the table, and increased the dismay and confusion. Loaded pistols were presented to the bosom of the queen. The king held her in his arms. George

(A) That there subsisted a criminal intercourse between Mary and Rizzio is a scandal which is now given up by her enemies. It seems to rest on the authority of Buchannan and Knox; and their evidence in this case is clearly of no weight, not only from their being the strenuous partizans of her adversaries, but from the multitude of falsehoods which they anxiously detail to calumniate her. The love she felt for Darnley was extreme, and their acquaintance commenced a month or two after the appointment of Rizzio to be her secretary for French affairs. She became pregnant soon after her marriage; and it was during her pregnancy that Rizzio was assassinated. These are striking presumptions in her favour. And what seems to put her innocence out of all question, is the silence of the spies and residents of Elizabeth with regard to this amour: for, if there had been any thing real in it, they could not have made their court to their queen more effectually than by declaring to her its peculiarities; and their want of delicacy, so observable in other circumstances, would have induced them upon this occasion to give the greatest fulness and deformity to their information.

It appears that Rizzio was ill-favoured, and of a disagreeable form. Buchanan says of him, "Non faciem cultus honestabat, sed facies cultum destruebat." Hist. Scot. lib. xvii. This expression is very strong; but it would have little weight if other authors had not concurred in giving a similar description of Rizzio. In a book intitled, "Le Livre de la Morte de la Reyne d'Ecosse," and printed in the year 1587, he is said to be "disgracié de corps." Caussin, ap. Jebb, p. 37. This work too, while it records the unkindness of nature to his person, has observed, that he was in his old age when he made a figure in the court of Mary. "Elle traittoit ordinairement avec David Riccio son secretaire, homme aagé & prudent, qui possedoit son oreille." Ibid. And other authors give their testimonies to the same purpose.

It is probable that the panegyrists of Mary exaggerate somewhat the imperfections as well as the good qualities of Rizzio. But there seems in general to be no reason to doubt his fidelity and talents, any more than his uglinesS and senility. He had therefore a better title to be her secretary than her lover. It is an absurdity to think that a queen so young and beautiful would yield herself to deformity and old age. A common prostitute must be brought to endure this misfortune. The capacity of the man was a recommendation to him; and as he owed every thing to her bounty, and was a stranger, she had the greatest reason to rely upon his faithfulness. The perfidiousness and duplicity of her courtiers drew closer the tie of their connection; and as Rizzio was studious to make himself agreeable, and was skilful in games of hazard, he was always ready to be a party with her in those innocent amusements which fill up the listless intervals of life. Keith. Append. p. 124.

[Scotland. George Douglas, snatching the dagger of his sovereign, plunged it into the body of Rizzio. The wounded and screaming victim was dragged into the antichamber; and so eager were the assassins to complete their work, that he was torn and mangled with fifty-six wounds.

While the queen was pressing the king to gratify her inquiries into the meaning of a deed so execrable, Ruthven returned into their presence. She gave a full vent to indignation and reproach. Ruthven, with an intolerable coldness and deliberation, informed her, that Rizzio had been put to death by the counsel of her husband, whom he had dishonoured; and that by the persuasion of this minion she had refused the crown-matrimonial to the king, had engaged to re-establish the ancient religion, had resolved to punish the earl of Murray and his friends, and had entrusted her confidence to Bothwel and Huntley, who were traitors. The king, taking the part of Ruthven, remonstrated against her proceedings; and complained that from the time of her familiarity with Rizzio, she had neither regarded, nor entertained, nor trusted him. His suspicions and ingratitude shocked and tortured her. His connection with the conspirators gave her an ominous anxiety. Apprehensions of outrages still more atrocious invaded her. In these agitated and miserable moments she did not lose herself in the helplessness of sorrow. The softiness of her spirit communicated relief to her; and wiping away her tears, she exclaimed, that it was not now a season for lamentation, but for revenge.

The earls of Huntley, Bothwel, and Athol, the lords Fleming and Levingston, and Sir James Balfour, who were obnoxious to the conspirators, and at this time in the palace, found all resistance to be vain. Some of them eluding the vigilance of Morton, made their escape; and others were allowed to retire. The provost and magistrates of Edinburgh getting intelligence of the tumult, ordered the alarm-bell to be rung.

659 The queen confined, and threatened.

The citizens, apprehensive and anxious, approached in crowds to inquire into the welfare of their sovereign; but she was not permitted to address herself to them. The conspirators told her, that if she presumed to make any harangue, they would "cut her in pieces, and cast her over the walls." The king called to the people that she was well, and commanded them to disperse. The queen was shut up in her chamber, uncertain of her fate, and without the consolation or attendance of her women.

In the morning a proclamation was issued by the king, without the knowledge of his queen, prohibiting the meeting of the parliament, and ordering the members to retire from the city. The rebellious lords now returned from England, and arrived at Edinburgh within 24 hours after the assassination of Rizzio. The queen, knowing of how much consequence it was for her to gain the earl of Murray, invited him to wait upon her. Notwithstanding the extreme provocation which she had met with, Mary so far commanded her passions, that she gave him a favourable reception. After informing him of the rudeness and severity of the treatment she had met with, the queen observed, that if he had remained in friendship with her at home, he would have protected her against such excesses of hardship and insult. Murray, with an hypocritical compassion, shed abundance of tears; while the queen seemed to entertain no doubt of his sincerity, but gave him room to hope for a full pardon of all his offences. In the mean time, however, the conspirators held frequent consultations together, in which it was debated, whether they should hold the queen in perpetual captivity, or put her to death; or whether they should content themselves with committing her to close custody in Stirling castle till they should obtain a parliamentary sanction to their proceedings, establish the Protestant religion by the total overthrow of the mass, and invest the king with the crown-matrimonial and the government of the kingdom.

660 She endeavours in vain to gain the earl of Murray.

661 But prevails on the king to abandon the cause of the conspirators.

Mary now began to perceive the full extent of her wretchedness; and therefore, as her last resource, applied to the king, whom she treated with all those blandishments usually employed by the fair sex when they want to gain the the ascendency over the other. The king, who, with all his faults, had a natural facility of temper, was easily gained over. The conspirators were alarmed at his coldness, and endeavoured to fill his mind with fears concerning the duplicity of his wife; but, finding they could not gain their point, they at last began to treat of an accommodation. The king brought them a message, importing, that Mary was disposed to bury in oblivion all memory of their transgressions; and he offered to conduct them into her presence. The earls of Murray and Morton, with the lord Ruthven, attended him into her presence; and, falling on their knees before the queen, made their apologies and submissions. She commanded them to rise; and having desired them to recollect her abhorrence of cruelty and rapaciousness, she assured them with a gracious air, that instead of designing to forfeit their lives and possess herself of their estates, she was inclined to receive them into favour, and to give a full pardon, not only to the nobles who had come from England, but to those who had assassinated David Rizzio. They were accordingly ordered to prepare the bonds for their security and forgiveness, which the queen promised to take the earliest opportunity of subscribing; but in the mean time the king observed, that the conspirators ought to remove the guards which they had placed around the queen, that all suspicion of restraint might be taken away. This measure could not with any propriety be opposed, and the guards were therefore dismissed; upon which the queen, that very night, left her palace at midnight, and took the road to Dunbar, accompanied by the king and a few attendants.

662 And escapes from them.

The news of the queen's escape threw the conspirators into the utmost consternation; as she immediately issued proclamations for her subjects to attend her in arms, and was powerfully supported. They sent therefore the lord Semple, requesting, with the utmost humility, her subscription to their deeds of pardon and security; but to this message she returned an unfavourable answer, and advanced towards Edinburgh with an army of 8000 men. The conspirators now fled with the utmost precipitation. Even John Knox retired to Kyle till the storm should blow over. On the queen's arrival at Edinburgh, a privy council was instantly called, in which the conspirators were charged to appear as guilty of murder and treason; their places of strength were ordered to be rendered up to the officers

663 The rebellious nobles are declared traitors.

officers of the crown; and their eſtates and poſſeſſions were made liable to confiſcation and forfeiture.

But while the queen was thus eager to puniſh the conſpirators, ſhe was ſenſible that ſo many of the nobility, by uniting in a common cauſe, might raiſe a powerful party in oppoſition to her; for which reaſon ſhe endeavoured to detach the earl of Murray from the reſt, by making him offers of pardon. Sir James Melvil accordingly pledged himſelf to produce his pardon and that of his adherents, if he would ſeparate from Morton and the conſpirators. He accordingly became cold and diſtant to them, and exclaimed againſt the murder as a moſt execrable action; but notwithſtanding his affected anger, when the conſpirators fled to England, he furniſhed them with letters of recommendation to the earl of Bedford. After the flight of the conſpirators, the king thought it neceſſary for him to deny his having any ſhare in the action. He therefore embraced an opportunity of declaring to the privy council his total ignorance of the conſpiracy againſt Rizzio; and not ſatiſfied with this, he, by public proclamations at the market-place of his capital, and over the whole kingdom, proteſted to the people at large, that he had never beſtowed upon it, in any degree, the ſanction of his command, conſent, aſſiſtance, or approbation.

664 Shameful prevarication of the king.

In the mean time the queen granted a full and ample pardon to the earls of Murray, Argyle, Glencairn, and Rothes, and their adherents; but towards the conſpirators ſhe remained inexorable. This lenity, to Murray eſpecially, proved a ſource of the greateſt inquietude to the queen; for this nobleman, blind to every motive of action diſtinct from his own ambition, began to contrive new plots, which, though diſappointed for a time, ſoon operated to the deſtruction of the queen, and almoſt to the ruin of the nation.

665 Murray and ſome others of the rebels are pardoned.

In 1566, the queen was delivered of a prince, who received the name of *James*. This happy event, however, did not extinguiſh the quarrel betwixt her and the king. His deſire to intrude himſelf into her authority and to fix a ſtain upon her honour, his ſhare in the murder of Rizzio, and his extreme meanneſs in publicly denying it afterwards, could not fail to impreſs her with the ſtrongeſt ſentiments of deteſtation and contempt. Unable, however, totally to diveſt herſelf of regard for him, her behaviour, though cold and diſtant, was yet decent and reſpectful. Caſtelnau, at this time ambaſſador extraordinary from France, conceived that a reconciliation might be effected, and employed himſelf ſome time in this friendly office. Nor were his endeavours altogether ineffectual. The king and queen ſpent two nights together; and proceeded, in company with each other, to Meggatland in Tweedale, in order to enjoy the diverſion of the chace, attended by the earls of Huntley, Bothwel, Murray, and other nobles. From thence they paſſed to Edinburgh, and then took the road to Stirling. Had the king been endowed with any prudence, he would have made the beſt uſe of this opportunity to have regained the affections of his queen; but, inſtead of this, finding that he was not immediately intruſted with power, his peeviſhneſs ſuggeſted to him a deſign of going abroad. To Monſieur du Croc, the French reſident, who had attended Mary at Stirling, he ventured to communicate his chimerical

666 Birth of James VI.

667 A partial reconciliation between the king and queen.

668 Which is broken off by the king's imprudent behaviour.

project. This ſtateſman repreſented to him its wildneſs and inefficacy; and could hardly believe that he was ſerious. To his father the earl of Lennox, who paid him a viſit at this place immediately upon Mary's departure from it, he likewiſe communicated his intention; and all the intreaties, arguments, and remonſtrances of this nobleman, to make him drop his deſign, were without ſucceſs. He provided a veſſel, and kept it in readineſs to carry him from his dominions. The earl of Lennox, after returning to Glaſgow, where he uſually reſided, gave way to his paternal anxieties, and ſolicited the queen by letter to interfere with her authority and perſuaſions; and upon the evening of the day in which ſhe received this diſpatch, the king alighted at Holyrood-houſe. But the names of the nobles who were with the queen being announced to him, he objected to three of them, and inſiſted that they ſhould be ordered to depart, before he would enter within the gates of the palace. The queen, alarmed with a demeanour ſo rude and ſo unwarrantable, condeſcended to leave her company and her palace to meet him; and it was with great difficulty that ſhe was able to entice him into her own apartment. There he remained with her during the night. She communicated to him his father's letter, and employed every art and blandiſhment to engage him to explain his perverſe deſign. But he gave her no return or ſatiſfaction. He was unmoved with her kindneſs; and his ſilence, dejection, and peeviſhneſs, augmented her diſtreſs. In the morning, ſhe called her privy council to aſſemble in the palace, and invited to her Monſieur du Croc the French envoy. By the biſhop of Roſs ſhe explained the intention of the king, and made known the diſpatch of the earl of Lennox. The privy council were urgent to know the reaſons of a voyage that appeared to them ſo inexplicable; and earneſtly preſſed the king to unboſom himſelf. If his reſolution proceeded from diſcontent, and if there were perſons in the kingdom who had given him cauſes of offence, they aſſured him, that they were ready, upon his information, to take the neceſſary ſteps to make him eaſy and happy. No quality or rank ſhould exempt thoſe from inquiry and puniſhment who had committed miſdemeanors againſt him. This, they ſaid, conſiſted with his honour, with the honour of the queen, and with their own. If, however, he had received no ſufficient provocation to juſtify his behaviour, and if he had no title to complain of actual injuries, they admoniſhed him to remember, that his flight from a queen ſo beautiful, and from a kingdom ſo ancient and noble, would expoſe him to the greateſt ridicule and diſgrace. They pointed out the happineſs of his fortune, and counſelled him not to part lightly with all its flattering advantages. The queen herſelf, taking his hand into her's, and preſſing it with affection, beſought him to ſay by what act or deed ſhe had unfortunately induced him to conceive ſo fatal a purpoſe. Her memory did not reproach her with any crime or indiſcretion which affected his honour or her integrity: yet if, without any deſign upon her part, ſhe had incurred his diſpleaſure, ſhe was diſpoſed to atone for it; and ſhe begged him to ſpeak with entire freedom, and not in any degree to ſpare her. Monſieur du Croc then addreſſed him, and employed his intereſt and perſuaſions to make him reveal his inquietudes. But all

this

Scotland. this respectful attention and ceremonious duty were ineffectual. Obstinately froward, he refused to confess that he intended any voyage, and made no mention of any reasons of discontent. He yet acknowledged with readiness, that he could not with justice accuse the queen of any injury or offence. Oppressed with uneasiness and perturbation, he prepared to retire; and, turning to her, said, "Adieu, Madam! you shall not see me for a long time." He then bowed to the French envoy, and to the lords of the privy council.

He hastened back to Stirling, leaving the queen and her council in surprise and astonishment. They resolved to watch his motions with anxiety, and could not conjecture what step he would take. Mary, to prevent the effect of rumours to her disadvantage, dispatched a courier to advertise the king of France and the queen-mother of his conduct. It was not possible that a prince so meanly endowed with ability, could make any impression upon her allies. Nor did it appear to be in his power to excite any domestic insurrection or disturbance. He was universally odious; and, at this time, the queen was in the highest estimation with the great body of her subjects. After passing some days at Stirling, he addressed a letter to the queen, in which, after hinting at his design of going abroad, he insinuated his reasons of complaint. He was not trusted by her with authority, and she was no longer studious to advance him to honour. He was without attendants; and the nobility had deserted him. Her answer was sensible and temperate. She called to his remembrance the distinctions she had conferred upon him, the uses to which he had put the credit and reputation accruing from them, and the heinous offences he had encouraged in her subjects. Though the plotters against Rizzio had represented him as the leader of their enterprise, she had yet abstained from any accusation of him, and had even behaved as if she believed not his participation in the guilt of that project. As to the defects of his retinue, she had uniformly offered him the attendance of her own servants. As to the nobility, they were the supports of the throne, and independent of it. Their countenance was not to be commanded, but won. He had discovered too much statelinesS to them; and they were the proper judges of the deportment that became them. If he wished for consequence, it was his duty to pay them court and attention: and whenever he should procure and conciliate their regard and commendation, she would be happy to give him all the importance that belonged to him.

In the mean time, the earls of Murray and Bothwel were industriously striving to widen the breach between the king and queen, and at the same time to foment the division between the king and his nobles. The earl of Murton excited disturbances on the borders; and as no settled peace had taken place there since Mary's marriage, there was the greatest reason to believe that he would succeed in his attempts. Proclamations on this were issued by the queen to call her subjects to arms; and she proceeded to Jedburgh, to hold justice-courts, and to punish traitors and disorderly persons. In the course of this journey she was taken dangerously ill; insomuch that, believing her death to be at hand, she called for the bishop of Ross, telling him to bear witness, that she had persevered in that religion in which she had been nourished and brought up; taking the promise of her nobles, that after her death they would open her last will and testament, and pay the respect to it that consisted with the laws; recommending to them the rights of her infant-son, and the charge of educating him in such a manner as might enable him to rule the kingdom of his ancestors with honour; and intreating them to abstain from all cruelty and persecution of her Roman Catholic subjects. Notwithstanding her apprehensions, however, and the extreme violence of her distemper, the queen at last recovered perfect health. As soon as she was able to travel, she visited Kelso, Werk castle, Hume, Langton, and Wedderburn. The licentious borderers, on the first news of her recovery, laid down their arms. Being desirous to take a view of Berwick, the queen advanced to it with an attendance of 1000 horse. Sir John Forster, the deputy-warden of the English marches, came forth with a numerous retinue, and conducted her to the most proper station for surveying it, and paid her all the honours in his power by a full discharge of the artillery, and other demonstrations of joy. Continuing her journey, she passed to Ayemouth, Dunbar, and Tantallon; proceeding thence to Craigmillar castle, where she proposed to remain till the time of the baptism of the prince, which was soon to be celebrated at Stirling.

651 Mary falls sick, but recovers.

652 Unkindness of the king.

During the severe sickness of the queen, her husband kept himself at a distance: but when she was so far recovered as to be out of danger, he made his appearance; and being received with some coldness and formality, he retired suddenly to Stirling. This cruel neglect was a most sensible mortification to her; and while she suffered from his ingratitude and haughtiness, she was not without suspicions that he was attempting to disturb the tranquillity of her government. She was seized with a settled melancholy; and, in her anguish, often wished for death to put a period to her existence. Her nobles, who were caballing against her, remarked her condition, and took advantage of it. Bothwel, who had already recommended himself by his services, redoubled his efforts to heighten the favour which these services had induced her to conceive for him. At this time, it is probable, he sought to gain the affection of the queen, with a view to marry her himself, providing a divorce from her husband could be obtained, which was now become the subject of consultation by Murray and his associates. After much deliberation, the queen herself was acquainted with this project; and it was told her, that provided she would pardon the earl of Morton and his associates, the means should be found of effectuating the divorce. This was urged as a matter of state by the earls of Murray, Lethington, Argyle, and Huntley; and the queen was invited to consider it as an affair which might be managed without any interference on her part. The queen replied, that she would listen to them, upon condition that the divorce could be obtained according to the laws, and that it should not be any way prejudicial to her son: but if they meant to operate their purpose by a disregard to these points, they must not think any more of it; for rather than consent to their views, she would endure all the tor-

653 A divorce is proposed.

Scotland.

ments, and abide by all the perils, to which her situation exposed her. The eagerness of the proposers of this scheme at last alarmed the queen with fears for her husband's safety. She imagined that they had a plot against his life; and therefore charged them to attempt nothing that would stain her honour or burden her conscience; expressed her fears, that what they might perform under the belief of advancing her prosperity, might provoke her displeasure, and turn to her hurt; and recommended it to them to allow matters to continue in their present condition, and to wait with resignation, till the wisdom of God should provide a remedy for her sufferings.

In the mean time preparations were made for the baptism of the young prince; to assist at which the queen left Craigmillar and went to Stirling. The ceremony was performed on the 17th of December 1566. After the baptismal rites were performed, the name and titles of the prince were three times proclaimed by the heralds to the sound of trumpets. He was called and designed, Charles James, James Charles, prince and Steward of Scotland, duke of Rothsay, earl of Carrick, lord of the Isles, and baron of Renfrew. Amidst the scenes of joy displayed on this occasion, the king showed his folly more than he had done before. As Elizabeth did not mean to acknowledge him in his sovereign capacity, it was neither consistent with the dignity of the queen, nor his own, that he should be present at the baptism. He did not indeed present himself either at the ceremony or the entertainments and masquerades with which it was accompanied. At this juncture, however, though he had often kept at a greater distance before, he took up his residence at Stirling, as if he had meant to offend the queen, and to expose their quarrels to the world. Du Croc, who was inclined to be favourable to him, was so struck with the impropriety of his behaviour, that he affected to have instructions from France to avoid all intercourse with him: and when the king proposed to pay him a visit, he took the liberty to inform him, that there were two passages in his chamber; and that if his majesty should enter by the one, he should be constrained to go out by the other.

654 Absurd behaviour of the king.

While he resided at Stirling, the king chiefly confined himself to his chamber. His strange behaviour to the queen did not give the public any favourable idea of him; and as the earl of Murray and his faction took care to augment the general odium, no court was paid to him by foreign ambassadors. His situation, therefore, was exceedingly uncomfortable; but though he must have been conscious of his imprudence and folly, he did not alter his conduct. In a sullen humour he left Stirling, and proceeded to Glasgow. Here he fell sick, with such symptoms as seemed to indicate poison. He was tormented with violent pains, and his body was all covered over with pustules of a bluish colour; so that his death was daily expected. Mary did not repay his coldness to her by negligence. She set out immediately for Glasgow, and waited on him with all the assiduity of an affectionate wife until he recovered: after which she returned with him to Edinburgh; and as the low situation of the palace of Holyroodhouse was thought to render it unhealthy, the king was lodged in a house which had been appointed for the superior of the church, called St Mary's in the Fields. This house stood upon an high ground, and in a salubrious air; and here she staid with him some days. Here the conspirators thought proper to finish their plot in the most execrable manner. On the 10th of February 1567, about two o'clock in the morning, the house where the king resided was blown up by gun-powder. The explosion alarming the inhabitants, excited a general curiosity, and brought multitudes to the place from whence it proceeded. The king was found dead and naked in an adjoining field, with a servant who used to sleep in the same apartment with him. On neither was there any mark of fire or other external injury.

655 He falls sick.

656 And is murdered.

The queen was in the palace of Holyroodhouse, taking the diversion of a masked ball, when the news of the king's death was brought to her. She showed the utmost grief, and appeared exasperated to the last degree against the perpetrators of a deed at once so shocking and barbarous. The most express and peremptory orders were given to inquire after the perpetrators by every possible method. A proclamation was issued by the privy-council, assuring the people, that the queen and nobility would leave nothing undone to discover the murderers of the king. It offered the sum of 2000 l. and an annuity for life, to any person who should give information of the devisers, counsellors, and perpetrators of the murder; and it held out this reward, and the promise of a full pardon, to the conspirator who should make a free confession of his own guilt and that of the confederates. On the fourth day after this proclamation was published, a placard was affixed to the gate of the city-prison, affirming, that the earl Bothwel, James Balfour, David Chalmers, and black John Spence, were the murderers. No name, however, was subscribed to this intelligence, nor was any demand made for the proffered reward; so that it was difficult to know whether this advertisement had been dictated by a spirit of calumny or the love of justice.

657 Attempts to discover the murderers.

658 Strong presumption of the guilt of the earl of Murray.

In the mean time, the earl of Murray conducted himself with his usual circumspection and artifice. Upon a pretence that his wife was dangerously sick at his castle in Fife, he, the day before the murder, obtained the queen's permission to pay a visit to her. By this means he proposed to prevent all suspicion whatever of his guilt. He was so full, however, of the intended project, that while he was proceeding on his journey, he observed to the person who accompanied him, "This night, before morning, the lord Darnley shall lose his life." When the blow was struck, he returned to Edinburgh to carry on his practices. Among foreign nations, the domestic disputes of the queen and her husband being fully known, it was with the greater ease that reports could be propagated to her disadvantage. To France letters were dispatched, expressing, in fervent terms, her participation in the murder. In England, the ministers and courtiers of Elizabeth could not flatter that princess more agreeably, than by industriously detracting from the honour and the virtue of the Scottish queen. Within her own dominions a similar spirit of outrage exerted itself, and not without success. As her reconciliation with her husband could not be unknown to her own subjects, it was interpreted to be dissimulation and treachery.

659 He accuses the queen.

Scotland. treachery. The Protestant clergy, who were her most determined enemies, possessed a leading direction among the populace; and they were the friends and the partizans of the earl of Murray. Open declamations from the pulpit were made against Bothwel, and strong insinuations and biting surmises were thrown out against the queen. Papers were dispersed, making her a party with Bothwel in the murder. Every art was employed to provoke the frenzy of the people. Voices, interrupting the silence of the night, proclaimed the infamy of Bothwel; and portraits of the regicides were circulated over the kingdom.

660 The queen determines to find out and punish the murderers.

The queen's determination, however, to scrutinize into the matter was unabated; and to the earl of Lennox, the king's father, she paid an attention which he could only have expected from her upon an emergency of this kind. Having pressed her by letter to the most diligent inquiry after the regicides, she returned an answer so completely to his wishes, that he was fully convinced of the sincerity and rigour with which she intended to proceed against them: and he urged her to assemble the three estates, that their advice might direct the order and manner of their trial. She wrote to him, that an assembly of the estates was already proclaimed; and that it was her earnest and determined will and purpose, that no step should be neglected that could conduce to the advancement and execution of justice. Yielding to his anxieties, he addressed her anew, intreating that the trial might not be delayed; observing, that it was not a matter of parliamentary inquiry; advising, that it would be more proper to proceed to it with the greatest expedition; and urging her to commit to prison all the persons who had been named and described in the papers and placards which had been set up in the public places of the city. The queen informed him, that although she had thought it expedient to call a meeting of the parliament at this juncture, it was not her meaning that the proceedings against the regicides should be delayed till it was actually assembled. As to the placards and papers to which he alluded, they were so numerous and contradictory, that she could not well determine upon which to act: but if he would condescend to mention the names which, in his opinion, were most suspicious, she would initan ly command that those steps should be taken which the laws directed and authorised. He in return named the earl of Bothwel, James Balfour, David Chalmers, black John Spence, Francis Sebastian, John de Burdeaux, and Joseph the brother of David Rizzio; and assured her majesty, that his suspicions of these persons were weighty and strong. In reply to his information, Mary gave him her solemn promise, that the persons he had pointed out should abide and undergo their trial in conformity to the laws, and that they should be punished according to the measure of their guilt: and she invited him to leave immediately his retirement, and to meet her at her court, that he might witness the proceedings against them, and the zeal with which she was animated to perform the part that became her.

661 Lennox accuses several persons.

While the queen carried on this correspondence with the earl of Lennox, she resided partly at the palace of the lord Seton, at the distance of a few miles from her capital, and partly at Holyroodhouse. By the time that she sent her invitation to him she was residing in her capital. She delayed not to confer with her counsellors, and to lay before them the letters of the earl of Lennox. Bothwel was earnest in his protestations of innocence; and he even expressed his wish for a trial, that he might establish his integrity. No facts pointed to his guilt; there had appeared no accuser but the earl of Lennox; and no witnesses had been found who could establish his criminality. Her privy-council seemed to her to be firmly persuaded that he was suffering under the malice of defamation. Murray, Morton, and Lethington, whatever might be their private machinations, were publicly his most strenuous defenders; and they explained the behaviour of the earl of Lennox to be the effect of hatred and jealousy, against a nobleman who had outrun him so far in the career of ambition. But though all the arts of Murray and Bothwel, Morton and Lethington, were exerted to their utmost extent to mislead the queen, they were not able to withhold her from adopting the strain of conduct which was the most proper and the most honourable to her. It was her own ardent desire that the regicides should be punished; she had given her solemn promise to the earl of Lennox, that the persons whom he suspected should be prosecuted; and amidst all the appearances in the favour of Bothwel, and all the influence employed to serve him, it is to be regarded as a striking proof of her honour, vigour, and ability, that she could accomplish this measure. An order, accordingly, of the privy-council was made, which directed, that the earl of Bothwel, and all the persons named by Lennox, should be put to the knowledge of an assize for the murder of the king, and that the laws of the land should be carried into full execution. The day of the trial was appointed. A general invitation was given to all persons whatsoever to prefer their accusations. The earl of Lennox was formally cited to do himself justice, by appearing in the high court of justiciary, and by coming forward to make known the guilt of the culprits.

662 And is invited to prov his accusations.

In the mean time, it was proper to repress that spirit of outrage that had manifested itself against the queen. No discoveries, however, were made, except against James Murray, brother to Sir William Murray of Tullibardin, who, at different times, had published placards injurious to her. He was charged to appear before the privy-council: but refusing to obey its citation, it was made a capital offence for any commander of a vessel to convey him out of the kingdom; and the resolution was taken to punish him with an exemplary severity. Effecting, however, his escape, he avoided the punishment due to his repeated and detestable acts of calumny and treason.

The day for the trial of Bothwel approached. The conspirators, notwithstanding their power, were not without apprehensions. Their preparations, however, for their safety had been anxious; and, among other practices, they neglected not to attempt to throw a panic into the earl of Lennox. They were favoured by his consciousness of his unpopularity and his want of strength, by his timidity and his spirit of jealousy. Suspicions of the queen's guilt were insinuated into him; and the dangers to which he might be exposed by insisting on the trial, were set before him in the strongest

663 He is intimidated.

Scotland. strongest colours. He was sensible of her aversion to him; and his weakness and the sovereign authority were contrasted. His friends concurred with his enemies to intimidate him, from the spirit of flattery, or from a real belief that his situation was critical. By the time he had reached Stirling, in his way to Edinburgh, his fears predominated. He made a full stop.

664 And wishes to defer the trial. He was no longer in haste to proceed against the regicides. He addressed a letter to the queen, in which he said he had fallen into such sickness, that he could not travel; and he affirmed, that he had not time to prepare for the trial and to assemble his friends. He complained, too, that Bothwel and his accomplices had not been committed to custody; he insisted, that this step should be taken; and he requested, that a day at a greater distance might be appointed for the trial. After the lengths to which matters had gone, this conduct was most improper; and it is only to be accounted for from terror or capriciousness. His indisposition was affected; he had been invited by Mary to wait upon her at Edinburgh, at an early period, to concert his measures; and the delay he asked was in strong contradiction to his former intreaties. After the invitation sent to him, he might have relied with safety upon the protection of the queen, without any gathering of his friends; from the time of her private intimation to him, and of the legal citations of her officers, there had passed a period more than sufficient for the purpose of calling them together; and indeed to suppose that there was any necessity for their assistance, was an insult to government, and a matter of high indecency. There was more justice in the complaint, that the earl of Bothwel and his accomplices had not been taken into custody; and yet even in this peculiarity he was himself to blame in a great degree. For he had not observed the precaution of that previous display of evidence, known in the Scottish law under the term of a precognition, which is common in all the grosser offences, and which the weighty circumstances of the present case rendered so necessary as a foundation for the confinement and conviction of the criminals.

665 But his petition is refused. An application for the delay of a trial so important, upon the night immediately preceding the day stated for it, and reciting reasons of no conclusive force, could not with propriety be attended to. The privy-council refused the demand of the earl of Lennox. The court of justiciary was assembled. The earl of Argyle acted in his character of lord high justiciar; and was aided by four assessors, Robert Pitcairn, commendator of Dunfermline, and the lord Lindsay, with Mr James Macgill and Mr Henry Balnaves two lords of the session. The indictment was read, and the earls of Bothwel and Lennox were called upon; the one as the defender, the other as the accuser. Bothwel, who had come to the court with an attendance of his vassals, and a band of mercenary soldiers, did not fail to present himself: but Lennox appeared only by his servant Robert Cunnyngham; who, after apologizing for his absence, from the shortness of the time, and the want of the presence of his friends, desired that a new day should be appointed for the trial; and protested, that if the jury should now enter upon the business, they should incur the guilt of a wilful error, and their verdict be of no force or authority.

This remonstrance and protestation appeared not to the court of sufficient importance to interrupt the trial. They paid a greater respect to the letters of the earl of Lennox to the queen insisting upon an immediate prosecution, and to the order of the privy-council consequent upon them. The jury, who consisted of men of rank and condition, after considering and reasoning upon the indictment for a considerable time, were unanimous in acquitting Bothwel of all share and knowledge of the king's murder. The earl of Caithness, however, the chancellor of the assize, made a declaration in their name and his own, that no wilful error ought to be imputed to them for their verdict; no proof, vouchers, or evidence to confirm or support the criminal charge, having been submitted to them. At the same time he offered a protestation for himself, that there was a mistake in the indictment, the 9th day of February instead of the 10th being expressed in it as the date of the murder. It is not to be doubted, but that this flaw in the indictment was a matter of design, and with a view to the advantage of Bothwel, if the earl of Lennox had made his appearance against him. And it has been remarked as most indecent and suspicious, that soldiers in arms should have accompanied him to the court of justice; that during the trial, the earl of Morton stood by his side to give him countenance and to assist him; and that the four assessors to the chief justiciar were warm and strenuous friends to the earl of Murray.

666 Bothwel acquitted.

Immediately after his trial, Bothwel set up in a conspicuous place a writing, subscribed by him, challenging to single combat, any person of equal rank with himself, who should dare to affirm that he was guilty of the king's murder. To this challenge an answer was published, in which the defiance was accepted, upon the condition that security should be given for a fair and equal conflict: but no name being subscribed to this paper, it was not understood to correspond with the law of arms; and of consequence no step was taken for the fighting of the duel. Two days after, the parliament met, and there the party of Bothwel appeared equally formidable. The verdict in his favour was allowed to be true and just. He was continued in his high offices; and obtained a parliamentary ratification of the place of keeper of Dunbar castle with the estates in connection with it; and other favours were conferred upon Murray, with the rest of the nobles suspected as accomplices in the murder.

667 He aspires at a marriage with the queen.

A very short time after the final acquitment of Bothwel, he began to give a greater loose to his ambition, and conceived hopes of gaining the queen in marriage. It has been already remarked, that he had insidiously endeavoured to gain her affection during the lifetime of her husband; but though he might have succeeded in this, the recent death of the king in such a shocking manner, and the strong suspicions which must necessarily still rest upon him notwithstanding the trials he had undergone, necessarily prevented him from making his addresses openly to her. He therefore endeavoured to gain the nobility over to his side; which having done one by one, by means of great promises, he invited them to an entertainment, where they agreed to ratify a deed pointing him out to the queen as a person worthy of her hand,

668 Is recommended by the nobility as a proper husband for her.

Scotland. hand, and expressing their resolute determination to support him in his pretensions. This extraordinary bond was accordingly executed; but in the mean time the earl of Murray, that he might appear to be disengaged from the present intrigues, had asked permission from the queen to go to France. In his way thither he visited the court of Elizabeth, where he did not fail to confirm all the reports which had arisen to the disadvantage of Mary; and he now circulated the intelligence that she was soon to be married to Bothwel. As this rumour preceded the subscription of the bond by the nobility, it was thus intended to fix the greater reproach on the queen, and to give strength to all the wildest suspicions which had gone abroad to her disadvantage. Her partizans in England were exceedingly alarmed; and even queen Elizabeth herself addressed a letter to her, in which she cautioned her not to afford such a mischievous handle to the malice of her enemies.

669 Schemes of the earl of Murray to hurt the queen.

670 Bothwel carries her off to Dunbar.

Mary, upon the dissolution of the parliament, had gone to Stirling to visit the young prince. Bothwel, armed with the bond of the nobles, assembled 1000 horse, under the pretence of protecting the borders of which he was the warden; and meeting her upon her return to her capital, dismissed her attendants, and carried her to his castle of Dunbar. To prevent interruption and bloodshed, and with a view to stop inquiry for a time, he had ordered his officers to inform Sir James Melvil and the gentlemen of her retinue, that what he did was in obedience to her command. The sense of his guilt, danger of a discovery, hope, desire, and ambition, all concurred to give the firmest determination to his purposes. The queen was now his prisoner; and he must win her or be undone.

An outrage so unexpected, so daring, and from a subject so faithful and submissive, filled Mary with indignation and surprise. She loaded him with reproaches, called to his mind all the favours she had bestowed upon him, and wondered at that vileness of ingratitude which could permit him to be so rude and hostile to her. He intreated her pardon in the most humble terms; and sought to soften and remove her resentment and apprehensions by the timid respectfulness of his behaviour. He told her of the vehemency of his love, and of the malice of his enemies. He imputed his enterprise to these motives; and conjured her to condescend to take him for her husband, and to afford him that assurance of her favour, as it alone was sufficient to protect him. He protested, that his happiest wish was to devote his life to her; and that the only sovereignty he courted was to serve and obey her with the most unremitting zeal and the fondest attachment. Having advanced this suit and offer, he communicated to her the bond of the nobles, and displayed its recommendations and promises. Her amazement was infinite. She perceived that he had gained to him the principal men of her kingdom. She was his prisoner; and no inquiries were made for her. She had no counsellor and no friend, with whom to consult; and there was no prospect of an insurrection in her favour (A).

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In this helpless situation the queen was overcome by his persuasions, and gave him her promise that he should be her husband. The artful Bothwel knew too well that a promise obtained in this manner would in all probability be retracted as soon as the queen was set at liberty; especially as he had been married only six months before to Lady Jane Gordon, sister to the earl of Huntley. He now availed himself of the arts of seduction, of which he was a great master; and having persuaded the queen to yield to his desires, the performing of the ceremonial of marriage became indispensably necessary. Towards the accomplishment of this, a divorce from his lawful wife was first to be procured; and this was soon obtained. The parties were cousins within the prohibited degrees, and had not obtained a dispensation from Rome. Their marriage, therefore, in the opinion of the queen and her Roman-Catholic subjects, was illicit, and a profane mockery of the sacrament of the church. The husband had also been unfaithful; so that two actions of divorce were instituted. The lady commenced a suit against him in the court of the commissaries, charging him as guilty of adultery with one of her maids. The earl himself brought a suit against his wife before the court of the archbishop of St Andrews, upon the plea of consanguinity. By both courts their marriage was decided to be void; and thus two sentences of divorce were pronounced.

671 Is divorced from his wife.

Bothwel now conducted the queen from Dunbar to her capital. But instead of attending her to her palace of Holyrood-house, his jealousy and apprehensions induced him to lodge her in the castle of Edinburgh, where he could hold her in security against any attempt of his enemies. To give satisfaction, however, to her people, and to convince them that she was no longer a prisoner, a public declaration upon her part appeared to be a measure of expediency. She presented herself, therefore, in the court of session; the lords chancellor and president, the judges, and other persons of distinction, being present. After observing that some stop had been put to the administration of justice upon account of her being detained at Dunbar against her will by the lord Bothwel, she declared, that though she had been highly offended with the outrage offered to her, she was yet inclined to forget it. His courteousness, the sense she entertained of his past services to the state, and the hope with which she was impressed of his zeal and activity in the future, compelled her to give him and his accomplices in her imprisonment

(A) Spotiswood, p. 202. copying Buchanan, a very inadequate authority, has said, that her nobles sent her a message, informing her that they would come with an army to her deliverance; and that she refused their offer. Mr Hume and other writers have adopted these mistakes. But nothing could be farther from the intention of the faction of Murray and Morton than to give her any assistance; and their power was now so formidable, as to prevent every interference in her behalf from any other quarter. This offer is also inconsistent altogether with the bond subscribed by the nobility; and Murray and his party never affirmed that any such message had been sent. Indeed, from the nature of the fact, its certainty would have been established beyond a doubt by the enemies of Mary, if it had been real; and, in this view of the matter, she could not have ventured to insert in her public instructions to her ambassador at Paris this expressive passage: "We saw no esperance to be rid of him (Bothwel), never man in Scotland makand an mynt to procure our deliverance." Keith, p. 390.

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prisonment a full and complete pardon. She at the same time desired them to take notice, that she was now at her freedom and liberty; and that she proposed, in consideration of his merits, to take an early opportunity to promote him to new and distinguished honours.

672 Banns of the marriage proclaimed.

It was understood that the queen was immediately to advance him to be her husband. The order was given for the proclamation of the banns; and Mr John Craig, one of the ministers of Edinburgh, was desired to perform this business. But though the order was subscribed by the queen, he refused absolutely his compliance without the authority of the church. The brethren, after long reasonings, granted him permission to discharge this duty. His scruples, notwithstanding, and delicacy, were not yet removed. He protested, that, in obeying their desire, he should be allowed to speak his own sentiments concerning the marriage, and that his publishing the banns should infer no obligation in him to officiate in the solemnity. In his congregation, accordingly, before a crowded audience, and in the presence of several noblemen and privy counsellors, he declared that the marriage of the queen and the earl of Bothwel was unlawful, and that he was prepared to give his reasons for this opinion to the parties themselves. He added, that if leave to do this was denied him, he would either abstain altogether from proclaiming the banns, or take the liberty, after proclaiming them, to inform his people of the causes of his disapprobation of the marriage. He was carried before the lords of the privy-council; and the earl of Bothwel called upon him to explain his behaviour.

673 Fortitude of Mr John Craig.

He answered, that the church had prohibited the marriage of persons separated for adultery; and that the divorce between him and his wife must have been owing to collusion; since the sentence had been given with precipitation, and since his new contract was so sudden; and he objected to him the abduction and ravishment of the queen, and the suspicion of his guilt in the king's murder. This bold language drew no reply from Bothwel that was satisfactory to Mr Craig, or that could intimidate him. He proclaimed in his church the banns of the marriage; but he told the congregation, that he discharged the suggestions of his conscience in pronouncing it to be a detestable and scandalous engagement. He expressed the sorrow he felt for the conduct of the nobility, who seemed to approve it from their flattery or silence; and addressing himself to the faithful, he besought them to pray to the Almighty, that he would turn a resolution intended against law, reason, and religion, into a comfort and benefit to the church and the kingdom. These freedoms were too great to pass unnoticed. Mr Craig was ordered anew to attend the privy-council; and he was reprimanded with severity for exceeding the bounds of his commission. He had the courage to defend himself. His commission, he said, was founded in the word of God, positive law, and natural reason; and upon the foundation of these topics he was about to prove that the marriage must be universally foul and odious, when the earl of Bothwel commanded him to be silent. The privy-council, struck with the vigour of the man, and apprehensive of the public discontents, did not dare to inflict any punishment upon him; and this victory over Bothwel, while it heightened all the suspicions against him, served to encourage the enemies of the queen, and to undermine the respect of her subjects.

674 The marriage celebrated.

Mary, before she rendered her hand to Bothwel, created him duke of Orkney. The ceremony was performed in a private manner after the rules of the Popish church; but, to gratify the people, it was likewise solemnized publicly according to the Protestant rites by Adam Bothwel bishop of Orkney, and an ecclesiastic who had renounced the Episcopal order for the reformation. It was celebrated with little pomp and festivity. Many of the nobles had retired to their seats in the country; and those who attended were thoughtful and sad. Du Croc, the French ambassador, sensible that the match would be displeasing to his court, refused to give his countenance to the solemnity. There were no acclamations of the common people. Mary herself was not inconscious of the imprudence of the choice she had made, and looked back with surprise and sorrow to the train of circumstances which had conducted her to this fatal event. Forsaken by her nobles, and imprisoned at Dunbar, she was in so perilous a situation that no remedy could save her honour but death. Her marriage was the immediate and necessary consequence of that situation (B). It was the point for which her enemies had laboured with a wicked and relentless policy.

Mary was unfortunate in her first marriage, but much more so in her second. Bothwel had neither talents for business nor affection for his wife. Ambitious and jealous to the last degree, he sought only to establish himself in power, while his fears and jealousies made him take the most improper means. The marriage had already thrown the nation into a ferment; and the least improper exercise of power, or indeed an appearance of it, even on the part of the queen, would be sufficient to ruin them both for ever. Perhaps the only thing which at this juncture could have pacified the people, would have been the total abolition of Popery, which they had often required. But this was not thought of. Instead of taking any step to please the people, Bothwel endeavoured to force the earl of Marr to deliver up the young prince to his custody. This was sufficient to make the flame, which had hitherto been smothered, break out with all its violence. It was universally believed that Bothwel, who had been the murderer of the father, designed to take

675 Bothwel attempts to get the young prince into his power.

(B) "The queen (says Melvil) could not but marry him, seeing he had ravished her and lain with her against her will." Memoirs, p. 159. In the following passage, from an historian of great authority, in our history, this topic is touched with no less exactness, but with greater delicacy. "After Mary had remained a fortnight under the power of a daring profligate adventurer, says lord Hailes, few foreign princes would have solicited her hand. Some of her subjects might still have sought that honour; but her compliance would have been humiliating beyond measure. It would have left her at the mercy of a capricious husband; it would have exposed her to the disgrace of being reproached, in some sullen hour, for the adventure at Dunbar. Mary was so situated, at this critical period, that she was reduced to this horrid alternative, either to remain in a friendless and hazardous celibacy, or to yield her hand to Bothwel." Remarks on the History of Scotland, p. 204.

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take away the life of the fon alfo, and the queen was thought to participate in all his crimes. The earl of Murray now took advantage of the queen's unfortunate situation to aggrandize himfelf and effect her ruin. After having vifited the Englifh court, he proceeded to France, where he affiduoufly difeminated all the reports againft the queen which were injurious to her reputation; and where, without being expofed to fufpicion, he was able to maintain a clofe correfpondence with his friends Morton and Lethington, and to infpirit their machinations. His affociates, true to his ambition and their own, had promoted all the fchemes of Bothwel upon the queen with a power and influence which had infured their fuccefs. In confederacy with the earl of Murray himfelf, they had confpired with him to murder the king. Affifted with the weight of the earl of Murray, they had managed his trial, and operated the verdict which acquitted him. By the fame arts, and with the fame views, they had joined with him to procure the bond of the nobles recommending him to the queen as a hufband, afferting his integrity and innocence, recounting his noble qualities, expreffing an unalterable refolution to fupport the marriage againft every oppofer and adverfary, and recording a wifh that a defection from its objects and purpofes fhould be branded with everlafting ignominy, and held out as a moft faithlefs and perjured treachery. When the end, however, was accomplifhed for which they had been fo zealous, and when the marriage of the queen was actually celebrated, they laid afide the pretence of friendfhip, and were in hafte to entitle themfelves to the ignominy which they had invited to fall upon them. The murder of the king, the guilt of Bothwel, his acquittal, his divorce, and his marriage, became the topics of their complaints and declamation. Upon the foundation of this hated marriage, they even ventured privately to infer the privity of the queen to all his iniquity and tranfactions; and this ftep feemed doubtlefs, to the mafs of her own fubjects and to more diftant obfervers, a ftrong confirmation of all the former fufpicions to her fhame which had been circulated with fo much artifice. Their imputations and devices excited againft her, both at home and abroad, the moft indignant and humiliating odium. Amidft the ruins of her fame, they thought to bury for ever her tranquillity and peace; and in the convulfions they had meditated, they already were anticipating the downfal of Bothwel, and fnatching at the crown that tottered on her head.

676 Murray calumniates the queen.

677 A confederacy formed against Bothwel.

But while this cabal were profecuting their private ends, feveral noblemen, not lefs remarkable for their virtue than their rank, were eager to vindicate the national integrity and honour. The earl of Athol, upon the king's murder, had retired from the court, and was waiting for a proper feafon to take revenge upon the regicides. The earl of Marre, uneafy under the charge of the young prince, was folicitous to make himfelf ftrong, that he might guard him from injury. Motives fo patriotic and honourable drew applaufe and partizans. It was fufficient to mention them. By private conference and debate, an affociation was infenfibly formed to punifh the murderers of the king, and to protect the perfon of the prince. Morton and Lethington encouraged and profpered a combination from which they might derive fo much advantage. A convention, accordingly, was appointed at Stirling, for the purpofe of confulting upon the meafures which it was moft expedient to purfue. They agreed to take an early opportunity to appear in the field; and when they feparated, it was to collect their retainers, and to infpirit their paffions.

Of this confederacy, the leading men were the earls of Argyle, Athol, Morton, Marre, and Glencairn; the lords Hume, Semple, and Lindfay; the barons Kirkaldy of Grange, Murray of Tullibardin, and Maitland of Lethington. The earl of Bothwel was fenfible, that if he was to fit upon a throne, he muft wade to it through blood. By his advice, two proclamations were iffued in the name of the queen, under the pretence of fuppreffing infurrections and depredations upon the borders. By the former, fhe called together in arms, upon an early day, the earls, barons, and freeholders of the diftricts of Forfar and Perth, Strathern and Menteith, Clackmannan, Kinrofs, and Fife. By the latter, fhe charged the greater and leffer baronage, with all the inferior proprietors of the fhires of Linlithgow and Edinburgh, and the conftabulary of Haddington and Berwick, to prepare immediately for war, and to keep themfelves in readinefs to march upon her order. Thefe military preparations admonifhed the affociation to be firm and active, and added to the public inquietudes and difcontents. The rumours againft the queen were moft inclement and loud. It was faid, that fhe meant to overturn the conftitution and the laws; that fhe had been carelefs of the health of her fon, and was altogether indifferent about his prefervation; that fhe had feparated herfelf from the councils and affiftance of her nobles; and that fhe wifhed to make her whim or difcretion the only rule of her government. Agitated with the hazardous ftate of her affairs, fhe publifhed a new proclamation, in which fhe employed herfelf to refute thefe accufations; and in which fhe took the opportunity to expreffs, in a very forcible manner, not only her attachment to her people and the laws, but the fond affection that fhe bore to the prince, whom fhe confidered as the chief joy of her life, and without whom all her days would be comfortlefs.

678 The queen prepares for war.

The declarations of the queen were treated with fcorn. The nobles, abounding in vaffals, and having the hearts of the people, were foon in a fituation to take the field. They were advancing to the capital. The royal army was not yet affembled; and the queen and Bothwel fufpected that the caftle of Edinburgh would fhut its gates upon them. The fidelity of Sir James Balfour the deputy-governor had been ftaggered by the practices of the earl of Marre and Sir James Melvil. Mary left her palace of Holyrood-houfe, and was conducted to Borthwick caftle. The affociated lords, informed of her flight, took the road to this fortrefs with 2000 horfe. The lord Hume, by a rapid march, prefented himfelf before it with the difvifion under his command: but being unable to guard all its avenues, the queen and Bothwel effected their efcape to Dunbar; where the ftrength of the fortifications gave them a full fecurity againft a furprife.

679 But is obliged to fly to Dunbar.

Upon this fecond difappointment, the nobles refolved to enter Edinburgh, and to augment their ftrength by new partizans. The earl of Huntley and the lord Boyd were here on the fide of the queen, with the archbifhop of St Andrew's, the bifhop of Rofs, and the

Scotland. the abbot of Kilwinning. They endeavoured to animate the inhabitants to defend their town and the cause of their sovereign. But the tide of popularity was favourable to the confederated lords. The magistrates ordered the gates of the city to be shut; but no farther resistance was intended. The lords, forcing St Mary's port, found an easy admittance, and took possession of the capital. The earl of Huntley and the queen's friends fled to the castle, to Sir James Balfour, who had been the confident of Bothwel, and who agreed to protect them, altho' he was now concluding a treaty with the insurgents.

680 Proclamation by the rebellious nobles.

The associated lords now formed themselves into a council, and circulated a proclamation. By this paper they declared, that the queen being detained in captivity, was neither able to govern her realm, nor to command a proper trial to be taken of the king's murder. In an emergency so pressing, they had not despaired of their country; but were determined to deliver the queen from bondage, to protect the person of the prince, to revenge the murder of the king, and to vindicate the nation from the infamy it had hitherto suffered through the impunity of the regicides. They therefore commanded in general all the subjects of Scotland whatsoever, and the burgesses and inhabitants of Edinburgh in particular, to take a part with them, and to join in the advancement of purposes so beneficial and salutary. The day after they had published this proclamation, they issued another in terms that were stronger and more resolute. They definitively expressed their persuasion of Bothwel's guilt in the rape and seduction of the queen, and in his perpetration of the king's murder, in order to accomplish his marriage. They inculcated it as their firm opinion, that Bothwel was now instigated with a design to murder the young prince, and that he was collecting troops with this view. Addressing themselves, therefore, to all the subjects of the realm, whether they resided in counties or in boroughs, they invited them to come forward to their standard; and desired them to remember, that all persons who should presume to disobey them, should be treated as enemies and traitors.

Bothwel, in the mean time, was not inactive; and the proclamations of the queen had brought many of her vassals to her assistance. Four thousand combatants ranged themselves on her side. This force might augment as she approached to her capital; and Bothwel was impatient to put his fortunes to the issue of a battle. He left the strong castle of Dunbar, where the nobles were not prepared to assail him, and where he might have remained in safety till they dispersed themselves. For their proclamations were not so successful as they had expected; their provisions and stores were scanty; and the zeal of the common people, unsupported by prosperity, would soon have abated. Imprudent precipitation served them in a most effectual manner. When the queen had reached Gladsmoor, she ordered a manifesto to be read to her army, and to be circulated among her subjects. By this paper, she replied to the proclamations of the confederated nobles, and charged them with treachery and rebellion. She treated their reasons of hostility as mere pretences, and as inventions which could not bear to be examined. As to the king's murder, she protested, that she herself was fully determined to revenge it, if she could be so fortunate as to discover its perpetrators. With regard to the bondage from which they were so desirous to relieve her, she observed, that it was a falsehood so notorious, that the simplest of her subjects could confute it; for her marriage had been celebrated in a public manner, and the nobles could hardly have forgotten that they had subscribed a bond recommending Bothwel to be her husband. With regard to the industrious defamations of this nobleman, it was urged, that he had discovered the utmost solicitude to establish his innocence. He had invited a scrutiny into his guilt; the justice of his country had absolved him; the three estates assembled in parliament were satisfied with the proceedings of his judges and jury; and he had offered to maintain his quarrel against any person whatsoever who was equal to him in rank and of an honest reputation. The nobles, she said, to give a fair appearance to their treason, pretended, that Bothwel had schemed the destruction of the prince, and that they were in arms to protect him. The prince, however, was actually in their own custody; the use they made of him was that of a screen to their perfidiousness; and the real purposes with which they were animated, were the overthrow of her greatness, the ruin of her posterity, and the usurpation of the royal authority. She therefore intreated the aid of her faithful subjects; and as the prize of their valorous service, she held out to them the estates and possessions of the rebels.

681 Manifesto by the queen.

The associated nobles, pleased at the approach of the queen, put themselves in motion. In the city of Edinburgh they had gathered an addition to their force; and it happened that the Scottish officer who commanded the companies, which, in this period, the king of Denmark was permitted to enlist in Scotland, had been gained to assist them. He had just completed his levies; and he turned them against the queen. The nobles, after advancing to Musselburgh, refreshed their troops. Intelligence was brought that the queen was upon her march. The two armies were nearly equal in numbers; but the preference in point of valour and discipline, belonged decisively to the soldiers of the nobles. The queen posted herself on the top of Carberry hill. The lords, taking a circuit to humour the ground, seemed to be retreating to Dalkeith; but wheeling about, they approached to give her battle. They were ranged in two divisions. The one was commanded by the earl of Morton and the lord Hume. The other was directed by the earls of Athol, Marr, and Glencairn, with the lords Lindsay, Ruthven, Sempil, and Sanquhar. Bothwel was the leader of the royal forces; and there served under him the lords Seton, Yester, and Borthwick.

682 The two armies approach each other.

683 Du Croc negociates with the rebels.

It was not without apprehensions that Mary survey'd the formidable appearance of her enemies. Du Croc, the French ambassador, hastened to interpose his good offices, and to attempt an accommodation. He assured the nobles of the peaceful inclinations of the queen; and that the generosity of her nature disposed her not only to forgive their present insurrection, but to forget all their former transgressions. The earl of Morton informed him, that they had not armed themselves against the queen, but against the murderer of the late king; and that if she would surrender him up

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Scotland. to them, or command him to leave her, they would consent to return to their duty. The earl of Glencairn desired him to observe, that the extremity to which they had proceeded might have instructed him that they meant not to ask pardon for any offences they had committed, but that they were resolved to take cognizance of injuries which had provoked their displeasure. This aspiring language confounded Du Croc, who had been accustomed to the worshipful submissions that are paid to a despot. He conceived that all negociation was fruitless, and withdrew from the field in the expectation that the sword would immediately give its law and determine every difference.

Mary was full of perturbation and distress. The state into which she had been brought by Bothwel did not fail to engage her serious reflection. It was with infinite regret that she considered the consequences of her situation at Dunbar. Nor had his behaviour since her marriage contributed to allay her inquietudes. The violence of his passions, his suspicions, and his guilt, had induced him to surround her with his creatures, and to treat her with insult and indignity. She had been almost constantly in tears. His demeanor, which was generally rude and indecent, was often savage and brutal. At different times his provocations were so insulting, that she had even attempted to arm her hand against her life, and was desirous to relieve her wretchedness by spilling her blood. Upon his account, she was now encompassed with dangers. Her crown was in hazard. Under unhappy agitations, she rode thro' the ranks of her army, and found her soldiers dispirited. Whatever respect they might entertain for her, they had none for her husband. His own retainers and dependents only were willing to fight for him.

684 Bothwel challenged to single combat.

He endeavoured to awaken the royal army to valour, by throwing down the gauntlet of defiance against any of his adversaries who should dare to encounter him. His challenge was instantly accepted by Kircaldy of Grange, and by Murray of Tullibardin. He objected that they were not peers. The lord Lindsay discovered the greatest impatience to engage him, and his offer was admitted; but the queen interposing her prerogative, prohibited the combat. All the pride and hopes of Bothwel sunk within him. His soldiers in small parties were secretly abandoning their standards. It was equally perilous to the queen to fight or to fly. The expedient the most prudent for her was to capitulate. She desired to confer with Kirkaldy of Grange, who remonstrated to her against the guilt and wickedness of Bothwel, and counselled her to abandon him. She expressed her willingness to dismiss him upon the condition that the lords would acknowledge their allegiance and continue in it. Kirkaldy passed to the nobles, and received their authority to assure her that they would honour, serve, and obey her as their princess and sovereign. He communicated this intelligence to her.

685 He is obliged to fly,

She advised Bothwel to provide for his safety by flight; and Kirkaldy admonished him not to neglect this opportunity of effecting his escape. Overwhelmed with shame, disappointment, terror, remorse, and despair, this miserable victim of ambition and guilt turned his eyes to her for the last time. To Kirkaldy of Grange she stretched out her hand: he kissed it; and taking the bridle of her horse, conducted her towards the nobles. They were approaching her with becoming reverence. She said to them, "I am come, my lords, to express my respect, and to conclude our agreement; I am ready to be instructed by the wisdom of your counsels; and I am confident that you will treat me as your sovereign." The earl of Morton, in the name of the confederacy, ratified their promises, and addressed her in these words: "Madam, you are here among us in your proper place; and we will pay to you as much honour, service, and obedience, as ever in any former period was offered by the nobility to the princes your predecessors."

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686 Mary surrenders herself to the rebels.

687 By whom she is cruelly used.

This gleam of sunshine was soon overcast. She remained not many hours in the camp, till the common soldiers, instigated by her enemies, presumed to insult her with the most unseemly reproaches. They exclaimed indignantly against her as the murderer of her husband. They reviled her as a lewd adulteress, in the most open manner, and in a language the most coarse and the most opprobrious. Her nobility forgot their promises, and seemed to have neither honour nor humanity. She had changed one miserable scene for a distress that was deeper and more hopeless. They surrounded her with guards, and conducted her to her capital. She was carried along its streets, and shown to her people in captivity and sadness. She cried out to them to commiserate and protect her. They withheld their pity, and afforded her no protection. Even new insults were offered to her. The lowest of the populace, whom the declamations of the clergy had driven into rage and madness, vied with the soldiery in the licentious outrage of invective and execration. She besought Maitland to solicit the lords to repress the insupportable atrocity of her treatment. She conjured him to let them know, that she would submit herself implicitly to the determination of the parliament. Her intreaties and her sufferings made no impression upon the nobles. They continued the savage cruelty of their demeanour. She implored, as the last request she would prefer to them, that they would lead her to her palace. This consolation, too, was refused to her. They wished to accustom her subjects to behold her in disgrace, and to teach them to take a triumph in her miseries. In the most mortified and afflicting hour she had ever experienced, oppressed with fatigue, and disfigured with dust and sorrow, they shut her up in the house of the lord provost; leaving her to revolve in her anxious and agitated mind the indignities she had already endured, and to suffer in anticipation the calamities they might yet inflict upon her.

The malice of Morton and his adherents was still far from being gratified. In the morning, when the queen looked from the window of the apartment to which she had been confined, she perceived a white banner displayed in such a manner as to fix her attention. There was delineated upon it the body of the late king stretched at the foot of a tree, and the prince upon his knees before it, with a label from his mouth, containing this prayer, "Judge and revenge my cause, O Lord!" This abominable banner revived all the bitterness of her afflictions. The curiosity of the people drew them to a scene so new and so affecting. She exclaimed against the treachery of her nobles; and she begged the spectators to relieve her from their tyranny. The eventful story of the preceding day had thrown her capital into a ferment. The citizens of a better

688 The common people takes her part.

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condition crowded to behold the degraded majesty of their sovereign. Her state of humiliation, so opposite to the grandeur from which she had fallen, moved them with compassion and sympathy. They heard her tale, and were filled with indignation. Her lamentations, her disorder, her beauty, all stimulated their ardour for her deliverance. It was announced to the nobles, that the tide of popular favour had turned towards the queen. They hastened to appear before her, and to assure her, with smiles and courtesy, that they were immediately to conduct her to her palace, and to reinstate her in her royalty. Imposing upon her credulous nature, and that beautiful humanity which characterized her even in the most melancholy situations of her life, they prevailed with her to inform the people, that she was pacified, and that she wished them to disperse themselves. They separated in obedience to her desire. The nobles now conveyed her to Holyroodhouse. But nothing could be farther from their intentions than her re-establishment in liberty and grandeur. They held a council, in which they deliberated concerning the manner in which they ought to dispose of her. It was resolved, that she should be confined during her life in the fortress of Lochlevin; and they subscribed an order for her commitment.

689 But by the advice of the nobles she dismisses them.

A resolution so sudden, so perfidious, and so tyrannical, filled Mary with the utmost astonishment, and drew from her the most bitter complaints and exclamations. Kircaldy of Grange, perceiving with surprise the lengths to which the nobles had proceeded, felt his honour take the alarm for the part he had acted at their desire. He expostulated with them upon their breach of trust, and censured the extreme rigour of the queen's treatment. They counselled him to rely upon the integrity of their motives; spoke of her passion for Bothwel as most vehement, and insisted on the danger of intrusting her with power. He was not convinced by their speeches; and earnestly recommended lenient and moderate measures. Discreet admonitions, he said, could not fail of impressing her with a full sense of the hazards and inconveniences of an improper passion, and a little time would cure her of it. They assured him, that when it appeared that she detested Bothwel, and had utterly abandoned his interests, they would think of kindness and moderation. But this, they urged, could hardly be expected; for they had recently intercepted a letter from her to this nobleman, in which she expressed, in the most glowing terms, the warmth of her love, and her fixed purpose never to forsake him (B). Kircaldy was desired to peruse this letter; and he pressed them no longer with his remonstrances. The queen, in the mean time, sent a message to this generous soldier, complaining of the cruelty of her nobles, and reminding him that they had violated their engagements. He instantly addressed an answer to it, recounting the reproaches he had made to them; stating his advice; describing the surprise with which he had read her intercepted letter; and conjuring her to renounce and forget a most wicked and flagitious man, and, by this victory over herself, to regain the love and respect of her subjects. The device of a letter from her to Bothwel completed the amazement of the queen. So unprincipled a contempt of every thing that is most sacred, so barbarous a perseverance in perfidiousness and injustice, extinguished every sentiment of hope in her bosom. She conceived that she was doomed to inevitable destruction, and sunk under a pang of unutterable anguish.

690 She is defended by Kircaldy of Grange.

691 But he is silenced by a forgery of the nobles.

692 Mary confined in Lochleven castle.

The Lords Ruthven and Lindsay arrived in this paroxysm of her distress, to inform her, that they were commanded to put in execution the order for her commitment. They charged her women to take from her all her ornaments and her royal attire. A mean dress was put upon her; and in this disguise they conveyed her with precipitation to the prison appointed for her. The lords Seton, Yester, and Borthwick, thought to have rescued her, but failed in the attempt. She was delivered over to William Douglas the governor of the castle of Lochleven, whom they enjoined to detain her in close custody. In this castle, which was situated in the middle of a lake, Mary could not easily contrive to carry on a correspondence with her friends. Douglas the governor was nearly related to the earl of Morton; and had married the mother of the earl of Murray, a woman of an imperious temper, who had been the concubine of James V. but who fancied herself to have been his queen, and that her son was the true heir of the Scottish monarchy. The fidelity of such keepers could not well be shaken; and the earl of Morton and his adherents found a malignant joy in reflecting, that here she would not only experience the common severities and languors of a prison, but be exposed to the bitter mortification of studied insults and neglects.

693 The rebellious lords enter into a bond of association.

Upon the same day on which the nobles subscribed the order for the imprisonment of the queen, they entered into a bond of concurrence or confederacy. By this deed they bound and cemented themselves into a body for the strenuous prosecution of their quarrel; and it detailed the purposes which they were to forward and pursue. They proposed to punish the murderers of the king, to examine into the queen's rape, to dissolve her marriage, to preserve her from the bondage

(A) "Mr Hume is candid enough to give up the authenticity of this letter; and indeed, so far as I have observed, there is not the slightest pretence of a reason for conceiving it to be genuine; (Hist. of England, vol. 5. p. 120.) It was not mentioned by the earl of Morton and his adherents to Throgmorton, when Elizabeth interfered in the affairs of Scotland upon the imprisonment of the queen in the castle of Lochleven: a period of time when these statesmen were desirous to throw out every imputation to her prejudice, and when in particular they were abusing her with vehemence for her attachment to Bothwel; (Keith, p. 419.) Nor was it made use of by Murray before the English commissioners. Mary, in the condition to which the nobles had reduced her, could not well think of a step of this sort, although her attachment to Bothwel had been as strong as they were pleased to pronounce it. For, not to speak of the greatness of her distress, she was guarded by them so strictly, as to make it vain for her to pretend to elude their vigilance. In regard, too, to her love of Bothwel, it is not clear that it was ever real. While the king was alive, there are no traces of their improper intercourse. The affair of Dunbar was a criminal seduction. The arts of a profligate man, the frailty of nature, and the violence of a temporary tenderness, overcame her. There was no sentiment of love upon either side. After her marriage, his rudeness extinguished in her altogether any remain of kindness and respect; and hence the coldness with which she parted with him." *Stuart's History of Scotland*, vol. i. p. 253. note.

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age of Bothwel, to protect the person of the prince, and to restore justice to the realm. The sanction of a most solemn oath confirmed their reliance upon one another; and in advancing their measures, they engaged to expose and employ their lives, kindred, and fortunes.

It is easy to see, notwithstanding all the pretended patriotism of the rebels, that nothing was farther from their intentions than to prosecute Bothwel and restore the queen to her dignity. They had already treated her in the vilest manner, and allowed Bothwel to escape when they might easily have apprehended and brought him to any trial they thought proper. To exalt themselves was their only aim. Eleven days after the capitulation at Carberry hill, they held a convention, in which they very properly assumed the name of *lords of the secret council*, and issued a proclamation for apprehending Bothwel as the murderer of the king; offering a reward of 1000 crowns for any person who should bring him to Edinburgh. A search had been made for the murderers of the king that very night in which the queen was confined in Lochlevin castle. One Sebastian a Frenchman, and captain Blackader, were then apprehended; and soon after James Edmondstone, John Blackader, and Mynart Fraser, were taken up and imprisoned. The people expected full and satisfactory proofs of the guilt of Bothwel, but were disappointed. The affirmation of the nobles, that they were possessed of evidence which could condemn him, appeared to be no better than a pretence or artifice. Sebastian found means to escape; the other persons were put to the torture, and sustained it without making any confession that the nobles could publish. They were condemned, however, and executed, as being concerned in the murder. In their dying moments, they protested their innocence. A sanguine hope was entertained that captain Blackader would reveal the whole secret at the place of execution, and a vast multitude of spectators were present. No information, however, could be derived from what he said with regard to the regicides; but while he solemnly protested that his life was unjustly taken away, he averred it as his belief that the earls of Murray and Morton were the contrivers of the king's murder.

694 Several persons taken up on account of the king's murder.

The lords of the secret council now proceeded to the greatest enormities. They robbed the palace of Holyroodhouse of its furniture and decorations; converted the queen's plate into coin; and possessed themselves of her jewels, which were of great value; and while the faction at large committed these acts of robbery, the earl of Glencairn with solemn hypocrisy demolished the altar in the queen's chapel, and defaced and destroyed all its pictures and ornaments. These excessive outrages, however, lost them the favour of the people, and an association was formed in favour of the queen. The court of France, as soon as the news of Mary's imprisonment arrived, dispatched M. de Villeroy to condole with her upon her misfortunes; but the lords of the secret council would not admit him to see her, upon which he immediately returned to his own country. The earl of Murray, however, was at this time in France; and to the promises of this ambitious and treacherous wretch the king trusted, imaging him to be a steady friend to the unfortunate queen. Elizabeth also pretended friendship, and threatened the associated lords; but as they had every reason to doubt her sincerity, they paid no regard to her threats, and even refused to admit her ambassador to Mary's presence.

895 But they make no confession.

696 Robberies and outrages of the confederated lords.

From all these appearances of friendship Mary neither did nor could derive any real assistance. On the 24th of July 1567, the lord Lindsay, whose imperious behaviour, says Dr Stuart, approached to insanity, was ordered by the lords to wait upon the queen at Lochlevin. He carried with him three deeds or instruments, and was instructed not to be sparing in rudeness and menaces in order to compel her to subscribe them. By the first, she was to resign her crown to her infant-son; by the second, she appointed the earl of Murray regent of Scotland; and by the third, she constituted a council to direct the prince till this nobleman should arrive in Scotland, or in the event of his death or refusal of the office. On the part of the queen all resistance was vain. Sir Robert Melvil assured her, that her best friends were of opinion, that what she did by compulsion, and in a prison, could have no power to bind her; and of this she was also assured by Throgmorton, the English ambassador, in a letter which Sir Robert Melvil brought in the scabbard of his sword. Mary therefore, forlorn and helpless, could not resist the barbarous rudeness with which Lindsay pressed the subscription of the papers, though she would not read them. Five days after, the lords of the secret council met at Stirling, for the coronation of the young prince, and considered themselves as representing the three estates of the kingdom. A protestation was made in the name of the duke of Chattelerault, that this solemnity should neither prejudge his rights of succession nor those of the other princes of the blood. The young prince being presented to them, the lords Lindsay and Ruthven appeared, and in the name of the queen renounced in his favour her right and title to the crown, gave up the papers she had subscribed, and surrendered the sword, sceptre, and royal crown. After the papers were read, the earls of Morton, Athol, Glencairn, Marre, and Menteith, with the master of Graham, the lord Hume, and Bothwel bishop of Orkney, received the queen's resignation in favour of her son in the name of the three estates. After this formality, the earl of Morton, bending his body, and laying his hand upon the Scriptures, took the coronation-oath for the prince, engaging that he should rule according to the laws, and root out all heretics and enemies to the word of God. Adam Bothwel then anointed the prince king of Scotland; a ceremony with which John Knox was displeased, as believing it to be of Jewish invention. This prelate next delivered to him the sword and the sceptre, and finally put the crown upon his head. In the procession to the castle from the church where the inauguration was performed, and where John Knox preached the inauguration sermon, the earl of Athol carried the crown, Morton the sceptre, Glencairn the sword, and the earl of Marre carried the prince in his arms. These solemnities received no countenance from Elizabeth; and Throgmorton, by her express command, was not present at them.

697 Mary compelled to sign a resignation of her crown.

698 Coronation of James VI.

699 Disapproved by Elizabeth.

Soon after this ceremony, the earl of Murray returned from France; and his presence gave such a strength and firmness to his faction, that very little opposition could be given by the partisans of Mary, who

700 Murray returns from France.

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who were unsettled and desponding for want of a leader. A little time after his arrival, this monstrous hypocrite and traitor waited upon his distressed and insulted sovereign at Lochlevin. His design was to get her to desire him to accept of the regency, which he otherwise pretended to decline. The queen, unsuspicious of the deepness of his arts, conscious of the gratitude he owed to her, and trusting to his natural affection, and their tie of a common father, received him with a tender welcome. She was in haste to pour forth her soul to him; and with tears and lamentations related her condition and her sufferings. He heard her with attention; and turned occasionally his discourse to the topics which might lead her to open to him her mind without disguise in those situations in which he was most anxious to observe it. His eye and his penetration were fully employed; and her distress awakened not his tenderness. He seemed to be in suspence; and from the guardedness of his conversation she could gather neither hope nor fear. She begged him to be free with her, as he was her only friend. He yielded to her intreaties as if with pain and reluctance; and taking a comprehensive survey of her conduct, described it with all the severity that could affect her most. He could discover no apology for her misgovernment and disorders; and, with a mortifying plainness, he pressed upon her conscience and her honour. At times she wept bitterly. Some errors she confessed; and against calumnies she warmly vindicated herself. But all she could urge in her behalf made no impression upon him; and he spoke to her of the mercy of God as her chief refuge. She was torn with apprehensions, and nearly distracted with despair. He dropped some words of consolation; and after expressing an attachment to her interests, gave her his promise to employ all his consequence to secure her life. As to her liberty, he told her, that to atchieve it was beyond all his efforts; and that it was not good for her to desire it. Starting from her seat, she took him in her arms, and kissing him as her deliverer from the scaffold, solicited his immediate acceptance of the regency. He declared he had many reasons to refuse the regency. She implored and conjured him not to abandon her in the extremity of her wretchedness. There was no other method, she said, by which she herself could be saved, her son protected, and her realm rightly governed. He gave way to her anxiety and solicitations. She besought him to make the most unbounded use of her name and authority, desired him to keep for her the jewels that yet remained with her, and recommended it to him to get an early possession of all the sorts of her kingdom. He now took his leave of her; and embracing anew this pious traitor, she sent her blessing with him to the prince her son.

701 He pays a visit to the queen at Lochlevin.

702 And induces her to press him to accept of the regency.

In the mean time the wretched earl of Bothwel was struggling with the greatest difficulties. Sir William Murray and Kirkaldy of Grange had put to sea in search of him. He had been obliged to exercise piracy in order to subsist himself and his followers. His pursuers came upon him unexpectedly at the Orkney islands, and took three of his ships; but he himself made his escape. Soon after, having seized a Turkish trader on the coast of Norway, two ships of war belonging to the king of Denmark gave chace to him as a pirate. An engagement ensued, in which Bothwel was taken. His officers and mariners were hanged in Denmark; but Bothwel himself, being known by some Scottish merchants, had his life spared. He was thrown, however, into a dungeon, where he remained ten years; and at last died melancholy and distracted. The regent sent commissioners to the king of Denmark to demand him as a prisoner; but that prince considering him as a traitor and usurper, totally disregarded his request.

703 Miserable fate of Bothwel.

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The dreadful fate of Bothwel did not make any alteration in the situation of the queen. Her enemies, bent on calumniating her, thought of framing letters which they desired to pass on the world as having been written to him by the queen; and in this infamous transaction, it is said, they were assisted by the celebrated George Buchanan. Upon the slender support of these letters they built their hopes of defending their conduct; and being afraid that some time or other they might be called to an account for this conduct, they framed an act, by which they declared their own behaviour to be exceedingly proper and meritorious, at the same time that they blamed the queen as the occasion of all the mischief that had happened; since it was most certain, said they, "by her letters to Bothwel, and their private marriage, that she was art and part and of the actual devise and deed of the murder of her husband; and that she fully deserved the treatment she had already met with, and the resentment which might yet be shown her."

704 Letters forged between Mary and Bothwel.

On the 15th of December 1567, the regent thought proper to call a parliament; in which, as there was no power to resist him, every thing was carried his own way. The queen was condemned unseen and unheard; her enemies obtained a full pardon not only for all they had done, but for all they might do against her. The letters from the queen to Bothwel were held to be true and genuine; his estates were forfeited; and after the dissolution of the assembly, four of his servants, who had been convicted of being accessory to the death of the king, were executed. But though they were practised with to accuse the queen, they absolutely refused to do so. When on the scaffold, they addressed themselves to the people; and after having solemnly declared the innocence of the queen, they protested before God and his angels, that the earl of Bothwel had informed them that the earls of Murray and Morton were the contrivers of the king's murder.

705 Four of his servants executed, but will not accuse the queen.

It was impossible that such transactions as these could advance the popularity of the regent. His unbounded ambition and cruelty to his sovereign, began at last to open the eyes of the nation; and a party was forming itself in favour of the queen. She herself had been often meditating her escape from her prison; and she at last effected it by means of a young gentleman, George Douglas, brother to her keeper, who had fallen in love with her. On the 2d day of May 1568, about seven o'clock in the evening, when her keeper was at supper with his family, George Douglas, possessing himself of the keys of the castle, hastened to her apartment, and conducted her out of prison. Having locked the gates of the castle, they immediately entered a boat which waited for them; and being rowed across the lake, the lord Seton received the queen with a chosen band of horsemen in complete armour.

706 The queen escapes from prison.

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707 The regent raises an army.

708 Mary's army defeated at Langside near Glasgow.

709 She resolves to fly into England.

710 And puts her design in execution.

711 Announces her arrival to Elizabeth.

712 And presses her for an interview.

713 Deliberations of Elizabeth and her statesmen concerning Mary.

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mour. That night he conveyed her to his house of Niddrie in West Lothian; where having rested a few hours, she set out for Hamilton.

The escape of the queen threw her enemies into the greatest consternation. Many forsook the regent openly; and still more made their submissions privately, or concealed themselves. He did not, however, despond; but resolved to defend himself by force of arms. The queen soon found herself at the head of 6000 men, and the regent opposed her with 4000. Mary, however, did not think it proper to risk a battle; knowing the capacity of the regent as a general, and that his officers were all men of approved valour and experience. But in this prudent resolution she was over-ruled by the impetuosity of her troops. A battle was fought on the 13th of May 1568, at Langside near Glasgow; in which Mary's army was defeated, and her last hopes blasted. The unfortunate queen fled towards Kircudbright; where having a present safety, she deliberated on the plan she should afterwards follow. The result of her deliberations, as frequently happens in cases of perplexity, led her to take the worst step possible. Notwithstanding all the perfidy which she had found in Elizabeth, Mary could not think that she would now refuse to afford her a refuge in her dominions; and therefore determined to retire into England. To this she had been solicited by Elizabeth herself during her confinement in Lochlevin castle; and she now resolved to make the fatal experiment. The lord Herries and the archbishop of St Andrew's remonstrated in vain upon the imprudence and perils of this conduct. They fell upon their knees, conjuring her to forego a resolution that must terminate in her ruin. Their arguments, their intreaties, and their tears, were all ineffectual. She determined to seek a refuge in England, and to court in person the protection of a queen who had never ceased to disturb her reign, and whose dominions were the common and the secure retreat of the most insolent and the most rebellious of her subjects.

In obedience to her order, the lord Herries addressed a letter to Mr Lauder, the deputy commander at Carlisle; and after detailing her defeat at Langside, desired to know if she might trust herself upon English ground. This officer wrote instantly an answer, in which he said, that the lord Scroop the warden of the frontiers being absent, he could not of his private authority give a formal assurance in a matter which concerned the state of a queen: but that he would send by post to his court to know the pleasure of his sovereign; and that if in the mean time any necessity should force Mary to Carlisle, he would receive her with joy, and protect her against her enemies. Mary, however, before the messenger could return, had embarked in a fishing boat with sixteen attendants. In a few hours she landed at Wirkington in Cumberland; and from thence she proceeded to Cockermouth, where she continued till Mr Lauder, having assembled the gentlemen of the country, conducted her with the greatest respect to castle of Carlisle.

To Elizabeth she announced her arrival in a dispatch, which described her late misfortunes in general and pathetic terms, and in which she expressed an earnest solicitude to pay her a visit at her court, and the deep sense she entertained of her friendship and generosity. The queen of England, by obliging and polite letters, condoled with her upon her situation, and gave her assurances of all the favour and protection that were due to the justice of her cause. But as they were not accompanied with an invitation to London, Mary took the alarm. She thought it expedient to instruct lord Fleming to repair to France; and she intrusted lord Herries with a most pressing remonstrance to Elizabeth. Her anxiety for an interview in order to vindicate her conduct, her ability to do so in the most satisfactory manner, and her power to explain the ingratitude, the crimes, and the perfidy of her enemies, were urged to this princess. A delay in the state of her affairs was represented as nearly equivalent to absolute destruction. An immediate proof was therefore requested from Elizabeth of the sincerity of her professions. If she was unwilling to admit into her presence a queen, a relation, and a friend, she was reminded, that as Mary's entrance into her dominions had been voluntary, her departure ought to be equally free and unrestrained. She valued the protection of the queen of England above that of every other potentate upon earth; but if it could not be granted, she would solicit the amity, and implore the aid, of powers who would commiserate her afflictions, and be forward to relieve them. Amidst remonstrances, however, which were so just and so natural, Mary failed not to give thanks to Elizabeth for the courtesy with which she had hitherto been treated in the castle of Carlisle. She took the opportunity also to beg of this princess to avert the cruelty of the regent from her adherents, and to engage him not to waste her kingdom with hostility and ravages; and she had the prudence to pay her compliments in an affectionate letter to secretary Cecil, and to court his kind offices in extricating her from her difficulties and troubles.

But the queen of England was not to be moved by remonstrances. The voluntary offer of Mary to plead her cause in the presence of Elizabeth, and to satisfy all her scruples, was rejected. Her disasters were rather a matter of exultation than of pity. Her deliberations, however, and those of her statesmen, were not directed by maxims of equity, of compassion, or of generosity. They considered the flight of Mary into England as an incident that was fortunate and favourable to them; and they were solicitous to adopt those measures which would enable them to draw from it the greatest profit and advantage. If the queen of Scots were allowed to return to her own dominions, it was probable that she would soon be in a condition to destroy the earl of Murray and his faction, who were the friends of England. The house of Hamilton, who were now zealous in the interests of France, would rise into consideration and power. England would be kept in perpetual turmoils upon the frontiers; Ireland would receive molestation from the Scots, and its disturbances grow important and dangerous. Mary would renew with redoubled ardour her designs against the Protestant religion; and a French army would again be introduced into Scotland. Elizabeth and her ministers, rejecting this scheme, examined the case of the queen of Scots, if she should remain at liberty in England. In this situation she would augment the number of her partizans, send to every quarter her emissaries, and inculcate her title to the crown. Foreign am-

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ambassadors would afford her aid, and take a share in her intrigues; and Scotland, where there was so high an object to be gained, would enter with cordiality into her views. This plan being also hazardous, it was deliberated whether the queen of Scots might not be allowed to take a voyage into France. But all the pretensions which had hitherto threatened the crown of Elizabeth would in this case be revived. A strong resentment to her would even urge Mary and Charles IX. to the boldest and most desperate enterprises. The party of the queen of Scots in England, strong from motives of religion and affection, and from discontents and the love of change, would stimulate their anger and ambition. England had now no territories in France. A war with that country and with Scotland would involve the greatest dangers. Upon revolving these measures and topics, Elizabeth and her counsellors were induced to conclude, that it was by far the wisest expedient to keep the queen of Scots in confinement, to invent methods to augment her distress, to give countenance to the regent, and to hold her kingdom in dependence and subjection.

714 They resolve to confine her for life.

In consequence of this cruel and unjust resolution, Mary was acquainted, that she could not be admitted into Elizabeth's presence till she had cleared herself of the crimes imputed to her; she was warned not to think of introducing French troops into Scotland; and it was hinted, that for the more security she ought to be removed further from the frontier. This message at once showed Mary the imprudence of her conduct in trusting herself to Elizabeth. But the error could not now be remedied. She was watched to prevent her escape, and all her remonstrances were vain. The earl of Murray had offered to escape her; and it was at last concluded that Elizabeth could not, consistent with her own honour and the tranquillity of her government, suffer the queen of Scots to come into her presence, to depart out of England, or to be restored to her dignity, till her cause should be tried and decided. An order was given to remove her from Carlisle castle to a place of strength at a greater distance from the borders, to confine her more closely, and to guard against all possibility of an escape.

715 Elizabeth refuses to admit the queen into her presence.

716 Mary is removed from Carlisle, and closely guarded.

In consequence of these extraordinary transactions, a trial took place, perhaps the most remarkable for its injustice and partiality of any recorded in history. Mary, confined and apprehensive, submitted to be tried as they thought proper. The regent, who was to be the accuser, was summoned into England, and commissioners were appointed on both sides. On the 4th of October, the commissioners met at York; and four days after, the deputies of the queen of Scots were called to make known their complaints. They related the most material circumstances of the cruel usage she had received. Their accusations were an alarming introduction to the business in which the regent had embarked; and notwithstanding the encouragement shown to him by Elizabeth, he was assaulted by apprehensions. The artifices of Maitland added to his alarms. Instead of proceeding instantly to defend himself, or to accuse the queen, he sought permission to relate his doubts and scruples to the English commissioners. In his own name, and with the concurrence of his associates, he demanded to know whether they had sufficient authority from Elizabeth to pronounce, in the case of the murder, Guilty or not guilty, according to the evidence that should be laid before them; whether they would actually exercise this power; whether, in the event of her criminality, their sovereign should be delivered to him and his friends, or detained in England in such a way as that no danger should ensue from her activity; and whether, upon her conviction, the queen of England would allow his proceedings and those of his party to be proper, maintain the government of the young king, and support him in the regency in the terms of the act of parliament which had confirmed him in that office. To these requisitions, it was answered, upon the part of the English deputies, that their commission was so ample, that they could enter into and proceed with the controversy; and that they had liberty to declare, that their sovereign would not restore the queen of Scots to her crown, if satisfactory proofs of her crime should be produced; but that they knew not, and were not instructed to say, in what manner she would finally conduct herself as to her person and punishment. With regard to the sovereignty of the prince, and the regency of the earl of Murray, they were points, they observed, which might be canvassed in an after period. These replies did not please the regent and his associates; and they requested the English commissioners to transmit their doubts and scruples to be examined and answered by Elizabeth.

717 Commissioners for her trial meet at York.

718 Infamous behaviour of Murray.

But while the regent discovered in this manner his apprehensions, he yet affirmed that he was able to answer the charges imputed to him and his faction; and this being in a great measure a distinct matter from the controversy of the murder, he was desired to proceed in it. It was contended, that Bothwel, who had the chief concern in the murder of lord Darnley, possessed such credit with the queen, that within three months after that horrible event, he seized her person and led her captive to Dunbar, obtained a divorce from his wife, and married her: that the nobility, being moved with his crimes, did confederate to punish him; to relieve her from the tyranny of a man who had ravished her, and who could not be her husband; and to preserve the life of the prince: that having taken arms for these purposes, the earl marched against them; but that, proposing to decide the quarrel by single combat, his challenge was accepted: that he declined, notwithstanding, to enter the lists, and fled: that the queen, preferring his impunity to her own honour, favoured his escape by going over to the nobility: that they conducted her to Edinburgh, where they informed her of the motives of their proceedings, requested her to take the proper steps against him and the other regicides, and intreated her to dissolve her pretended marriage, to take care of her son, and to consult the tranquillity of her realm: that this treatment being offensive to her, she menaced them with vengeance, and offered to surrender her crown if they would permit her to possess the murderer of her husband: that her inflexible mind, and the necessities of the state, compelled them to keep her at a distance from him, and out of the way of a communication with his adherents: that during her confinement, finding herself fatigued with the troubles of royalty, and unfit for them from vexation of spirit and the weakness of her body and intellect, she freely and of her own will resigned

719 His accusation against Mary.

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signed her crown to her ſon, and conſtituted the earl of Murray to the regency: that the king accordingly had been crowned, and Murray admitted to the regency: that the ſanction of the three eſtates aſſembled in parliament having confirmed theſe appointments, an univerſal obedience of the people had enſued, and a ſteady adminiſtration of juſtice had taken place: that certain perſons, however, envious of the public order and peace, had brought her out of priſon, and had engaged to ſubvert the government; that they had been diſappointed in their wicked attempts; and that it was moſt juſt and equitable, that the king and the regent ſhould be ſupported in power, in oppoſition to a rebellious and turbulent faction.

710 Confuted by the deputies of Mary.

This apology, ſo imperfect, ſo impudent, and ſo irreconcileable with hiſtory, received a complete confutation from the deputies of the queen of Scots. To take arms againſt her becauſe Bothwel had her favour, was, they ſaid, a lame juſtification of the earl of Murray and his friends; ſince it had never been properly manifeſted to her that he was the murderer of her huſband. He had indeed been ſuſpected of this crime; but had been tried by his peers, and acquitted. His acquittal had been ratified in parliament, and had obtained the expreſs approbation of the party who were now ſo loud in accuſing him, and who had conſpired againſt her authority. Theſe rebels had even urged her to accompliſh her marriage with him, had recommended him as the fitteſt perſon to govern the realm, and had ſubſcribed a bond aſſerting his innocence, and binding themſelves to challenge and puniſh all his adverſaries and opponents. They had never, either before or after the marriage, like true ſubjects, advertiſed the queen of his guilt, till, having experience of their ſtrength, they ſecretly took arms, and inveſted her in Borthwick caſtle. The firſt mark of their diſpleaſure was the ſound of a trumpet in hoſtility, and the diſplay of warlike banners. She made her eſcape to Dunbar; and they returning to Edinburgh, levied troops, iſſued proclamations, took the field againſt her, under the pretence of delivering her from his tyranny, and got poſſeſſion of her perſon. She was willing to prevent the effuſion of blood, and was very far from preferring his impunity to her honour. Kirkaldy of Grange, in obedience to inſtructions from them, deſired her to cauſe him to retire, and invited her to paſs to them under the promiſe of being ſerved and obeyed as their ſovereign. She conſented, and Kirkaldy taking Bothwel by the hand, recommended it to him to depart, and aſſured him that no man would purſue him. It was by their own contrivance that he fled; and it was in their power to have taken him; but they ſhowed not the ſmalleſt deſire to make him their priſoner. He remained too for ſome time in the kingdom, and was unmoleſted by them; and it was not till he was upon the ſeas, that they affected to go in ſearch of him. When ſhe ſurrendered herſelf in the ſight of their army, the earl of Morton ratified the ſtipulations of Kirkaldy, made obeiſance to her in their names, and promiſed her all the ſervice and honour which had ever been paid to any of her predeceſſors. They were not ſlaves, however, to their engagements. They carried her to Edinburgh, but did not lodge her in her palace. She was committed to the houſe of a burgeſs, and treated with the vileſt indignities. She indeed broke out into menaces, and threatened them; nor was this a matter either of blame or of wonder. But it was utterly falſe that ſhe had ever made any offer to give away her crown, if ſhe might poſſeſs Bothwel. In the midſt of her ſufferings, ſhe had even required them by ſecretary Maitland to ſpecify their complaints, and beſought them to allow her to appear in parliament, and to join and aſſiſt in ſeeking a remedy to them from the wiſdom of the three eſtates. This overture, however, ſo ſalutary and ſo ſubmiſſive, they abſolutely rejected. They were animated by purpoſes of ambition, and had not in view a relief from grievances. They forced her from her capital in the night, and impriſoned her in Lochleven; and there, they affirm, being exhauſted with the toils of government and the languors of ſickneſs, ſhe, without conſtraint or ſolicitation, reſigned her crown to her ſon, and appointed the earl of Murray to be regent during his minority. This indeed was to aſſume an unlimited power over facts; but the truth could neither be concealed, nor overturned, nor palliated. She was in the vigour of youth, unaſſailed by maladies, and without any infirmity that could induce her to ſurrender the government of her kingdom. Nor was it unknown to them that the earl of Athol and the barons Tullibardin and Lethington, principal men of their council, diſpatched Sir Robert Melvil to her with a ring and preſents, with a recommendation to ſubſcribe whatever papers ſhould be laid before her, as the only means in her power to ſave her life, and with an aſſurance that what ſhe did under captivity could not operate any injury to her. Melvil, too, communicated to her an intimation in writing from Sir Nicholas Throgmorton, which gave her the ſame advice and the ſame aſſurance. To Sir Nicholas Throgmorton ſhe ſent an anſwer, informing him that ſhe would follow his counſel, and enjoining him to declare to his miſtreſs her hapleſs ſtate, and that her reſignation of her crown was conſtrained. Nor did this ambaſſador neglect her commiſſion; and it was a popular perſuaſion that Elizabeth would have marched an army to her relief, if ſhe had not been intimidated by the threat of the rebels, that the blood of the queen of Scots would be the wages of her ſoldiers. It was alſo not to be contradicted, that when the lord Lindſay preſented to his ſovereign the inſtruments of reſignation, he menaced her with a cloſer priſon and a ſpeedy death if ſhe ſhould refuſe to ſubſcribe them. It was under an extreme terror, and with many tears, that ſhe put her name to them. She did not conſider them as her deeds; did not read them; and proteſted, that when ſhe was at liberty, ſhe would diſavow ſubſcriptions which had been extorted from her. Even Douglas, the keeper of Lochlevin, could not endure to be a witneſs of the violence employed againſt her. He departed out of her preſence, that he might not ſee her ſurrender her rights againſt her will; and he ſought and obtained from her a certificate, that he was not acceſſory to this compulſion and outrage. Nor did it conſiſt with the ſlighteſt probability or reaſon, that ſhe would, of her own will and accord, execute a reſignation of her royal eſtate, and retain no proviſion for her future maintenance. Yet by theſe extraordinary deeds, the condition to which ſhe was reduced, was moſt miſerable and wretched. For no portion whatever of her revenue

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venue was reserved to her, and no security of any kind was granted either for her liberty or her life. As to the coronation of the prince, it could have no validity, as being founded in a pretended and unreal resignation. It was also defective in its form: for there were in Scotland more than an hundred earls, bishops, and lords; and of these the whole, or at least the major part, ought to concur in matters of importance. Now there did not assist in it more than four earls, six lords, one bishop, and two or three abbots. Protestations, too, were openly made, that nothing transacted at that period should be any prejudice to the queen, her estate, and the blood-royal of Scotland. Neither could it be rightly conceived, that if the queen had willingly surrendered her dignities, she would have named the earl of Murray to the regency in preference to the duke of Chatellerault, who had a natural and proper claim to it, and who had deserved well of his country by discharging that high office during her minority. As to the ratification of the investiture of the young prince, and the regency of the earl of Murray by the estates, it was observable, that this was done in an illegal parliament. It was an invalid confirmation of deeds, which in themselves had no inherent power or efficacy. The principal nobility, too, objected in this parliament to this ratification. Protestations were made before the lords of the articles, as well as before the three estates, to interrupt and defeat transactions which were in a wild hostility to the constitution and the laws. Neither was it true that the government of the king and the regent was universally obeyed, and administered with equity and approbation. For a great division of the nobility never acknowledged any authority but that of the queen, and never held any courts but in her name; and it was notorious, that the administration of the usurpers had been marked and distinguished by enormous cruelties and oppressions. Many honourable families and loyal subjects had been persecuted to ruin, and plundered of their wealth, to gratify the retainers and soldiers who upheld this insolent domination; and murder and bloodshed, theft and rapine, were prevalent to a degree unheard of for many ages. Upon all these accounts, it was inferred, that Elizabeth ought to support the queen of Scots, to restore her to her crown, and to overthrow the power of a most unnatural and rebellious faction.

721 The regent unable to reply.

To these facts the regent did not pretend to make any objection; and though required by the English commissioners to produce sounder and better reasons for his treatment of the queen, he did not advance any thing in his own behalf. He even allowed the charges of treason and usurpation to be pressed against him, without presuming to answer. This surprising behaviour, which might readily have been construed into an acknowledgment of his guilt, it seems, proceeded from some conferences which he had with the duke of Norfolk. This nobleman was a zealous partisan for the succession of Mary to the English crown. He was strongly possessed with the opinion, that his mistress, while she was disposed to gratify her animosity and jealousies against the queen of Scots, was secretly resolved, by fixing a stain upon her, to exclude her altogether from the succession, and to involve her son in her disgrace. He was eager to defeat a purpose, which he conceived to be not only unjust in itself, but highly detrimental to his country. It was in his power to act with this view; and he observed with pleasure, that Maitland of Lethington was favourable to Mary. To this statesman, accordingly, he ventured to express his surprise, that the regent could be allured to think of an attempt so blameable as that of criminating his sovereign. If Mary had really given offence by miscarriage and mistakes, it yet was not the business of a good subject industriously to hold her out to scorn. Anxious and repeated conferences were held by them: and at length it was formally agreed, that the regent should not accuse the queen of Scots; and that the duke in return should protect him in the favour of Elizabeth, and secure him in the possession of his regency.

722 His extreme insidiousness and hypocrisy.

But while the regent engaged himself in this intrigue with the duke of Norfolk, he was desirous notwithstanding of gratifying the resentments of Elizabeth, and of advancing his own interests by undermining secretly the fame and reputation of his sovereign. He instructed Maitland, George Buchanan, James Macgill, and John Wood, to go to the duke of Norfolk, the earl of Sussex, and Sir Ralph Sadler, and to communicate to them as private persons, and not in their character of commissioners, the letters to Bothwel, and the other proofs upon which he affirmed the guilt of the queen of Scots. It was his desire that they would examine these papers, give their opinion of them to Elizabeth, and inform him whether she judged them sufficient evidences of Mary's concern in the murder of her husband. If this should be her opinion, he testified his own readiness, and that of his associates, to swear that the papers were genuine, and of the hand-writing of the queen. By this operation, he was solicitous to establish his vouchers as incontestable, and as testimonies of record. The commissioners examined his papers, and heard the comments of Buchanan and his other assistants; but they do not seem to have bestowed the fullest credit upon them. They described them, however, to Elizabeth; pointed out the places of them which were strongest against Mary; and allowed that their force and meaning were very great, if their genuineness could be demonstrated. But of their genuineness they acknowledged that they had no other evidence than stout assertions, and the offer of oaths. Elizabeth, who received their dispatches, did not think it expedient to empower them to adopt a method of proof so palpably suspicious, and in which she could not openly concur, without grossly violating even the appearance of probity. The regent had before attempted to engage her in a direct assurance of the validity of his papers, when he submitted copies of them to her inspection by his secretary Mr Wood. His attempt at this juncture was of a similar kind; and it could not recommend him to the English commissioners.

Nor were these the only transactions which took place during the continuance of the commissioners at York. The inventive and refining genius of Lethington had suggested to him a project, which he communicated in confidence to the bishop of Ross. It received the warm approbation of this ecclesiastic; and they determined to put it to a trial. While they attended the duke of Norfolk to the diversion of hawking, they insinuated into him the notion of his allying himself with

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Elizabeth in the mean time was thrown into confusion by the refusal of the regent to accuse the queen of Scots. To give a positive answer to his doubts and scruples was not consistent with her honour; and yet, without this condescension, she was assured that the Scottish deputies would not exhibit their charge or crimination. Having deceived Mary therefore with fair promises, she was active in gaining over the regent to her views; which having done, he consented at last to prefer his accusation against Mary before the commissioners, who now met at Westminster by the command of Elizabeth. The charge was expressed in general and presumptive terms. It affirmed, that as James Earl of Bothwel was the chief executor of the murder of King Henry, so the queen was his persuader and counsel in the device; that she was a maintainer and fortifier of this unnatural deed, by stopping the inquisition into it and its punishment, and by taking in marriage the principal regicide; that they had begun to exercise a cruel tyranny in the commonwealth, and had formed a resolution of destroying the innocent prince, and of transferring the crown from the true line of its kings to a bloody murderer and a godless tyrant; and that the estates of the realm, finding her unworthy to reign, had ordered her to resign the crown, her son to be crowned, and the earl of Murray to be established in the regency. Before this accusation was preferred, the earl of Lennox presented himself before the English commissioners; made a lamentable declaration of his griefs, and produced to them the letters which had passed between him and Mary concerning the murder, with a writing which contained a direct affirmation of her guilt.

723 Articles of the queen's accusation.

The deputies of Mary were astonished at this accusation, being a violent infringement of a protestation which they had formerly given in, and which had been accepted, namely, that the crown, estate, person, and honour of the queen of Scots, should be guarded against every assault and injury; yet in all these particulars she was touched and affected. It was understood that no judicial proceedings should take place against her; yet she was actually arraigned as a criminal, and her deputies were called upon to defend her. They discovered not, however, any apprehension of the validity of the charge; and while they fully explained the motives which actuated the earl of Murray and his factions in their proceedings, they imputed to persons among themselves the guilt of the king's murder. They affirmed, that the queen's adversaries were the accomplices of Bothwel; that they had subscribed a bond conspiring the death of the king; and that their guilt had been attested in the sight of 10,000 spectators by those of their confederates who had already been executed. They exclaimed against the enormous ingratitude, and the unparalleled audacity of men, who could forget so completely all the obligations which they owed to their sovereign; and who, not satisfied with usurping her power, could even charge her with a murder which they themselves had committed. They represented the strong necessity which had arisen for the fullest vindication of their mistress; and they said, that in so weighty an extremity, they could not possibly suppose that she would be restrained from appearing in her own defence. They had her instructions, if her honour was touched, to make this requisition; and till it was granted, they insisted, that all proceedings in the conference should be at an end. A refusal of this liberty, in the situation to which she was driven, would be an infallible proof that no good was intended to her. It was their wish to deal with sincerity and uprightness; and they were persuaded, that without a proper freedom of defence, their queen would necessarily fall a victim to partiality and injustice. They therefore earnestly pressed the English commissioners, that she might be permitted to present herself before Elizabeth, the nobles of England, and the ambassadors of foreign nations, in order to manifest to the world the injuries she had suffered, and her innocence.

After having made these spirited representations to the English commissioners, the deputies of Mary desired to have access to the queen of England. They were admitted accordingly to an audience; and in a formal address or petition they detailed what had happened, insisted that the liberty of personal defence should be allowed to their mistress, and demanded that the earl of Murray and his associates should be taken into custody, till they should answer to such charges as should be preferred against them. She desired to have some time to turn her thoughts to matters of such high import; and told them, that they might soon expect to hear from her.

725 They are admitted to an audience by Elizabeth.

The bishop of Ross, and the other deputies of Mary, in the mean time, struck with the perfidious management of the conference, convinced of the jealousies and passions of Elizabeth, sensible that her power over her commissioners was unlimited, and anxious for the deliverance of their mistress, made an overture for an accommodation to the earl of Leicester and Sir William Cecil. They proposed, that the original meaning of the conference should still be adhered to, notwithstanding the accusation which had been presented by the earl of Murray; and that Elizabeth, disregarding it as an effort of faction, should proceed to a good agreement between Mary and her subjects. For this scheme, which is so expressive of their suspicions of Elizabeth and of her commissioners, they had no authority from their mistress. They acknowledged accordingly, that it was made without her instructions, and intimated that they were moved to it by their anxiety for peace and the re-establishment of the affairs of the Scottish nation. They were introduced at Hampton-court to Elizabeth; who listened to their motion,

726 And make proposals of accommodation.

724 Remonstrances of the Scots deputies.

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motion, and was averse from it. They then repeated the desires of the petition they had presented to her; but she did not think it right that the queen of Scots should yet have the liberty to defend herself in person. She confessed, indeed, that it was reasonable that she should be heard in her own cause; but she affirmed, that she was at a loss at what time she should appear, in what place, and to whom she should address herself. While she let fall, however, the hope that Mary might obtain the permission so repeatedly and so earnestly requested, she expressed her resolution that the earl of Murray should first be heard in support of his charge, and that she should attend to the proofs which he affirmed himself in readiness to produce. After this business should be transacted, she told the deputies of Mary that she would again confer with them. It was to no purpose that they objected to a procedure so strange and so improper. An accusation, said they, is given; the person accused is anxious to defend herself; this privilege is denied to her; and yet a demand is to be made for the vouchers of her guilt. What is this but an open violation of justice? It did not become them to dispute her pleasure in her own dominions: but they would not, they informed her, consent to a measure which was so alarming to the interests of their queen; and if it was adopted, she might expect that a protestation of its invalidity would be lodged with her commissioners.

727 Shameful conduct of Elizabeth.

728 Altercation between the commissioners.

The English commissioners resumed the conference, and were about to demand from the earl of Murray the proofs with which he could support his accusation. The bishop of Ross and his associates being admitted to them, expressed themselves in conformity to the conversation they had held with Elizabeth. They declared, that it was unnatural and preposterous in their sovereign to think of receiving proofs of the guilt of the queen of Scots before she was heard in her own defence; and they protested, that in the event of this proceeding, the negociation should be dissolved, and Elizabeth be disarmed of all power to do any prejudice to her honour, person, crown, and estate. The commissioners of the English queen were affected with this protestation, and felt more for the honour of their mistress than for their own. They refused to receive it, because there were engrossed in it the words of the refusal which Elizabeth had given to the petition for Mary. They did not choose to authenticate the terms of this refusal by their subscriptions; and were solicitous to suppress so palpable a memorial of her iniquity. They alleged, that the language of her refusal had not been taken down with accuracy; and they pressed Mary's deputies to present a simpler form of protestation. The bishop of Ross and his colleagues yielded not, however, immediately to their insidious importunity; but, repeating anew their protestation as they had at first planned it, included the express words of Elizabeth; and, when compelled by the power of the commissioners to expunge the language of the English queen, they still insisted upon their protestation. An interruption was thus given to the validity of any future proceedings which might affect the reputation of the queen of Scots. The earls of Murray and Morton, with their friends, were very much disappointed. For they had solaced themselves with the hope of a triumph before there was a victory; and thought of obtaining a decree from Elizabeth, which, while it should pronounce the queen of Scots to be an adulteress and a murderer, would exalt them into the station and character of virtuous men and honourable subjects.

Though the conference ought naturally to have terminated upon this protestation of the deputies of Mary against the injustice of Elizabeth, yet it did not satisfy the latter princess that the accusation only had been delivered to her commissioners: she was seriously disposed to operate a judicial production of its vouchers. The charge would thus have a more regular aspect, and be a sounder foundation upon which to build, not only the infamy of the Scottish queen, but her own justification for the part she had acted. Her commissioners accordingly, after the bishop of Ross and his colleagues had retired, disregarding their protestation, called upon the earl of Murray and his associates to make their appearance. The pretence, however, employed for drawing from him his papers was sufficiently artful, and bears the marks of that systematic duplicity which so shamefully characterizes all the transactions of Elizabeth at this period. Sir Nicholas Bacon the lord keeper addressed himself to the earl of Murray. He said, that, in the opinion of the queen of England, it was a matter surprising and strange, that he should accuse his sovereign of a crime most horrible, odious to God and man, against law and nature; and which, if proved to be true, would render her infamous in all the kingdoms of the world. But though he had so widely forgot his duty, yet had not Elizabeth renounced her love of a good sister, a good neighbour, and a good friend; and it was her will, that he and his company should produce the papers by which they imagined they were able to maintain their accusation. The earl of Murray, in his turn, was not wanting in dissimulation. He expressed himself to be very sorry for the high displeasure he had given to Elizabeth by his charge against Mary, and for the obstinacy of the Scottish queen and her deputies, which made it necessary for him to vindicate himself by discovering her dishonour. Under the load of this double and affected sorrow, he made an actual and formal exhibition of the vouchers by which he pretended to fix and establish her criminality. A particular account and examination of these vouchers, the reader will find in the note (A), extracted from *Dr Stuart's History of Scotland*; a performance masterly in the highest degree, and exhibiting the most consistent and interesting view that has hitherto been given of the affairs of this eventful period.

729 Elizabeth demands vouchers of the crimes laid to Mary's charge.

To enumerate all the shifts to which Elizabeth and the

(A) These vouchers, Dr Stuart observes, correspond not with the arts and parade which led to and attended their production. They consisted of acts of that parliament which had given a sanction to the resignation of the queen, the coronation of her son, and the regency of the earl of Murray. They consisted of the supposed confessions of the criminals who had suffered for the king's murder. Though these persons, however, had accused Bothwel, and were doubtless his accomplices; yet, instead of criminating the queen, they had not only resisted the

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732 Conclusion of Mary's trial.

the adversaries of Mary were put, in order to make the strange evidence that was produced wear some degree of plausibility, would far exceed our bounds. It is sufficient to say, that after having wearied themselves with prevarication and falsehood; after having pressed Mary to abdicate her crown, a requisition with which she never would comply; and after having finally refused to hear her in her own defence, Elizabeth; on the 10th of January 1569, gave leave to the earl of Murray and his accomplices to depart her dominions; telling them, that since they came into England, nothing had been objected to them which could hurt their honour as men, or affect their allegiance as subjects. At the same time she told them, that they had produced no information or evidence by which she was entitled to conceive any bad opinion of the queen of Scots. It was therefore her pleasure to allow the affairs of Scotland to continue precisely in the condition in which they were situated at the beginning of the conference. Three days after this, they formally took their leave of the queen of England. The deputies of Mary remonstrated, protested, and argued, to no purpose; the English privy-council, with the most provoking indifference, told them, that "the earl of Murray had promised to their sovereign, for himself and his company, to return to England whensoever she should call upon him. But, in the mean time, the queen of Scots could not, upon many considerations, be suffered to take her departure out of England. As to her deputies, they would move Elizabeth to allow them the practices of her enemies to charge her with guilt, but had openly protested her innocence in their dying moments. In fine, they consisted of a box with letters, contracts, and sonnets. This box then, with its contents, was the evidence upon which the earl of Murray and his friends had the chief, and indeed the only, reliance; and it is upon this evidence, whatever it is, that the apology of Elizabeth must finally rest for her signal inhumanity to the queen of Scots. No papers were ever exhibited in circumstances so peculiar and so interesting; and as they are ultimately found to be either genuine or false, they will lead to the most instructing conclusions. In themselves, in their connection with illustrious persons, and in the reference in which they stand to public and private transactions and events, they are objects of a most important inquiry. It is therefore fit, and even necessary, to hold out a succinct and connected detail of their meaning and history in the situations in which they appeared before their exhibition to the English commissioners by the earl of Murray and his associates. This display or deduction of them will contribute to unfold the truth, and be a proper and sure foundation upon which to judge, not only of the papers themselves, but of the subsequent conduct and operations of the rival queens.

It is uniformly affirmed upon the part of the earl of Murray and his faction, that the casket with the letters and the sonnets had been left by Bothwel in the castle of Edinburgh; that this nobleman, before he fled from Scotland, sent a messenger to recover them; and that they were found in the possession of this person. The 20th day of June 1567, is fixed as the date of this remarkable discovery. The governor of the castle at this time was Sir James Balfour. George Dalgleish, a servant of Bothwel's, is named as his messenger upon this errand. He was seized, it is said, by the domestics of the earl of Morton; and it was the earl of Morton himself who made the actual production of the casket and its contents.

This story is unsupported by vouchers, contains improbabilities, and cannot be reconciled with history and events. There remains not any authentic or unsuspicious evidence that the queen had dishonoured the bed of lord Darnley; and upon the supposition that she had actually been engaged in a criminal intercourse with Bothwel, it is yet widely improbable that she would have written these letters. But even upon the hypothesis that she was actually guilty with Bothwel, and had addressed these papers to him, the story still labours with difficulties. The earl of Bothwel was exposed to more than suspicions of a concern in the murder of the king. These papers contained manifest proofs of his guilt. It evidently was not his interest to preserve them. His marriage with the queen was celebrated upon May 15. 1567. This event was the signal for her adversaries to revolt from Bothwel to whom they had pretended friendship, and to involve her in the ruin of his overthrow. They revolted accordingly; and he was loudly reproached with the murder of the king. Now, in this situation, admitting that he had hitherto preserved any criminal papers, he must have felt the strongest inducements to destroy them; and Mary herself must have been ardently animated with the same wish. The castle of Edinburgh was at this time entirely at their command; and Sir James Balfour was their deputy, and the creature of Bothwel. If his enemies should possess themselves of these papers, his destruction was inevitable. They were in arms against him. Upon the 6th day of June, they compelled him to retire from Holyroodhouse. From his marriage till the 5th day of June, it was in his power to have destroyed these papers; and if they had really existed, it is not to be imagined that he would have neglected a step so expedient, not only for his own security and reputation, but for those of the queen. Upon the 6th day of June, it is evident that he entertained some suspicions of the fidelity of Sir James Balfour, since he avoided to take refuge in the castle of Edinburgh. Upon Carberry-hill, on the 15th day of this month, he was admonished that he was undone. He went immediately to the castle of Dunbar, where he remained for some days, and formed the scheme of his flight. The queen was that day made a prisoner at Carberry-hill; and the day after, she was shut up in Lochleven. In this season, when Sir James Balfour was his enemy, when all his hopes had perished, and when he had resolved to effectuate his escape, he is made to be anxious about the casket and the papers. He had neglected to take possession of them, when his impulses to destroy them must have been keen and powerful, and when it was completely in his power. He is made to send for them when his difficulties and despair render it improbable that he could think of them, and when it was altogether impossible that he could recover them. His messenger is intercepted with the casket; and the adversaries of the queen, upon the 20th day of June, become possessed of vouchers with which they might operate

Stuart's History of Scotland, p. 375, et seq.

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them to return to Scotland; and they believed that she would not detain them."

Mary was exceedingly disappointed and chagrined by this singular issue of her cause. Her friends during this period had increased, and the cruel and injurious treatment she had met with was so flagrant, that the earl of Murray and his faction were apprehensive of a sudden reverse of fortune. The earls of Argyle and Huntley protested against the injustice of their proceedings, at the same time that they openly accused the earl of Murray and Maitland of Lethington as the associates of Bothwel in the murder of the king. This charge, according to the custom of the times, they offered to defend as true and certain by the law of arms; and they protested, that if their adversaries should delay to answer their challenge, they should be held as confessing themselves guilty of the murder. Elizabeth, however, foreseeing something of this kind, had dismissed Murray and his adherents with precipitation, so that there could now be no formal production of it before the English commissioners. However, it was known and published in the court of Elizabeth. Murray made an evasive reply, and Lethington made none at all.

733 Earl of Murray &c. charged with the king's murder and challenged to single combat.

This, however, afforded no relief to the unhappy queen of Scotland. Her inveterate and treacherous enemy held her fast, and endeavoured by every method in her power to render her life miserable. Mary, on the other hand, never lost either her spirit or her dignity. She attempted to rouse in the minds of her nobles operate her destruction. These inconsistences are strong, and of a force not easily to be controlled; and the story is open to other objections, which are still greater, and altogether unsurmountable.

734 Mary committed to closer confinement.

A few days after George Dalgleish was taken, he was examined judicially in a council where the earls of Morton and Athol are marked as present. It was natural, upon this occasion, to make inquiries about the casket and the papers. No questions, however, were put to him on this subject. He was not confronted with Sir James Balfour the governor of the castle, to whom the casket is said to have been committed in charge, nor with the domestics of the earl of Morton, who had apprehended him. He was kept in prison many months after this examination; and during a period, when the rebels were pressed infinitely to apologize for their violence against the queen, there were opportunities without number of bringing him to a confession. These opportunities were yet avoided; and there exists not the slightest evidence to show that the casket and the papers had been ever in his possession. Is it then to be supposed, that if the casket and the papers had really been discovered with him, the establishment of a fact so important would have been neglected by the adversaries of the queen? No. They would have accomplished its proof in the completest manner; and they had the most powerful inducements to operate this measure. When Dalgleish, too, was executed, he asserted the innocence of the queen, and actually charged the earls of Murray and Morton as the contrivers of the murder.

The 20th day of June 1567 is fixed as the æra of the discovery of the letters. If this discovery had been real, the triumph of the enemies of the queen would have been infinite. They would not have delayed one moment to proclaim their joy, and to reveal to her indignant subjects the fulness and the infamy of her guilt. They preserved, however, a long and profound silence. It was not till the 4th day of December 1567 that the papers received their first mark of notice or distinction. From the 20th day of June to the 4th day of December many transactions and events of the highest importance had taken place; and the most powerful motives that have influence with men had called upon them to publish their discovery. They yet made no production of the papers, and ventured not to appeal to them. In the proclamation which they issued for apprehending Bothwel, they inveigh against his guilt, and express an anxious desire to punish the regicides: yet though this deed was posterior to the 20th day of June, there is no assertion in it to the dishonour of the queen; and it contains no mention of the box and the letters. An ambassador arrived from France in this interval, to inquire into their rebellion, and the imprisonment of the queen; yet they apologized not for their conduct by communicating to him the contents of the casket. Sir Nicholas Throgmorton was sent to Scotland by Elizabeth with instructions to act with Mary as well as with her adversaries. They denied him the liberty of waiting upon her at Lochleven, where she was detained a close prisoner; and they were earnest to impress him with the idea that her love of Bothwel was incurable. He pressed them on the subject of their behaviour to her. At different times, they attempted formally to vindicate themselves; and they were uniformly vehement on the topic of the love which she bore to that nobleman. There could not possibly, therefore, have been a happier period for a display of the box and the letters. They yet abstained from producing them to him. They were solicitous to divide the faction of the nobles for the queen; and there could not have been a measure so effectual for this end as these vouchers; yet they called no convention of her friends to surprise and disunite them with this fatal discovery. They flattered the Protestant clergy, attended the assemblies of the church, and employed arts to inflame them against the queen; but they ventured not to excite the fury of these ghostly fathers by exhibiting to them the box and the letters. They compelled the queen to subscribe a resignation of her crown; and they had the strongest reasons to be solicitous to justify this daring transaction. The box and the letters would have served as a complete vindication of them; yet they neglected to take any notice of these important vouchers; and were contented with resting on the wild and frivolous pretence, that the queen, from sickness and fatigue, was disgusted with the care of her kingdom. In fine, when the earl of Murray went to Lochleven to pay his very remarkable visit to the queen, and proceeded to extremities the most rude, indecent, and cruel, he did not reproach her with the box and the letters. Yet, if these papers had been real, it is incredible to conceive that he would have abstained from pressing them upon her. For it was his purpose to overwhelm her with distress. It was not long after this visit that he accepted the regency, and completed his usurpation of the government. The conclusion to be drawn from this enumeration of concurring particulars, is natural and unavoidable. These memorable papers had not yet any existence.

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nobles that paſſion for liberty which had once ſo much diſtinguiſhed the Scottiſh nation, but which now ſeemed to be exchanged for a ſervile ſubjection to the queen of England. But ſome diſpatches which preſſed theſe topics being intercepted, Mary was removed from Bolton to Tutbury caſtle, where ſhe was intruſted to the earl of Shrewſbury, and committed to cloſer confinement than ſhe had yet experienced; while Elizabeth diſperſed manifeſtos all over the northern counties of England, complaining of reports injurious to her honour, and diſclaiming all hoſtile intentions towards the liberties of Scotland.

735 The regent ſecures himſelf in power.

In the mean time Murray returned to Scotland, where he took every method to eſtabliſh himſelf in his ill-acquired power. Mary had commanded the duke of Chattellerault to return to Scotland, in order to raiſe forces for her behoof; but this nobleman had been long detained in England by the artifices of Elizabeth, ſo that Murray had arrived there before him. The duke, however, began to raiſe forces, and might have proved a troubleſome antagoniſt, had not Murray deceived him by a pretended negociation, and got him into his power; immediately after which he impriſoned him, and forced moſt of the other lords who were on that ſide to ſubmit.

736 Negociations in England.

When the news of this important event reached the queen of Scots, ſhe inſtructed the biſhop of Roſs to repair to Elizabeth, and to make remonſtrances in their behalf. By the agency of this eccleſiaſtic, whom ſhe had conſtituted her ambaſſador, ſhe meant to conduct

When the adverſaries of the queen had atchieved the overthrow of Bothwel, and had thrown her into the priſon of Lochleven, they had occaſion to fear her return to popularity, and her deliverance from confinement. They were not abſolutely certain that Elizabeth would refuſe to take the part of the queen; and they had apprehenſions from the interpoſition of France. They accordingly held conſultations about the method the moſt efficacious for their ſecurity and protection. When the earl of Murray aſſumed the regency, it was abſolutely neceſſary that they ſhould come forward with their vindication; and from their being poſſeſſed of the power of government, they could manage their vindication to the greater advantage. Accordingly, in this critical period, they in reality made their defence. In a privy-council, aſſembled by the earl of Murray upon the 4th day of December 1567, an inquiry was concluded, which had been agitated for ſome days, and of which it was the object to examine into the conduct of the lords, barons, and gentlemen, who had acted againſt the queen. This was in fact an inveſtigation made by themſelves into their own behaviour and actions. The event was as favourable as might be expected. They pronounced, that from the time of the murder of the king, till the period of their deliberations, they had acted as faithful and true ſubjects; and that every extremity to which they had proceeded againſt the queen, had its ſource in her own miſconduct. They affirmed, that ſhe was a party with the earl of Bothwel in the king's murder, and that this murder had been committed with a view to their marriage. To ſupport this concluſion, they appealed to the letters which ſhe had written to him; and they mentioned them as the chief and juſtifying cauſes of their rebellion. It appears not, however, that the letters were read in this council, or examined in it; but it may be concluded at leaſt, that they were now actually in exiſtence. Upon the 4th day, then, of December 1567, the letters firſt received their mark of diſtinction.

In the act of this ſingular privy-council, it is obſervable, that the enemies of the queen impute to the letters their knowledge of her guilt, and point to them as the ſource or ſpring of their rebellion. Now, according to their own account, the letters were not diſcovered till the 20th day of June. Yet there is nothing more certain than that they were in arms, and had diſplayed their hoſtile banners, in the month of May. In conſequence of their order, the queen was even committed to the caſtle of Lochleven upon the 16th day of June. The letters therefore could not poſſibly give riſe to events which were prior to their diſcovery. This is to reverſe altogether the laws of nature. Previouſly to the period in which they acknowledge that they firſt ſaw the letters, they affect to have been governed by them. This act of council, a ſolemn deed of their own, is therefore an expreſs evidence againſt the authenticity of the letters.

But let this act of council be conſidered in the light the moſt favourable to them, and be tried by tranſactions of their own, which were abſolutely poſterior to the 20th day of June. It was upon the 26th day of this month that they proclaimed Bothwel a traitor. In this act of proclamation, they impute to him the murder of the king: but they charge him alſo with treaſon, as the raviſher of the queen; affirm, that her marriage with him was forced, and that ſhe was under bondage; aſſign as their reaſon for taking arms, their deſire to puniſh him as the author of the murder and the rape; and command the ſubjects of Scotland not to aſſiſt him in any reſpect, under the penalty of being accounted partakers with him in theſe horrible crimes. Now, if their act of council is to be believed, and if the letters are genuine, they were at this very time under the ſtrongeſt conviction of her guilt, conſidered her as a deviſer and accomplice of the murder, and believed that her view in the murder was to accompliſh the marriage. They could not therefore with any probability have charged Bothwel as excluſively guilty of the murder, of having committed a rape upon her in order to accompliſh his purpoſes, and of being expoſed to the laws of his country for the joint crimes of murder, treaſon, and raviſhment. This evidence is not ſingle and unſupported. In a laboured manifeſto on the ſubject of their rebellion, which they delivered to Throgmorton upon the 11th day of July, they expreſsly repreſent the queen as free from any concern in the death of her huſband. They directly acknowledge, that the crimes of Bothwel had put arms into their hands; that he had accompliſhed the murder, in order that he might compel the queen to marry him; that in reality the marriage was effected by force and power; and that he kept her in captivity. They expreſs it as their firm perſuaſion, that he had ſchemed to take away her life, as well as that of the prince her ſon. Theſe are poſitive and definitive declarations; and they are in the moſt abſolute contradiction to the ſenſe of their act of council, and to the authenticity of the letters. In a regular and formal deed, which they iſſued up-

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duct her transactions with the queen of England; and from the conclusion of the conferences, she had been meditating a proper plan upon which to accomplish her liberty and restoration. The bishop of Ross, after complaining loudly of the rigorous proceedings of the regent, and intimating the general belief which prevailed that he was supported by the English court, pressed the propriety of a final settlement of the affairs of his mistress. With this view, he was admitted by Elizabeth and her privy-counsellors to frequent conferences; and they even desired him to present to them in writing, the articles which he was commanded to propose as the foundation of a treaty. He failed not to comply with this injunction; and it was the import of his schedule of agreement, that Mary should engage never to molest Elizabeth, and the lawful heirs of her body, in the matter of the succession to the crown of England and Ireland, if a reciprocal security should be given to her upon her own rights upon their demise or failure; that a new treaty of alliance and friendship should be concluded between the two queens, by the advice of the estates of both kingdoms; that this league should be ratified by their oaths and seals, and confirmed by parliamentary acts; and, if any farther assurance should be deemed necessary on the part of Mary, that she would procure the kings of France and Spain to be the guarantees of her punctuality and concord; that in compliance with the pleasure of Elizabeth, she would extend her clemency to all her subjects who had offended her, under the provision

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on the 21st day of July, they described the wickedness of Bothwel, and positively assert, that after he had committed the murder, he treasonably assaulted the person of the queen, took her captive to Dunbar, and, keeping her in bondage, constrained her to marry him. To the same purpose, additional evidence might be brought; but these vouchers are sufficiently powerful and instructive. For if it had been true, that the conspirators had been possessed of the letters upon the 20th day of June, and had been actuated with resentment against the queen as art and part of the murder, with a view to the marriage, they could not possibly, in a posterior day of that month, and in the month of July, have described her as under bondage, as innocent and ravished, as compelled to marry, in danger of her life, in constraint, and in captivity.

This remarkable act of Murray's privy-council is the key to discover the forgery of the letters. It is not to be controverted, that they received in it their first mark of distinction. There is no previous memorial of them in history; and if there had been any, the conspirators would not have failed to have produced it. They had issued many proclamations and public papers; but in no proclamation or public paper preceding the 4th day of December, did they ever announce or appeal to the letters; although it was infinitely their interest to have done so. It is impossible that this could have been their line of conduct if the letters had been genuine. It is only to be accounted for on the hypothesis, that they are a forgery. The letters, considered as genuine papers, were unknown when they ought and could not fail to have excited the greatest noise and ferment. When considered as a forgery, their appearance was in the exact moment of propriety. For the conspirators having completed the usurpation of the government, were in a situation where it was absolutely necessary for them either to acknowledge their own transgressions, or to impeach the queen. Their crimes and rebellion, the necessities of their situation, and her impeachment, are all correspondent and explanatory. They are the parts of a whole, and throw mutually a light to one another.

In this act of council the conspirators discover the greatest anxiety for their pardon and security. Now, if the letters had been genuine, this anxiety would have been most unnatural; for the notoriety of her guilt would have operated most completely their justification and pardon. In this act of council they betray the utmost solicitude to establish the criminality of the queen. Yet if the letters had been real, her criminality would have been established from the moment of their discovery. This anxiety, therefore, for themselves, and this attempt against the honour of the queen, at a juncture so particular, are more than suspicious. They appear to be obviously the suggestions of their guilty fears; and the steps by which they thought to accomplish their purposes are a new evidence against them, and a fresh intimation of their guilt. It was with a view to the approaching convention of the estates that this act of council had been formed and managed. It was a preparation for the parliament, in which the conspirators had secured the fullest sway, and where they proposed to effectuate their pardon and security, and to establish the letters as decisive vouchers against the queen.

Accordingly, upon the 15th day of December 1567, the three estates were assembled. The conspirators invited no candid or regular inquiries or investigation. The friends of the nation and of the queen were overawed. Every thing proceeded in conformity to the act of council. The conspirators, by a parliamentary decree, received a full approbation of all the severities they had exercised against the queen. A pardon by anticipation was even accorded to them for any future cruelty or punishment they might be induced to inflict upon her. The letters were mentioned as the cause of this singular law; and this new appeal to them may be termed the second mark of their distinction. But amidst the plenitude of their power, the conspirators called not the estates to a free and honest examination of them. This, indeed, if the letters had been genuine, would have annihilated for ever all the consequence of the queen. Upon this measure, however, they ventured not. They apprehended a detection of their forgery, and a protestation against it. The letters were neither read, nor examined, nor recorded. The queen was not brought from her confinement to defend herself, and no advocate was permitted to speak for her. By a strong and unwarrantable exertion of authority, the parliament sustained them as vouchers of her guilt, without inspection, scrutiny, or debate. The conspirators, who were themselves the criminals, were here her accusers and her judges.

There was yet no actual exhibition or display of the letters. It was, however, necessary to describe them in the act of council, and in the ordination of the parliament; and these deeds having fortunately descended to

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These heads of alliance were received with a respect and cordiality which were not usually paid to the transactions of Mary in the court of Elizabeth; and the bishop of Ross was elated with expectation. Their justice, however, was not the sole, or even the chief cause of this attention and complaisance. A combination of the English nobles had taken place against Cecil, whose power and credit were objects of indignation and jealousy; and the duke of Norfolk had been active and successful in promoting the scheme of his marriage with the queen of Scots. Taking advantage of the condition of parties, he had practised with the principal nobility to encourage his pretensions to Mary

Scotland. 737 Advances are made in the projected marriage of Mary with the duke of Norfolk.

to posterity, it is most remarkable, that from a comparison of them, it is to be observed, that the letters must have undergone essential alterations under the management of the conspirators. In the act of council, the letters are described expressly as written and subscribed by the queen: but in the act or ordination of the parliament, they are said to be only written with her own hand; and there is no intimation that they were subscribed by her. Under one form, they had been appealed to as vouchers of her guilt in the privy-council; under another form, they were mentioned as vouchers of it in the parliament. Now, if the letters had been genuine, they would have appeared uniformly with the same face. These variations are therefore stages in the progress of the forgery. The keenness of the conspirators engaged them at first to ashibit to them the name of the queen. But a maturer consideration of the gross impropriety of their contents, discovered to them, that her subscription would communicate to them an air of extravagance and improbability. They accordingly rejected this method, and adopted the form of executing the letters without her subscription. With this fashion of them, in fact, they were finally satisfied; and it is under this aspect that they were actually to be produced and to be known,

They were now as complete as the conspirators wished them to be; yet in this state, while they were unsubscribed, they wanted other formalities which are usual in dispatches. They were without any direction; they had no dates; and they had no seal. They must have been sent by the queen to Bothwel as open and loose papers. They yet contained evidence against herself and against him of the most horrid wickedness; and Nicholas Hubert, the person who is said to have carried them, was of the lowest condition, and indiscreet. These are most incredible circumstances on the supposition that the letters are authentic; and even when the letters are considered in the light of a forgery, they seem to intimate, that the conspirators did not intend any more than to appeal to them in their defence, to keep them from observation, and to rest for their authority on the parliamentary sanction to be communicated to them.

The letters, in their composition, bear no resemblance to the other writings of the queen. They have a vulgarity, an indelicacy, and a coarseness of expression and manner, that do not apply to her: and while they are disgusting from their want of elegance, they violate chronology. From a comparison of them with national records of undoubted faith, they appear to have been written upon days when the queen was differently employed, and in places where she was not actually present. It is not in one instance only that they exhibit this wild inconsistency. The examples of it are frequent, and attended with peculiarities that are palpable. The objections, therefore, to their authenticity upon this head seem decisive, and are not to be contradicted, or even palliated, without a violence and scepticism that are altogether destructive of historical evidence.

But while the genuineness of the letters is assailable upon every side, the criminality to be deduced from them against the queen receives no support of any kind from history. It is the amount of the charge which they are brought to support, that she was concerned in the murder of the king in order to accomplish her marriage with Bothwel. Now her marriage with Bothwel was not voluntary; and she could have no concern in the murder with this view. At Dunbar she was detained against her will. Her adversaries were at that time the friends of Bothwel; and instead of taking arms to remove her out of his power, they allowed him full leisure to put in practice all his arts against her. They had even armed him with a bond, inculcating, in the strongest terms, his innocence of the murder; extolling, in the highest degree, his integrity, capacity, valour, and accomplishments; and recommending him to be her husband, in the most nervous and unequivocal language. This bond he produced to her when she was his prisoner; and it sufficiently informed her, that they were the friends of Bothwel, and that she could not expect to be relieved by them. The consequence of being under the dominion of Bothwel was her seduction; and the consequence of her seduction was her marriage. Now if Mary had been previously in criminal habits with this nobleman, and had joined with him in the murder in order to effect the marriage, there would not have been any occasion for all this artifice and criminality. The marriage would have followed naturally of itself; and these violent preparations would have been unnecessary. The friends of Bothwel would not have subscribed a bond, recommending him as a husband to the queen. They would not have inculcated his innocence of the murder, the integrity of his character, and the greatness of his virtues and accomplishments. Bothwel himself would not have lain in ambush

Scotland. Mary; and he secretly communicated to them the promises of support he had received from the earl of Murray. By the advice and influence of Sir Nicholas Throgmorton, he engaged in his behalf the earl of Leicester; and this nobleman imparted the matter to the earls of Pembroke and Arundel. The duke himself was able to conciliate the favour of the earls of Derby, Bedford, Shrewsbury, Southampton, Northampton, Northumberland, Westmoreland, and Sussex. In the mean time, he was eagerly pressing Mary herself with his suit and importunities; and had mutually exchanged the tokens of a constant and sincere love. It was in this forward state of the match, that the bishop of Ross drew up the schedule of articles for the accommodation of the rival queens.

At the desire of Elizabeth, her privy-council conferred with the bishop upon these articles at different times; and they expressed themselves to be highly pleased with their general import and meaning. Little doubt was entertained of their success; and the earl of Leicester, in order to oomplete the business, and to serve the duke of Norfolk, undertook to give them a more special force, and to improve them by the introduction of a stipulation about the marriage of the queen of Scots. According to his scheme of agreement, it was required of Mary, that she should be a party to no attempt against the rights and titles of the queen of England, or her heirs; that she should consent to a perpetual league, offensive and defensive, between the two kingdoms; that she should finally establish

Scotland. 738 The English nobles propose articles to Mary.

bush for her in her way from Stirling to her capital; he would not have carried her to Dunbar under a guard of soldiers; and he would not have been obliged to accomplish the marriage by new crimes, and to have sound the way to her bed by treason and ravishment.

While the innocence, however, of the queen of a concern in the murder, and of any previous amour with Bothwel, is to be inferred from the arts and compulsion employed to produce this abominable marriage; the criminality of her enemies receives thence a confirmation of the strongest kind. They exempt the queen from all suspicion of being an accomplice with Bothwel; and, in fact, history records her sincere reconciliation with the king, her infinite surprise at the murder, and her uniform anxiety to punish the regicides. But they do more than fix upon her enemies the suspicion of a concern in the guilt of Bothwel. Without their concurrence, Bothwel could not have ventured on the murder; and without their aid, he could not have protected himself under the weight of its criminality. They gave him their concurrence, and afforded him their aid. The consequence was inevitable. He came off victorious from his trial. It was in their power, immediately upon the murder, to have completed his destruction. But without the marriage they could not accomplish the overthrow of the queen. They therefore assisted him with the bond recommending him to be her husband, and combined with him to effect the marriage. This brought their affairs to a crisis; and the nuptial solemnity was no sooner concluded, than they openly revolted, not only against the earl of Bothwel, but against the queen. The integrity and innocence which they had ascribed to this nobleman in the bond had no longer any existence. They exclaimed against him as foul with murder and infamy. In the bond they had represented the marriage as the most salutary and the most fortunate event that could happen; and they had pledged themselves by a solemn oath and engagement to uphold it at the expence of their lives, their fortunes, and their honour. But the moment that it was atchieved, they exclaimed against it as unnatural, monstrous, and horrible. The same ambition which had prompted them in their former course, stimulated them in their new direction. All their measures tended to the usurpation of the royalty; and they finally compassed the object of their pursuit. In the state of their exaltation, they were exposed to dangers, and alarmed with fears. There was a necessity for them to vindicate their transactions against the queen. No apology but her guilt could be of any avail to them. They, therefore, formally imputed to her a concern in the murder of the king, with a view to the marriage with Bothwel. The letters were fabricated. Their ambition, the murder of the king, their protection of Bothwel, the bond, the marriage, their rebellion, their subversion of the government, the regency of the earl of Murray, and the letters, are all linked together in an inseparable connection. They establish, beyond a doubt, the innocence of the queen; and they vouch and testify in a manner the most clear and irrefragable, the unlimited perfidiousness and the execrable cruelty of her enemies.

The evidence which points to the forgery of the letters is profuse and instructive. In its separate parts it is powerful and satisfactory. When taken together, and in the union of its parts, it is invincible. But amidst all its cogency and strength, there is a circumstance most peculiarly in its favour, and of which it required no aid or assistance. By this peculiarity it is cased completely in steel, and armed at every point. The letters have come down to to us in the French, the Scottish, and the Latin languages. Now the conspirators alleged that they were written by the queen in the French language. From their examination, however, in these different languages, it appears demonstratively, that they were written originally in the Scotch language; and that the pretended French originals are a translation from the Latin of Buchanan, which is a version from the Scotch.

The letters, so weak on every side, and so incapable of sustaining any scrutiny, give the marks of suspicion and guilt in all the stages of their progress. Even with the parliamentary sanction afforded to them by the three estates, which the earl of Murray assembled upon the 15th day of December 1567, he felt the delicacy and the danger of employing them openly to the purposes for which they were invented. For while he was scheming with Elizabeth his accusation of the queen of Scots, he took the precaution to submit privately the letters to this princess by the agency of Mr Wood his secretary. This suspicious transaction took place early in the month of June 1568; and its object was most flagitious, and presses not only against his integrity, but against that of the English queen. Before he would advance with his charge, he solicited from her an assu-

blish the Protestant religion in Scotland; that she should admit to her favour those of her subjects who had appeared against her; that if she had made any assignment of her kingdom to the duke of Anjou, in the expectation of a marriage to be contracted between them, it should be dissolved; and that instead of looking to a foreign prince, whose alliance would be dangerous, not only to the religion but to the liberty of the two realms, she would agree to marry the duke of Norfolk, the first peer of England. These articles being communicated to the bishop of Ross, he was desired to transmit them to Mary; but, as they touched upon some points concerning which he had no instructions, he declined this office, and recommended the propriety of their employing a special messenger of their own, in a commission of such high importance. They accordingly appointed Mr Candish to go with them to the queen of Scots, and, in a formal dispatch, they assurance, that the judges to be appointed in the trial of Mary would hold the letters to be true and probative.

By the encouragement of Elizabeth, the earl of Murray was prevailed upon to come to the resolution to prefer his accusation. He was soon to depart for England upon this business. A privy-council was called by him at Edinburgh. He took up in it, with formality, the letters from the earl of Morton, and gave a receipt for them to that nobleman. This receipt is remarkable and interesting. It is dated upon the 16th day of September 1568. It contains the first mention that appears in history of the discovery of the letters as in the actual possession of Dalgleish upon the 20th day of June 1567: For Dalgleish being alive upon the 4th day of December 1567, when the earl of Murray atchieved the act of council, which is the æra of the first evidence of the existence of the letters, and upon the 15th day of that month, when the three estates affected to sustain their authority, it was not proper at those periods to have made a formal mention of his name. But this person having been executed in January 1568, there was no longer any hazard of his giving a contradiction to the adversaries of the queen. This, however, is not the only suspicious circumstance which is recorded in the receipt. In the act of privy-council, and in the ordination of parliament in December 1567, when the earl of Murray and his associates were infinitely anxious to establish the criminality of the queen, the only vouchers appealed to of her guilt were the letters; and at that time, doubtless, they had prepared no other papers to which they could allude. But in the earl of Murray's receipt in September 1568, there is mention of other vouchers beside the letters. He acknowledges, that he also received from the earl of Morton contracts or obligations, and sonnets or love-verses. These remarkable papers, though said to have been found upon the 20th day of June 1567, appeared not till September 1568; and this difficulty is yet to be solved by those who conceive them to be genuine. The general arguments which affect the authenticity of the letters apply to them in full force; and circumstances peculiar to themselves evince, at the same time, their fabrication. They are not to be accounted for or explained on the supposition of the genuineness of the letters: but upon the hypothesis of the forgery of the letters, their use, and the æra of their invention, may be pointed to with an obvious clearness. When the earl of Murray had agreed to accuse the queen of Scots, his anxiety about his proofs was redoubled. His apprehensions were excessive and alarming. The private communication of the letters to Elizabeth in June 1568 produced a wish that he could fortify these vouchers. For the letters only were at this time exhibited to the English queen. The notion that the love of Mary to Bothwel was inordinate, required to be supported. It was a fundamental principle with the conspirators; and they had no facts by which it could be fixed and illustrated. Between the months, therefore, of June and September 1568, between the dates of the communication of the letters to Elizabeth, and of the receipt of the box from the earl of Morton, the contracts and the sonnets were invented; and that they might answer their intentions they were made to express and imply, in a strong degree, the affection of Mary to Bothwel. The forgery was now finished; and the papers, while they mutually evince the weakness and impropriety of one another, all concur to establish the certain and uniform criminality of the enemies of the queen.

As to the casket or box in which the papers were deposited, it is said to have contained them from the 20th day of June 1567, when it is urged that they were first discovered. Yet of this box, in connection with the letters and papers, there is no mention of the act of council, or in the ordination of the parliament, where the letters are described; nor at the time when they were privately communicated to queen Elizabeth. The 16th day of September 1568 is the date of the first mention of the box as containing any vouchers against the queen. This box or casket had indeed belonged to Mary. She had received it from her husband Francis II.; and the use to which she put it was to hold her jewels. When the conspirators seized upon her jewels, it was appropriated by them; and they conceived, that it would give a propriety to their forgeries to lodge them in it.

The next date of the distinction of the box and its contents was upon the 10th day of October 1568. In the true spirit of the forgery, and with the most guilty anxieties, the earl of Murray communicated them by his agents to the English commissioners at York in a clandestine manner, and not in their public capacity. His scheme was to avoid the necessity of a judicial or exact examination of them; and to give them the stamp of authenticity, and of finished and definitive evidences against the queen of Scots, by his own oath and the oaths of his associates. His intrigues with Norfolk are still farther illustrative of the nature of his sensibilities and consciousness. The disappointment of Elizabeth, occasioned by his caution, guilt, and timidities, produced the removal of the conferences from York to Westminster. Her resentments against Mary, the satisfaction she afforded to his scruples, her power, and her promises of protection, brought him finally to the points she had in view. His public accusation of the queen of Scots was delivered; and at length it was succeeded by his public exhibition of the box and its contents.

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they extolled the merits of the duke of Norfolk; assured her of the general favour and support of the English nobility, if she should approve of his love: and intimated their belief that Elizabeth would not be averse from a marriage which gave the certain promise of tranquillity and happiness to the two kingdoms. This dispatch was in the hand-writing of Leicester; and it was subscribed by this nobleman, and the earls of Arundel and Pembroke, and the lord Lumley.

739 Mary agrees to the treaty proposed to her.

Mary, in the solitude of her prison, received this application with pleasure. By the lord Boyd she returned a very favourable answer to it; but took the liberty to admonish them of the necessity of their securing the good-will of Elizabeth, lest her dislike of the treaty or the marriage should excite new disasters and misfortunes, and involve the duke of Norfolk in inconvenience and danger. This advice, the suggestion of her delicacy and prudence, did not draw sufficiently their attention. The duke of Norfolk was now impatient to conclude this great transaction, in which he had engaged himself; and admitted into his councils many nobles whom he had hitherto neglected to court, and many gentlemen who were considerable from their distinction and fortunes. The countenance and consent of the kings of France and Spain were thought necessary to the measures in agitation, and were solicited and obtained. In the universality of the applause with which they were honoured, it was supposed, that Elizabeth would be allured into a cordial acknowledgment of their propriety, or be compelled to afford them a reluctant approbation; and so ardent a belief prevailed of their fortunate termination, that the marriage-contract was actually intrusted to the keeping of M. Fenelon the French ambassador.

The activity of the duke of Norfolk with the English nobles did not so much engross his attention as to make him forget the regent. He kept up with him a close correspondence in consequence of the concert into which they had entered, and received the most ample assurances of his fidelity and service. The most sanguine and seducing hopes elated him. The regent, while he stipulated for terms of favour and security to himself and his faction, appeared to be full of the marriage, as a measure from which the greatest advantages would arise to the two kingdoms, to the two queens, and to the true religion. The match, in the mean while, was anxiously concealed from Elizabeth; but she was zealously pressed to conclude an accommodation with Mary, on the foundation of the schedule of agreement presented by the bishop of Ross. After having had many conferences with her privy-council, she seemed inclined to treat definitively for the restoration of the queen of Scots, and actually agreed to open the transaction to the regent. The lord Boyd was sent into Scotland upon this business; and while he carried her letters, he was intrusted with dispatches from Mary, the duke of Norfolk, and Sir Nicholas Throgmorton.

740 The proposals of Elizabeth.

As the regent was returning from his northern expedition, he was saluted at Elgin by the lord Boyd, who immediately laid before him the dispatches and instructions with which he had been charged. The queen of England, in her letters, made three propositions in behalf of Mary, and intimated a desire that one of them should be accepted. The queen of Scots, she said, might be restored, fully and absolutely, to her royal estate; she might be associated in the government with her son, have the title of *queen*, and, till the prince should attain the age of 17 years, the administration might continue in the regent; or she might be permitted to return to Scotland in a private station, and have an honourable appointment to maintain her in a safe and happy obscurity. The dispatches from Mary to the regent desired, that judges might immediately be allowed to inquire into the legality of her marriage with Bothwel; and that, if it was found to have been concluded in opposition to the laws, it should be declared to be void, and the liberty be granted to her of entering anew into a matrimonial engagement.

741 The requests of Mary.

742 Importunities of Norfolk.

The duke of Norfolk expressed to the regent the gratitude he felt for his friendship; promised him the command of the fullest exertions of his consequence and power; intreated him to proceed expeditiously in promoting the business of the marriage, and referred him to the instructions of lord Boyd for a satisfactory answer to any doubts which might give him disgust or uneasiness. By the letters of Throgmorton, the regent was advertised that the marriage of the queen of Scots with the duke of Norfolk was a certain and decided point; and he was counselled to concur heartily and expeditiously in this transaction, that his consent might not seem to have been extorted. Maitland of Lethington was recommended to him by this statesman, as the person whom he should choose to represent him in the English court, as he could negociate best the terms and mode of his security and of that of his party. In fine, Throgmorton intreated him not to be troubled with any precise scruples or objections, for that his overthrow, if he resisted, would be inevitable; and, in the view of his services and cordiality, he assured him, that no man's friendship would be accepted with greater affection, and no man's estimation be higher or more fortunate. The zeal of Throgmorton induced him also, upon this occasion, to address to Maitland a dispatch, in which he was infinitely importunate to hasten his expedition to England, in the character to which he recommended him. He complimented him as the fittest person to open the match to the English queen, on the part of the regent and the Scottish nobility; and he represented the success of the scheme to be infallible, as Elizabeth would never be so unwise as to put her own safety, the peace of her kingdom, and the preservation of her people, in competition with the partial devises that might proceed from the vanity and the passions of any person whatsoever. He enumerated the names of the English nobility who had confederated to promote the marriage. He enlarged upon it as an expedient full of wisdom, and as advantageous in the highest degree to religion and the state. He pointed out the lasting and inseparable connection of England and Scotland, as its happy and undoubted consequence. For, if James VI. should die, the sceptres of the two kingdoms might devolve to an English prince; and if he should attain to manhood, he might marry the daughter of the duke of Norfolk, and unite, in his person, the two crowns.

743 Deliberation of the estates on the restoration, &c. of the queen.

These weighty dispatches employed fully the thoughts of the regent. The calls of justice and humanity were loud in the behalf of Mary; his engagements to Norfolk were precise and definitive; and the com-

Scotland. commiſſion of Elizabeth afforded him the command of the moſt important ſervices. But, on the other hand, the reſtoration of Mary, and her marriage, would put an end for ever to his greatneſs; and, amidſt all the ſtipulations which could be made for his protection, the enormity of his guilt was ſtill haunting him with ſuſpicions and terror. His ambition and his ſelfiſh ſenſibilities were an overmatch for his virtue. He practiſed with his partiſans to throw obſtacles in the way of the treaty and the marriage; and, on the pretence of deliberating concerning the reſtoration of Mary, and on her divorce from Bothwel, a convention of the eſtates was ſummoned by him to aſſemble at Perth. To this aſſembly the letters of Elizabeth were recited; and her propoſitions were conſidered in their order. The full reſtoration of Mary to her dignity was accounted injurious to the authority of the king, and her aſſociation with her ſon in the government was judged improper and dangerous; but it was thought that her diliverance from priſon, and her reduction to a private ſtation, were reaſonable expedients. No definitive decree, however, was pronounced. The letters of Mary were then communicated to this council, and gave riſe to vehement debates. She had written and ſubſcribed them in her character of queen of Scotland. This carriage was termed *inſolent* and *imperious* by the friends of the regent. They alſo held it unſafe to examine her requeſts, till they ſhould be communicated to Elizabeth; and they inſinuated, that ſome inclement and partial device was concealed under the purpoſe of her divorce from the earl of Bothwel. The favourers of Mary endeavoured to apologize for the form of the letters, by throwing the blame upon her ſecretaries; and engaged, that while the commiſſaries, or judges, were proceeding in the buſineſs of the divorce, new diſpatches in the proper method ſhould be applied for and procured. They were heard with evident ſymptoms of diſpleaſure; and exclaimed, "that it was wonderful to them, that thoſe very perſons who lately had been ſo violent for the ſeparation of the queen and Bothwel, ſhould now be ſo averſe from it." The partiſans of the regent replied, "that if the queen was ſo eagerly ſolicitous to procure the divorce, ſhe might apply to the king of Denmark to execute Bothwel as the murderer of her huſband; and that then ſhe might marry the perſon who was moſt agreeable to her." The paſſions of the two factions were inflamed to a moſt indecent extremity, and the convention broke up with ſtrong and unequivocal marks of hoſtility and anger.

744 Elizabeth diſappoints the deſigns of Mary and Norfolk.

Notwithſtanding the caution with which Mary and Norfolk carried on their intrigues, intimations of them had come to Elizabeth. Norfolk himſelf, by the advice of the earl of Pembroke, had ventured to diſcloſe his ſecret to Sir William Cecil, who affected to be friendly to him. The regent, in anſwer to her letters, tranſmitted to her the proceedings of the convention at Perth. The application of Mary for a divorce was a key to the ambitious hopes of the duke of Norfolk. She commanded Sir William Cecil to apply himſelf to diſcover the conſpiracy. This ſtateſman betrayed the confidence with which he had been entruſted; and Elizabeth, while the duke was attending her at Farnham, diſcovering a mixture of pleaſantry and paſſion, admoniſhed him to be careful on what pillow he repoſed his head. The earl of Leiceſter, alarmed by his fears, revealed to her at Titchfield the whole proceedings of the duke of Norfolk and his friends. Her fury was ungovernable; and at different times ſhe loaded Norfolk with the ſevereſt reproaches and contumely, for preſuming to think of a marriage with the queen of Scots without the ſanction of her concurrence. Inſulted with her diſcourſe and her looks, abandoned by Leiceſter, and avoided by other nobles in whom he had confided, he felt his courage to forſake him. He left the court at Southampton without taking his leave, and went to London to the earl of Pembroke. New intimations of her diſpleaſure were announced to him, and he retired to his ſeat at Kinninghall in Norfolk. His friends preſſed him to take the field, and to commit his ſafety to the ſword; but having no inclination to involve his country in the miſeries of war, he rejected their advice; and addreſſing an apology to Elizabeth, proteſted that he never meant to depart from the fidelity which he owed to her; and that it was his fixed reſolution to have applied for her conſent to his marriage with the queen of Scots. In return, ſhe ordered him to repair to her court at Windſor; and, as he appeared to be irreſolute, a meſſenger was diſpatched to take him into cuſtody. He was firſt confined to the houſe of Paul Wentworth, at Burnham, in the neighbourhood of Windſor, and then committed to the tower. The earls of Pembroke and Arundel, the lord Lumley, Sir Nicholas Throgmorton, and the biſhop of Roſs, were alſo apprehended and confined.

745 Mary expoſed to new indignities.

Elizabeth, amidſt the ferment of her inquietudes, forgot not to gratify her revenge by inſulting the queen of Scots. The name of Mary was ſufficient to convulſe her with anger. The earl of Huntington, who affected to have pretenſions to the crown of England that were preferable to thoſe of the Scottiſh princeſs, was joined with the earl of Shrewſbury in the office of guarding her. His inſtructions were rigorous, and he was diſpoſed to exceed them. The earl of Shrewſbury conſidered it as an indignity to have an aſſociate who was a declared enemy to his charge, who had an intereſt in her death, and who was remarkable for a natural ferocity of diſpoſition. Mary exclaimed againſt the indelicacy and rudeneſs of Elizabeth, and proteſted that all her intentions were commendable and innocent. Huntington took a delight in her ſufferings. He ranſacked her coffers with a view of making diſcoveries; but her prudence had induced her to deſtroy all the evidences of her tranſactions with the duke of Norfolk; and the officious aſſiduity of this jailor was only rewarded with two cyphers which he could not comprehend. The domeſtics whom ſhe favoured were ſuſpected and diſmiſſed. Her train of attendants was diminiſhed. An unrelenting watch was kept upon her. No couriers were allowed to carry her diſpatches. No meſſengers were admitted to her preſence; and all the letters from her friends were ordered to be intercepted, and to be conveyed to the queen of England.

746 Norfolk betrayed by the regent.

The proceedings of the convention at Perth were afflicting to Elizabeth, to Mary, and to the duke of Norfolk. In the former they created ſuſpicions of the regent; and they were a certain annunciation to the latter, that he was reſolved to ſupport himſelf in the

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government of Scotland. Uncertain rumours had reached Elizabeth of the interviews he had held with Norfolk in the business of the marriage. Her surprise and indignation were infinite. Mr Wood, who brought from the regent his answer to her letter, was treated with disrespect. Secretary Cecil dispatched intimations to the lord Hunsdon, the governor of Berwick, to carry a penetrating eye to his operations. Elizabeth, by a special envoy, required from him an explanation of his ambiguous carriage. The regent, true to his interests, apologized to her for his connections with the duke of Norfolk, by laying open the design of that nobleman to cut him off, in his way to Scotland, by a full communication of whatever had passed between them in relation to Mary, and by offers of an unlimited submission and obedience.

747 Insurrection in England.

While the duke of Norfolk was carrying on his intrigues with Mary, the scheme of an insurrection for her deliverance was advancing under the direction of the earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland. Motives of religion were the chief foundation of this conspiracy; and the more zealous Catholics over England were concerned in it. Mary, however, by the advice of the duke of Norfolk, who was afraid of her matching with a foreign prince, did not enter into it with cordiality. It advanced notwithstanding; and the agents of the pope were lavish of exhortations and donatives. The duke of Alva, by the order of his master the king of Spain, encouraged the conspirators with the offer of 20,000 men from the Netherlands; and, under the pretence of adjusting commercial disputes, he sent into England Chiapini Vitelli marquis of Cetona, an officer of ability, that he might be at hand, and prepared to take the command of them. The report of an insurrection was universal. Elizabeth kept an army of 15,000 men near her person. The queen of Scots was removed to Coventry, a place of great strength; and if a superior and commanding force should appear before it, her ferocious keeper, it is said, had orders to assassinate her. Repeated commands were sent to the earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, to repair to court. But the imprisonment of the duke of Norfolk and his friends had struck a panic into them. They conceived that their conspiracy was discovered; and putting themselves at the head of their followers, they issued their manifesto. The restoration of Popery, the establishment of the titles of Mary to the English crown, and the reformation of abuses in the commonwealth, were the avowed objects of their enterprise. But they had embarked in a business for which they were altogether unequal. Their efforts were feeble and desultory. The duke of Alva forgot his promises. Wherever the peace was disturbed by insurgents, there were troops to oppose them. The vigilance of Elizabeth disconcerted with ease the operations of men whom no resources or popularity could have conducted to greatness, and who could neither conquer nor die. The earl of Westmoreland, after concealing himself for some time in Scotland, effected an escape into Flanders, where he passed a miserable and useless existence; and the earl of Northumberland being taken by the regent, was imprisonment in the fortalice of Lochleven.

748 Elizabeth liberates Norfolk and his friends.

As the fury of Elizabeth abated, her resentment to the duke of Norfolk lost its power; and she failed not to distinguish between the intrigues of an honourable ambition and the practices of an obstinate superstition. It was the result of the examination of this nobleman, and of the confessions of the other prisoners, that Lethington had schemed the business of the marriage, and that the earl of Murray had encouraged it; that her consent was understood to be necessary to its completion; and that Mary herself had warmly recommended the expedient of consulting her pleasure. Upon receiving proper admonitions, the earls of Pembroke, Arundel, the lord Lumley, Sir Nicholas Throgmorton, and the bishop of Ross, were released from confinement; and, after a more tedious imprisonment, the duke of Norfolk himself was admitted to his liberty. This favour, however, was not extended to him till he had not only submissively acknowledged his presumption in the business of the marriage; but had fully revealed whatever had passed between Mary and him, and solemnly engaged himself never more to think of this alliance, and never more to take any concern whatsoever in her affairs.

749 Maitland of Lethington accused of Darnley's murder.

The regent, in the mean while, was very anxious to recover the good opinion of Elizabeth. Her treatment of Mr Wood, and her discovery of his practices, had excited his apprehensions. He therefore assembled at Stirling a convention of the estates; and taking her letters a second time into consideration, returned her a reply to them by Robert Pitcairn abbot of Dunfermline, in a style suited to her temper and jealousies, and from which she could decisively infer, that no favour of any kind would be shown to the queen of Scots. But this base condescension, though assisted by his treachery to the duke of Norfolk, not being sufficient, in his opinion, to draw completely to him the cordiality of the queen of England, he was preparing to gratify her with another sacrifice. The partiality of Maitland to Mary, and his intrigues with Norfolk and the English malcontents, had rendered him uncommonly obnoxious to Elizabeth and her ministry. The late commotions had been chiefly ascribed to his arts; and it was natural to dread new calamities and tumults from the fruitful spring of his invention. Under the pretence of employing his service in dispatches to England, the regent invited him to Stirling. He was then with the earl of Athol at Perth; and suspecting some improper device, he obeyed the summons with reluctance. When he took his place in the privy-council, Captain Crawford, the minion of the earl of Lennox, who had distinguished himself in the trial of Mary, accused him, in direct terms, of being a party in the murder of the late king. The regent affected astonishment, but permitted him to be taken into custody. He was soon after sent to Edinburgh under a guard, and admonished to prepare for his trial. Upon similar charges the lord Seaton and Sir James Balfour were seized upon and imprisoned.

750 He is protected by Kircaldy of Grange.

Kircaldy of Grange, the governor of the castle of Edinburgh, who was warmly attached to Maitland, after having remonstrated in vain with the regent on the violence of his conduct, employed address and stratagem in the service of his friend. Under the cover of night, he went with a guard of soldiers to the lodging where Maitland was confined; and showing a forged warrant for taking his person into keeping, got possession of him. Kircaldy had now in his castle the

Scotland. the duke of Chatellerault, the lord Herries and Maitland. The regent sent for him to a conference; but he refused to obey his message. He put himself and his fortress under the direction of his prisoners. The regent, condescending to pay him a visit, was more lavish than usual of his promises and kindness. His arts, however, only excited the disdain of this generous soldier. Since he could not lead out Maitland to the block, he instituted a process of treason against him, in order to forfeit his estates. Kircaldy, by the mouth of a trumpeter, desired him to commence similar actions against the earl of Morton and Mr Archibald Douglas, as it was notorious that they were parties to the king's murder. This messenger was likewise charged with delivering a challenge from him to Mr Archibald Douglas, and another from the lord Herries to the earl of Morton. This disappointment, and these indignities, made a deep impression upon the regent; and, in a thoughtful dissatisfied humour, he, about this time, made a short progress towards the English border, courting popularity, and deserving it, by an attention to order and justice.

751 Elizabeth agrees to deliver up Mary to the regent.

Elizabeth, flattered by his submissive advances, and pleased with his ambition, was now disposed to gratify his fullest wishes; and she perceived, that by delivering to him the queen of Scots, she would effectually relieve herself of a prisoner whose vigour and intrigues were a constant interruption to her repose. A treaty for this purpose was entered into and concluded. The regent was to march an army to the English frontiers, and to receive from her his sovereign into her own dominions, the victim of his power, and the sport of his passions. No hostages and no security were stipulated for her entertainment and good usage. His authority over her was to be without any limits. Upon his part, he was to deliver to Elizabeth the young prince, to put her in possession of the principal forts of Scotland, and to assist her with troops in the event of a war with France. This treaty, so fatal to Mary, and so ruinous to the independence of Scotland, escaped not the vigilance of the bishop of Ross. He complained of it in the strongest terms to Elizabeth; and declared it to be equivalent to a sentence of death against his mistress. The ambassadors of France and Spain were also strenuous in their remonstrances to her upon this subject. All resistance, however, was unavailing; and the execution of the treaty seemed inevitable. Yet how vain are the loftiest schemes of human pride! The career of the regent was hastening to its termination; and the hand of an assassin put a period to his dream of royalty. Scotland did not lose its liberties; but Mary continued to be unfortunate.

752 Death of the regent.

James Hamilton of Bothwelhaugh, who had been taken a prisoner at the battle of Langside, obtained his liberty and life; but his estates were forfeited. His wife, the heiress of Woodhouslie, retired upon this emergency to her paternal inheritance, in the hope that it might escape the rapacity of the regent. He had, however, given it away in a gift to one of his favourites, Sir James Ballenden; and the instruments of his power having the inhumanity to strip her of her garments, and to turn her naked out of her house, in a cold and dark night, she became distracted before the morning. Hamilton vowed revenge; and the regent made a mockery of his threats. This contempt inspirited his passions; and the humiliation of the house of Hamilton, to which he was nearly allied, fostered the eagerness of his discontents. The madness of party fermented in him with the atrociousness of rage. His mind reconciled itself to assassination. After watching for some time a proper opportunity to commit his horrible purpose, he found it at Linlithgow. The regent was to pass through this town in his way from Stirling to Edinburgh. Intimations reached him that Hamilton was now to perpetrate his design; and he unaccountably neglected them. The assassin, in a house that belonged to the archbishop of St Andrew's, waited deliberately his approach; and firing his musket from a window, shot him through the body. The wound, when examined, was not judged to be mortal; but the regent finding its pain to increase, prepared himself for death; and in a few hours his soul took its departure. A fleet horse of the abbot of Arbroath's carried the assassin to the palace of Hamilton; and from thence he soon after effected his escape into France.

The death of the earl of Murray made no favourable alteration in the affairs of Mary. Confusion and disorder prevailed throughout the kingdom; and though the friends of the queen were promised assistance from France, nothing effectual was done for them. At last the regency was conferred upon the earl of Lennox; an enemy to his queen, and who treated her friends with the utmost rigour. At the same time Elizabeth continued to amuse with negociations her unhappy rival. She granted liberty to the bishop of Ross to repair to the queen of Scots, who had been removed to Chatsworth, and to confer with her on the subject of the intended accord and treaty. Mary, conforming to the advances of Elizabeth, authorised the lord Levingston to pass to her dominions, and to desire her friends to appoint a deputation of their number to give their assistance in promoting the salutary purpose of establishing the tranquillity of their country: and after meeting with some interruptions upon the English borders from the earl of Suffex, this nobleman executed successfully his commission. The queen's lords gave powers to ten nobles to act in a body, or by two of their number, in the intended negociation; and a safe-conduct from Elizabeth allowed them to enter the English realm, and to remain in it during the space of six months.

753 Lennox chosen to succeed him.

754 Articles of agreement proposed to Mary by Elizabeth.

While the lord Levingston was consulting the interests of Mary with her friends in Scotland, the bishop of Ross was making earnest suit with Elizabeth to proceed in the projected negociation. His solicitations were not ineffectual; and Sir William Cecil and Sir Walter Mildmay received the instructions of their mistress to wait upon the queen of Scots at Chatsworth. The heads of accommodation which they proposed were explicit and particular; and the rigour they discovered towards the Scottish princess seemed to vouch their sincerity. It was proposed, that a perfect amity should take place between the two queens; that all the treaties which had formerly been concluded by the two nations should receive an ample confirmation; that the queen of Scots should ratify the treaty of Edinburgh, and forbear from advancing any title or claim to the crown of England during the life of Elizabeth, or to the prejudice of the heirs of her body;

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body; that in case of foreign invasions, the two realms should mutually assist each other; that all foreign soldiers should be ordered to depart out of Scotland; that in the future, strangers of the profession of arms should be prohibited from repairing to it, and from taking up their residence in any of its castles or houses of strength; that Mary should hold no correspondence, directly or indirectly, with any subject of England, without the permission of the English queen; that the earl of Northumberland, and the English rebels in Scotland, should be delivered up to Elizabeth; that redress should be given to the subjects of England for the spoils committed upon them by the Scottish borderers; that the murderers of the lord Darnley and the earl of Murray should be duly and effectually punished; that before the queen of Scots should be set at liberty, the young prince her son should be brought into England, and that he should continue in the keeping of Elizabeth till the death of his mother, or till her resignation to him of her crown on attaining his majority; that the queen of Scots should not enter into a negociation for her marriage without the knowledge of the queen of England, nor conclude it without her approbation, or that of the greatest part of the Scottish nobility; that none of the subjects of Scotland should be suffered to go to Ireland without the safe-conduct of Elizabeth; and that Mary should deliver to her sister all the testimonies and writings which had been sent from France, renouncing and disavowing the pretended marriage between her and the duke of Anjou. Beside these articles of agreement, it was proposed by another treaty to adjust the differences of the queen of Scots and her subjects; and Sir William Cecil and Sir Walter Mildmay embraced the present opportunity of conferring with her upon this business, under the pretence of facilitating its management in the future stages of its progress.

755 Mary is desirous to negociate.

During their stay at Chatsworth, these statesmen were completely satisfied with the behaviour of the queen of Scots. The candour, sincerity, and moderation, which she displayed, were full assurances to them that upon her part there was no occasion to apprehend any improper policy or art; and the calamities of her condition were a still securer pledge of her compliance. Elizabeth, upon hearing their report, affected to be highly pleased with her sister, and sent a message to the earl of Lennox, instructing him in the conditions which had been submitted to Mary; and desiring him to dispatch commissioners into England to deliberate in the treaty, and to consult his interest and that of his faction. Nor did Mary neglect to transmit to her friends in Scotland the proposed terms of agreement; and the bishop of Ross, who had assisted her in the conferences with Sir William Cecil and Sir Walter Mildmay, conveyed intimations of them to the pope, the king of France, and the duke of Alva; besought their advice, and informed these princes, that unless an effectual relief could be expected from their favour, the necessities of her condition would compel her to subscribe to the hard and humiliating dictates of the queen of England.

756 The insincerity of Elizabeth.

But while Mary and her faction were indulging the hope of a termination to her troubles, Elizabeth was secretly giving comfort to her adversaries, and encouraging them to throw obstacles in the way of the treaty. Sir William Cecil wrote to the regent, expressing his disapprobation of the negociations at Chatsworth; desiring him not to be apprehensive of the boastings of the adherents of the queen of Scots; and advising him to make choice of commissioners, in the name of the king, in whose constancy and fortitude he could rely, and whom no address could allure from his interest, or from the common cause in which he and his friends were embarked. The earl of Sussex also sent him dispatches, in which he admonished him to turn his anxious attention to the approaching negociation, and to insist on secure stipulations for the preservation of the prince, for his own safety, and for a general indemnity to the nobles and their adherents, whose party he had espoused. In every event, he represented it as proper for him to pay the greatest respect to Elizabeth; and, if no treaty should be concluded, he advised him to be prepared for reducing the friends of Mary to obedience, and for defending himself against invasions from abroad. By these artifices, the regent and his faction were inclined to intimate to Elizabeth their warm dissatisfaction with the terms of agreement which she had proposed to Mary; and Pitcairn abbot of Dunfermling, who had been appointed secretary of state in the room of Maitland of Lethington, was deputed to her upon this business. He exclaimed against the treaty as wild and impolitic; and contended, that no stipulations could bind Mary, whose religion taught her to keep no faith with heretics; that her claims to the English crown, and her resentment against the queen of England, as well as her own subjects, would, immediately upon her restoration, involve the two kingdoms in blood; and that no peace or quiet could be expected or enjoyed, but by adhering to the salutary maxim of detaining her in a sure and close captivity. Elizabeth did not discourage these inclement sentiments; and Pitcairn was assured by her, that from her natural love to the king, and her regard to the nobles who upheld his authority, she would faithfully provide for their security; and that if justice should appear decisively upon their side, she would even strenuously maintain their quarrel and their consequence.

757 Mary's commissioners have an audience of Elizabeth.

Mary had been carried to Sheffield, and was recovering from a severish indisposition. To this place the bishop of Galloway and the lord Levingston, who had been selected by her friends to be her acting deputies in England, repaired in order to impart to her the state of affairs in Scotland, and to receive her commands. After repeated conferences on the subject of the approaching treaty, she gave them her commission and instructions, and joining to them the bishop of Ross, sent them to Elizabeth. They claimed an audience of this princess, and were admitted to it at Hampton-Court. Having presented their credentials, they informed her, that they were ready to conclude a treaty of concord and agreement, upon principles the most extensive and liberal; and, representing to her the impoverished and tumultuous state of their country, they begged her to proceed in the business with expedition. The orders, they said, which they had received, and their own inclinations, disposed them to follow her advice and counsel in all points which were honourable and consistent with reason; and as her protection was the only refuge of the adversaries

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versaries of their queen, they took the liberty to observe, that it was completely in her power to put a period to all disturbances and animosity, and to accomplish an accord, which would not only confer upon her the highest reputation, but be of the most signal utility to the two kingdoms. Elizabeth declared, that it would please and flatter her in no common degree to advance in the negociation; and that it was a pain to her that the regent, by his delay in sending commissioners, should discover any aversion from it. This answer was deemed very favourable by the bishop of Ross and his associates; and they obtained her authority to dispatch a messenger to the regent to hasten his operations.

758 The Roman Catholic powers advise Mary to accept of the accommodation.

In the mean time, Mary received dispatches from the pope, the king of France, and the duke of Alva; and they concurred in recommending it to her to accept of the articles of accommodation which were offered by Elizabeth. The Turk was giving employment to the pope and the king of Spain; Charles IX. already enfeebled by the obstinate valour of the Huguenots, was busy in deceiving them with appearances of peace, and in plotting their overthrow; and the duke of Alva felt himself insecure in his government of the Netherlands. But while it was their counsel to Mary to conclude an agreement with the queen of England, they were yet lavish to her of their expressions of a constant amity; and if the treaty should miscarry, they promised to exert in her behalf all the efforts in their power, and to assist her adherents with money, ammunition, and troops.

759 The regent and his faction attempt to justify the deposition of Mary.

The earl of Morton, the abbot of Dunfermling, and Mr James Macgill, had been appointed by the regent and his faction to be their commissioners in the name of the king; and at length their arrival was announced to Elizabeth. Conforming to the spirit of their party, the earl of Morton and his colleagues took an early opportunity to justify to her the deposition of the queen of Scots, and by this means to interrupt the progress of the treaty. In an elaborate memorial, they affected to consider Mary as unworthy to reign, and asserted the constitutional power of the people to curb her ambition, and to throw her down from royalty. They endeavoured to intrench themselves within the authority of laws, civil, canon, and municipal; and they recited opinions to her prejudice by many pious divines. But though the general position, that the people have a title to resist the domination of the soverergn is clear and undubitable; yet their application of it to the queen of Scots was wildly precarious and improper. To speak of her tyranny, and her violation of the rights of her people, was even a wanton mockery of truth and justice; for instead of having assumed an illegal exorbitancy of power, she had suffered in her own person and rights, and had been treated by her subjects with the most cruel and tyrannical insult. Elizabeth, who was unwilling and afraid to enter anew into the conduct of Mary, who was completely conscious of the insolence of her adversaries, and who did not approve of any maxims that pressed against the majesty of princes, received their memorial with surprise and indignation. She perceived not, she told them, any reason that could vindicate the severity which had been shown to the queen of Scots by her enemies; and counselled them to remember, that in the present negociation it was their proper business to consult the security of the king and of their faction.

760 Elizabeth's commissioners hold conferences with those of the queen of Scots.

Upon the part of Elizabeth, the commissioners were the lord keeper Bacon, the earls of Sussex and Leicester, the lord Clynton, the lord chamberlain, Sir William Cecil, who about this time was created lord Burleigh, Sir Francis Knollys, Sir James Croft, Sir Walter Mildmay, and Sir Thomas Smith. The deputies of Mary were invited to meet with the English commissioners in the house of the lord keeper; and after he had stated the general purposes of the treaty, he intimated to them, that there were two points which required a particular discussion. A proper security, he said, ought to be given by the queen of Scots for her due performance of the stipulations of the accord with Elizabeth; and it was expedient to concert the mode of the pardon and indemnity which she was to extend to the subjects of Scotland who had offended her. As an assurance of the accommodation with his mistress, he demanded, that the duke of Chatellerault, the earls of Huntley and Argyle, the lords Hume and Herries, with another person of high rank, should be surrendered to her, and remain in England for three years; that the castles of Dunbarton and Hume should be in her possession during the same period; and as to the article concerning the delivery of the prince into her custody, he observed, that it would be required from the regent, the queen of Scots not having the power of its performance. The deputies of Mary, surprised with this language, intreated the English delegates to reflect, that their queen, if deprived of the most faithful of her nobles, and of her safest forts, could have little desire or ambition to return to her own kingdom; for she would thus be unable to protect herself against the turbulence of her subjects, and be a sovereign without friends, and without strength. They were inclined, they said, to put their commission and powers to the fullest stretch, in order to gratify Elizabeth; and they would agree, that two earls and two barons should be surrendered, for two years, as hostages of the fidelity of their sovereign; under the restriction, that they might be exchanged every six months for persons of an equal condition, if they should be desirous of returning to their own country. As to the giving up of any forts or castles, they would not agree to it, because, among the other inconveniences of this measure, similar claims would be competent to the king of France, by the spirit of the treaty of Edinburgh, which stipulated, that no French or English troops should be admitted into Scotland. The lord keeper Bacon, resuming his discourse, told them, that the whole realm of Scotland, its prince, nobles, and castles, were an inadequate pledge to the queen of England; and that, if his advice would be followed, the queen of Scots should not obtain her liberty upon any kind of security which could be granted by the Scottish nation. In all public treaties, said the delegates of Mary, no further assurance can be required from a sovereign than what consists with his safety; and when exactions are pressed from a contracting party in a league which are ruinous and impossible, it is understood, that a foundation is sought to break off the negociation. The English commissioners, now interfering in a body, declared upon their honour, that it

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was the meaning of Elizabeth to agree to the restoration of the queen of Scots to her crown and realm upon receiving sufficient assurances for the articles of the accommodation; that the security offered for her acceptance, should be submitted to her deliberation; and that they would immediately proceed to confer with the deputies for the king of Scots.

761 And with the king's deputies.

The English commissioners were not unacquainted with the sentiments of the earl of Morton and his colleagues; and it was from this quarter that they expected a resolute and definitive interruption to the treaty. Nor did these delegates disappoint the expectations conceived of them. After affecting to take a comprehensive view of the articles under debate, they declared, that their commission gave them authority to treat about the amity of the two kingdoms, and the maintenance of the true religion; but that it conferred upon them no power to receive their queen into Scotland, or to surrender to Elizabeth the person of their king. They therefore begged not to be urged to accede to a league which, in some future period, might expose them to a charge of high-treason.

762 Elizabeth obstructs the treaty.

This singular declaration was considered to be solid and weighty by the English commissioners; and, in a new conference, it was communicated by them to the deputies of Mary. The bishop of Ross and his associates were disgusted with this formal impertinence. They did not hesitate to pronounce the plea of an insufficient commission from the king to his delegates to be an unworthy and most frivolous subterfuge. The authors, they said, of the deposition of their sovereign did not need any authority but their own to set her at liberty; the prince was not yet five years of age, and could give them no instructions; and the regent was wholly dependent upon the will and pleasure of the queen of England. It was represented in return by the English delegates, that the commission of king James to his deputies, having been perused by Elizabeth, was accounted by her to be insufficient; and that it was her opinion, that the earl of Morton should return to Scotland to hold a parliament for obtaining new powers. The bishop of Ross exclaimed, that the queen of Scots had been amused with deceitful promises, that the prudence of Elizabeth had been corrupted by partial counsels, and that the allegations and pretences held out for interrupting the negociation were affected and unreal. The instructions, he said, from his sovereign to her commissioners, were to negociate and to conclude, and not to trifle; and they would not by any means consent to protract, by artificial delays, a treaty which the queen of England, if her intentions were sincere and right, could immediately terminate upon reasonable and honourable terms. His speech and his demeanour, he acknowledged, were sharp and warm; and he besought them to excuse him, since, having been made an instrument to abuse his mistress with false hopes, he could not but resent the indignity, and express what he knew and what he felt. The English deputies, addressing him and his colleagues, observed, with an unshaken phlegm, that as the friends of Mary, and those of the king her son, could not agree, and as their queen was refused the assurance she expected, they held their commission to be at an end, and were no longer at liberty to negociate.

The insincerity of Elizabeth, and the failure of the league or accord, filled Mary with resentment and complaints. Her animosities, and those of Elizabeth, were increased and fortified. She was in haste to communicate to her allies the unworthy treatment she had received; and she sent her commands to her adherents in Scotland to rise up in arms, to repose no trust in truces which were prejudicial and treacherous, and to employ all their resources and strength in the humiliation of the regent and his faction. Elizabeth, who by this time apprehended no enterprise or danger from Charles IX. or the duke of Alva, resolved, on the other hand, to give a strong and effecting support to the king's friends, and to disunite by stratagem, and oppress by power, the partizans of the Scottish princess. The zeal of the bishop of Ross having raised her anger, she commanded him to depart from London; and Mary, in contempt of her mandate, ordered him to remain there under the privilege of her ambassador. The high and unbroken spirit of the Scottish queen, in the midst of her misfortunes, never once awakened the generous admiration of Elizabeth. While it uniformly inflamed her rage, it seems also to have excited her terror. With a pusillanimous meanness, she sent a dispatch to the earl of Shrewsbury, instructing him to keep his charge in the closest confinement, and to be incessantly on his guard to prevent her escape. He obeyed, and regretted her severity. The expence, retinue, and domestics, of the queen of Scots, were diminished and reduced, and every probable means by which she might act to accomplish her liberty were removed from her. The rigours, however, that invaded her person could not reach her mind; and she pitied the tyrant that could add contumely to oppression, and deny her even the comforts of a prison.

763 The agitated condition of the two queens.

764 Dreadful confusion in Scotland.

All this time Scotland was involved in the miseries of civil war. The friends of Mary were every where punished with fines and forfeiture. Private families took the opportunity of the public confusion to revenge their quarrels against each other. Individuals of every denomination ranged themselves on the side either of the regent or of the queen, and took a share in the hostilities of their country. Fathers divided against sons, and sons against their fathers. Acts of outrage and violence were committed in every quarter, while, amidst the general confusion, religion was made the pretence by both parties.

765 The regent taken prisoner and put to death.

In the mean time, though many encounters took place between the two factions, yet neither party seems to have been conducted by leaders of any ability or skill in military affairs. This year, in one of these skirmishes, the regent himself was taken prisoner by a party of the queen's faction, and put to death. But this event made little alteration in the affairs of the nation. The earl of Marre, another of the queen's enemies, was chosen to the regency: but though he proposed to act against her party with rigour, he was baffled before Edinburgh castle, which was still held by her friends; and some bloody skirmishes were fought in the north, where victory declared in favour of the queen. These advantages, however, were more than compensated to the other party by the following event.

During the dependence of the negociations with Elizabeth

Scotland. Elizabeth for Mary's restoration, there had been communicated to her the scheme of a conspiracy for her deliverance by Robert Ridolphi a Florentine, who had lived in London many years as a merchant, and who was secretly an agent for the court of Rome. But to his letters, while the fate of the treaty was uncertain, she returned no reply. Its miscarriage, through the duplicity of Elizabeth, recalled them forcibly to her attention, and stimulated her to seek the accomplishment of her liberty by measures bolder and more arduous than any which had been hitherto employed by her. She drew up in cypher an ample discourse of his communications and of her situation, and dispatched it to the bishop of Ross, together with letters for the duke of Norfolk. Her instructions to this ecclesiastic were to convey the discourse and letters expeditiously to Norfolk, and to concert an interview between that nobleman and Ridolphi. The confidential servants by whom the duke acted with the bishop of Ross were Bannister and Barker; and having received from them the discourse and the letters, they were deciphered by Hickford his secretary. Having considered them maturely, he delivered them to Hickford, with orders to commit them to the flames. His orders, however, were, disobeyed; and Hickford deposited them, with other papers of consequence, under the mats of the duke's bed-chamber. The contents of the discourse and the letters awakening the hope and ambition of Norfolk, he was impatient to see Ridolphi; and the bishop of Ross soon brought them together. Ridolphi, whose ability was inspirited by motives of religion and interest, exerted all his eloquence and address to engage the duke to put himself at the head of a rebellion against his sovereign. He represented to him, that there could not be a season more proper than the present for atchieving the overthrow of Elizabeth. Many persons who had enjoyed authority and credit under her predecessor were full of disgusts; the Roman Catholics were numerous and angry; the younger sons of the gentry were languishing in poverty and inaction in every quarter of the kingdom; and there were multitudes disposed to insurrection from restlessness, the love of change, and the ardour of enterprise. He insinuated to him, that his rank, popularity, and fortune, enabled him to take the command of such persons with infinite advantage. He insisted upon his imprisonment and the outrages he had sustained from Elizabeth; insinuated the contempt to which he would expose himself by a tame submission to wrongs, extolled the propriety with which he might give way to his indignation and revenge; and painted out the glory he might purchase by the humiliation of his enemies, and by the full accomplishment of his marriage with the queen of Scots. To give a strength and confirmation to these topics, he produced a long list of the names of noblemen and gentlemen with whom he had practised, and whom he affirmed to be ready to hazard their lives and riches for a revolution in the state, if the duke would enter into it with cordiality. To fix decisively the duke, he now opened to him the expectations with which he might flatter himself from abroad. The Pope, he assured him, had already provided 100,000 crowns for the enterprise; and if Popery should be advanced in England, he would cheerfully defray the whole charges of the war. The king

766 Norfolk's conspiracy.

of Spain would supply 4000 horse and 6000 foot, which might be landed at Harwich. Charles IX. was devotedly attached to the queen of Scots, notwithstanding the treaty which had been entered upon with Elizabeth for her marriage with his brother the duke of Anjou: and when he should discover, that, on the part of the English princess, this matrimonial scheme was no better than a device or a mockery, he would renounce the appearance of friendship he had assumed, and return to his natural sentiments of disdain and hatred, with an added outrage and discontent. In fine, he urged, that while he might depend on the assistance and arms of the greatest princes of Christendom, he would entitle himself to the admiration of all of them by his magnanimous efforts and generous gallantry in the cause of a queen so beautiful and so unfortunate.

767 Discovered by the ministers of Elizabeth.

The duke of Norfolk, allured by appearances so plausible and flattering, did not scruple to forget the duties of a subject, and the submissive obligation in which he had bound himself to Elizabeth never more to interfere in the affairs of the Scottish princess. Ridolphi, in this forward state of the business, advised him to address letters to the Pope, the king of Spain, and the duke of Alva, expressive of his concurrence in the design, and inspiriting their activity and resolutions. He even produced dispatches framed for this purpose; and while he intreated the duke to subscribe them, he offered to carry them himself to Flanders, Rome, and Spain. The duke of Norfolk, who was ambitious and timid, disposed to treason, and unfit for it, hesitated whether he should subscribe the letters; and at length refused to proceed to that extremity. He yet allowed the bishop of Ross, and Barker his servant, to go to the Spanish ambassador to express his approbation of the measures of Ridolphi, to acknowledge that the letters were according to his mind, and to empower this statesman to certify their authenticity to his court. Ridolphi, full of hopes, set out to execute his commission. He passed first to the duke of Alva, to whom he communicated the transactions in which he had been engaged, and with whom he held many conferences. There was at this time at Bruxelles Charles Bailly, a servant of the queen of Scots; and Ridolphi, after disclosing to him his proceedings with Alva, entrusted him with letters to her to the duke of Norfolk, the Spanish ambassador, and the bishop of Ross. When this messenger reached Calais, a letter was delivered to him from the bishop of Ross, desiring him to leave his dispatches with the governor of that place. From inexperience and vanity he neglected this notice; and being searched at Dover, his letters, books, and cloaths were seized, and he himself was sent to London, and imprisoned in the Marshalsea. The bishop of Ross, full of apprehensions, applied to lord Cobham the warden of the cinque ports, who was friendly to the duke of Norfolk; and obtaining by his means the packet of dispatches from Ridolphi, he substituted another in its place, which contained letters of no danger or usefulness. He had also the dexterity to convey intelligence of this trick to Bailly, and to admonish him to preserve a profound silence, and not to be afraid. This simple and unpractised agent had, however, excited suspicions by the symptoms of terror he had exhibited upon being taken, and

Scotland. by exclaiming, that the dispatches he brought would involve his own destruction and that of others. At his first examination he confessed nothing; but being sent to the tower, and put upon the rack, he revealed his conversations with Ridolphi, and declared, that the dispatches which he had brought had been delivered to the bishop of Ross. An order was granted for taking the bishop into custody. Having been aware, however, of his perilous situation, his house was searched in vain for treasonable papers; and he thought to screen himself from answering any interrogatories under the sanctity of his character as the ambassador of an independent princess.

768 The duke's friends and servants give evidence against him.

An unexpected incident excited, in the mean while, new suspicions and alarms. Mary being desirous of transmitting 2000 crowns to the lord Herries to advance her interests in Scotland, the duke of Norfolk undertook to convey it to him with safety. He intrusted it to the charge of his confidents Hickford and Barker, who putting it into a bag with dispatches from their master to lord Herries, ordered a servant called *Brown* to carry it to Bannister; who, being at this time on the border, could forward it to Scotland. Brown, suspicious or corrupted, instead of proceeding on his errand, carried the bag and its contents to Sir William Cecil, now lord Burleigh. The privy-council, deeming it treason to send money out of the realm for the use of the friends of Mary, whom they affected to consider as enemies, ordered Hickford and Barker to be apprehended. The rack extorted from them whatsoever they knew to the prejudice of their master. Hickford gave intelligence of the fatal discourse and the letters from Mary, which he had preserved in opposition to the orders given to him. All the proceedings between the queen of Scots, the duke of Norfolk, the bishop of Ross, and Ridolphi, were brought to light. A guard was placed upon the house of the duke of Norfolk, in order to prevent his escape. Sir Ralph Sadler, Sir Thomas Smith, Sir Henry Nevil, and Dr Wilson, were commissioned to examine him; and being impressed with the belief that the discourse and the letters had been destroyed, he positively denied that he had any concern in the affairs of the queen of Scots, or any knowledge of them whatsoever. He was committed to the tower a close prisoner. Bannister by this time was taken; and he confirmed the relations of Hickford and Barker. In the course of their discoveries, there appeared reasons of suspicion against many persons of rank and distinction. The earls of Arundel and Southampton, the lord Cobham, Mr Thomas Cobham his brother, Sir Thomas Stanley, Sir Henry Percy, and other gentlemen who were friendly to the queen of Scots and the duke of Norfolk, were ordered to be lodged in different prisons; and the rack, and the expectation of a pardon, drew from them the fullest confessions. The duke was altogether unable to defend himself. The concurring testimonies of his friends and servants, with the discourse and the letters, which he fondly imagined had been committed to the flames, were communicated to him. He was overwhelmed with amazement and distress; and exclaimed, that he had been betrayed and undone. He made ample acknowledgments of his guilt, and had no foundation of hope but in the mercy of his sovereign.

By the confession of the duke himself, and from all the inquiries which had been made by the ministers of Elizabeth, it appeared obvious beyond a doubt, that the bishop of Ross had been the principal contriver of the conspiracy. Ridolphi had acted under his direction, and he had inspirited the duke of Norfolk. He had even proceeded to the extremity of advising that noble-man to put himself at the head of a select band of adherents, and to seize boldly the person of Elizabeth. In his examinations he was treated with great rigour and insult. But he made an able defence, and peremptorily refused to make any answer to interrogatories. The counsellors of Elizabeth were disturbed with his obstinacy; and having certified him, that the rack would soon render him more pliant, he was ordered into close keeping in a dark apartment of the tower. When he had remained a few days in this melancholy situation, four privy-counsellors, the lord admiral, the lord Burleigh, Sir Francis Knollys, and Sir Thomas Smith, went to the tower, and caused him to be brought to them to the lieutenant's lodging. After having assured him that he was charged by all the prisoners as the principal contriver of the conspiracy, they insisted, in the name of their sovereign, that he should explain fully the part he had acted. The confessions of the duke of Norfolk and his servants, of the lord Lumley, Sir Thomas Stanley, and other gentlemen, with the discourse and dispatches of the queen of Scots, were set before him. They now protested upon their honour, that if he would make a free and open declaration of his proceedings, it should neither be employed against himself, nor against any other person; but that if he should continue to be resolute in refusing to give this satisfaction to their queen, who was anxious to search the matter to the bottom, they were instructed to let him know, that she would absolutely consider him as a private person, and order him to be tried and executed as a traitor. In this extremity he accepted the conditions held out to him, and disclosed minutely all the transactions of the principal parties in the conspiracy. But while he described the offences of his mistress, the duke of Norfolk, and himself, he could not avoid to detract from their blame by apologies. It was natural, he said, for the queen of Scots to exert the most strenuous endeavours in her power to recover her freedom and crown; and the methods she adopted to operate her purposes ought to be considered in connection with the arts of Elizabeth, who pertinaciously denied her access to her presence, who kept her a close prisoner in contempt of all the principles of humanity and justice, and who afforded an open and powerful assistance to her enemies. The duke of Norfolk he was earnest to excuse on the foundation of the advances which had been made in his marriage with the queen of Scots. Their plighted love, and their engagements, did not allow him to forsake her. As for himself, he was her ambassador and her servant; and being highly indebted to her generosity and kindness, he could not abandon her in captivity and distress without incurring the guilt of the most sinful treachery and ingratitude. The daring proposal he had made to seize the person of Elizabeth was the point, he observed, which seemed to press upon him the most severely; and he intreated them to believe, that he had moved it only with the view of trying the courage of the duke of Norfolk. The privy-coun-

Scotland. 769 Dangerous and perplexing condition of bishop Lesly.

Scotland.

counsellors of Elizabeth were now in possession of all the evidence they could expect in this important business. Norfolk was admonished to prepare for his trial; and bishop Lesly perceived, that though he might escape with his life, he would never more be permitted to reside in England, and to act there as the ambassador, the minister, and the friend of the queen of Scots.

770 Mary's affairs ruined by the failure of Norfolk's conspiracy.

The defeat of the duke of Norfolk's conspiracy was a blow to Mary which she could never recover. Her most faithful friends were languishing in prisons upon her account; she had no longer the counsels of the bishop of Ross; and the Spanish ambassador, who had entered into her concerns with an unscrupulous cordiality had been ordered to withdraw from England. The trial and condemnation of Norfolk soon followed, and plunged her into the most calamitous distress.

771 And by the massacre of Paris.

The massacre of the Protestants at Paris in 1572 proved also extremely detrimental to her. It was interpreted to be a consequence of the confederacy which had been formed at Bayonne for the extermination of the reformed. The Protestants were every where transported with rage against the Papists. Elizabeth prepared herself against an attack from the Roman-Catholic powers; and was haunted with the notion that they meant to invade her kingdom, and to give it to the queen of Scots. Her ambassador at Paris, Sir Francis Walsingham, augmented her apprehensions and terror. He compared her weakness with the strength of her enemies, and assured her that if they should possess themselves of Scotland, she would soon cease to be a queen. He represented Mary as the great cause of the perils that threatened her personal safety and the tranquillity of her kingdom; and as violent diseases required violent remedies, he scrupled not to counsel her to unite Scotland to her dominions, and to put to death a rival whose life was inconsistent with her security. The more bigotted Protestants of Scotland differed not very widely in their sentiments from Sir Francis Walsingham; while those of them who were more moderate, were still more attached to their religion than to Mary; and amidst the indignation and horror into which the subjects of Scotland were thrown by the sanguinary outrages of Charles IX. and Catharine de Medicis, they surveyed the sufferings of their sovereign with a diminished sympathy.

772 Walsingham counsels Elizabeth to put Mary to death.

773 The regent dies, and is succeeded by Morton.

This year the regent, finding himself beset with difficulties which he could not overcome, and the affairs of the nation involved in confusion from which he could not extricate them, died of melancholy, and was succeeded by the earl of Morton.

774 Episcopacy introduced into Scotland.

During the regency of the earl of Marre, a remarkable innovation took place, in the church, which deserves to be particularly explained, being no less than the introduction of Episcopacy instead of the Presbyterian form of worship. While the earl of Lenox was regent, the archbishop of St Andrews was put to death, on account of his being supposed to have had a concern in the death of the earl of Murray; after which the earl of Morton procured a grant of the temporalties of that see. Out of these he allotted a stipend to Mr John Douglas, a Protestant clergyman, who took upon him the title of archbishop. This violence excited censure and murmurs. In the language of the times, it was pronounced to be a profanation of the kirk, and a high contempt of God; and it underwent the scrutiny of the ministry in applications and complaints to the regent. The matter was doubtless of too much importance to be overlooked; and a commission of privy-counsellors and clergymen was appointed in the name of the king to inquire into it, and to reform and improve the policy of the church. This commission, upon the part of the privy-council, consisted of the earl of Morton, the lord Ruthven, Robert abbot of Dunfermline, Mr James Macgill, Sir John Ballenden, and Colin Campbell of Glenorchie; and upon the part of the church there were named John Erskine of Dun, and Mr John Winram, Mr Hay, Mr Lindsay, Mr Pont, and Mr John Craig. There were long consultations and debates; and the influence and management of the earl of Morton directed their determinations. It was resolved, that till the majority of the king, or till the wisdom of the three estates should be consulted, the titles of archbishop and bishop should continue as in the times which preceded the reformation; and that a chapter of learned ministers should be annexed to every metropolitan or cathedral seat. It was determined, that the fees as they became vacant should be given to those of the Protestant ministry who were most eminent for their qualifications; that the archbishops and bishops should exercise no higher jurisdiction than what was permitted to superintendants; and that they should be subject to the controul of the general assemblies of the church. It was agreed, that all abbots, priors, and other inferior prelates presented to benefices, should be examined by the bishop or superintendant of the diocese or precinct where the preferment was situated; and that their fitness to represent the church in parliament should be duly inquired into. It was judged that the king and the regent should recommend qualified persons to vacant bishoprics, and that the elections of them should be made by the chapters of the respective cathedrals. It was ordered, that all benefices with cure under prelacies, should only be disposed of to officiating ministers; that every minister should receive ordination from the bishop of the diocese, or the superintendant of the province; and that the bishops and superintendants, upon the ordination of ministers, should exact an oath from them to recognize the authority of the king, and to pay canonical obedience to their ordinary in all things that were lawful.

By these artful regulations the earl of Morton did not mean solely to consult his own rapacity or that of the nobles. The exaltation of the Protestant church to be one of the three estates was a consequence of them; and the clergy being the strenuous enemies of Mary, he might by their means secure a decided influence in parliament. The earl of Marre, as regent, giving his sanction to the proceedings of the commission, they were carried into practice. The delusive expectation of wealth, which this revival of Episcopacy held out to the ministry, was flattering to them; and they bore with tolerable patience this severe blow that was struck against the religious policy of Geneva. Mr John Douglas was desired to give a specimen of his gifts in preaching; and his election took effect, notwithstanding the opposition that was made to it by John Knox and other ecclesiastics, who stood up for the

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the rules and forms which had been eſtabliſhed at the reformation. He was inaugurated in his office by the biſhop of Cathneſs, Mr John Spotſwood ſuperintendant of Lothian, and Mr David Lindſay, who violating the book of diſcipline, communicated to him his character and admiſſion by the impoſition of hands. This was a ſingular triumph to Epiſcopacy; and the exaltation of Douglas included other peculiarities remarkable and offenſive. He denied that he had made any ſimoniacal agreement with the earl of Morton; yet it was known that the revenues of the archbiſhopric were almoſt wholly ingroſſed by that nobleman. He had promiſed to reſign, upon his inſtalment, the office of rector which he held in the univerſity of St Andrew's; yet he refuſed to execute this engagement. He was in a very advanced age; and his mental qualifications, which had never been eminent, were in a ſtate of decay.

A general aſſembly, which was holden at St Andrew's, conſidering the high moment of the new regulations introduced into the church, appointed commiſſioners to go to Mr Knox, who was at this time indiſpoſed, and to conſult with him deliberately in his houſe, whether they were agreeable to the word of God. But from the arts of the nobles, or from the ſickneſs of Knox, it happened that this conference was not carried into execution. In a general aſſembly, however, which met at Perth, the new polity was reported and examined. The names of archbiſhop, dean, archdeacon, chancellor, and chapter, were excepted againſt as Popiſh diſtinctions, and as ſlanderous to the ears of pious Chriſtians. A wiſh was expreſſed that they might be exchanged for titles leſs profane and ſuperſtitious; and an unanimous proteſtation was made, that the new polity was merely a temporary expedient, and ſhould only continue and prevail till a more perfect order ſhould be obtained from the king, the regent, and the nobility. This tolerating reſolution left the new polity in its full force; and a colourable foundation was now eſtabliſhed for the laity to partake in the profits of biſhoprics. The ſimoniacal paction of Morton and Douglas was not long a matter of ſingularity. Mr James Boyd was appointed to the archbiſhopric of Glaſgow, Mr James Paton to the biſhopric of Dunkeld, and Mr Andrew Graham to the ſee of Dumblain; and theſe compromiſing eccleſiaſtics, upon being allowed competencies to themſelves, gratified their noble friends with the greateſt proportion of their revenues. The virtue of the common people approved not this ſpirit of traffic; and the biſhops of the new polity were treated openly with reproach or with ridicule.

775 Death of John Knox.

The year 1572 is alſo remarkable for the death of John Knox, whoſe miſtaken zeal had contributed not a little to bring upon the queen thoſe miſfortunes with which ſhe was now oppreſſed. Neither by his death, however, nor by the change of the regency, could ſhe now be relieved. The earl of Morton was ſo much devoted to Elizabeth, that he received particular inſtructions from her how to guide the young king. His elevation, indeed, gave the finiſhing ſtroke to the queen's affairs. He employed himſelf with ſucceſs in dividing her party among themſelves, and by his means the duke of Chattellerault and the earl of Huntley were induced to forſake her. As for Elizabeth, ſhe was bent on putting Mary to death; but as no crime could be alleged againſt her in England, ſhe thought it proper that ſhe ſhould be carried back to ſuffer death in her own dominions. This propoſal, however, was rejected; and the friends who remained true to Mary once more began to indulge themſelves in hopes of ſuccours from France. New miſfortunes, however, awaited them. The caſtle of Edinburgh, which had hitherto been held for the queen by Kircaldy of Grange, was obliged to ſurrender to an Engliſh army commanded by Sir William Drury. Kircaldy was ſolemnly aſſured by the Engliſh commander of his life and liberty; but Elizabeth violated this capitulation, and commanded him to be delivered up to the regent. An hundred of his relations offered to become vaſſals to Morton, and to pay him 3000 merks yearly, if he would ſpare his life; but in vain: Kircaldy and his brother Sir James were hanged at Edinburgh. Maitland of Lethington, who was taken at the ſame time, was poiſoned in the priſon-houſe of Leith.

776 Elizabeth reſolved on putting Mary to death.

777 The caſtle of Edinburgh taken by the Engliſh party.

The jealouſy of Elizabeth did not diminiſh with the decline of Mary's cauſe. She now treated her with more rigour than ever, and patroniſed Morton in all the enormities which he committed againſt her friends. Leſly biſhop of Roſs had been long impriſoned in England, on account of his concern in the duke of Norfolk's conſpiracy. Morton earneſtly ſolicited the queen to deliver him up, and would undoubtedly have put him to death; but this, as he had acted in the character of ambaſſador from Mary, was judged impolitic, and the prelate was ſuffered to depart for France. When he arrived there, he endeavoured in vain to ſtir up the emperor, the pope, and the duke of Alva, to exert themſelves in behalf of the queen of Scotland; and, in 1574, the miſfortunes of his royal miſtreſs were farther aggravated by the death of Charles IX. of France, and her uncle the cardinal of Lorraine. The regent, in the mean time, ruled with the moſt deſpotic ſway. He twice coined baſe money in the name of his ſovereign; and after putting it into circulation the ſecond time, he iſſued orders for its paſſing only for its intrinſic value. The duke of Chattellerault happening to die this year, the regent took every method of ruining all thoſe of his name and family. He committed to priſon all the Hamiltons, and every perſon of diſtinction who had fought for the queen at the battle of Langſide, and compelled them to buy their liberty at an exorbitant price. He inſtigated Douglas of Lochlevin to aſſaſſinate lord Arbroath, and it was with difficulty that the latter eſcaped the ambuſh that was laid for him. Reid, the biſhop of Orkney, having left his eſtate to pious and charitable uſes, the regent prohibited the execution of the will, and took upon himſelf the adminiſtration. To be rich was a ſufficient crime to excite his vengeance. He entered the warehouſes of merchants, and confiſcated their property; and if he wanted a pretence to juſtify his conduct, the judges and lawyers were ready at his call.

778 Mary treated with greater rigour than ever.

779 Death of Charles IX. and the duke of Lorraine.

780 Oppreſſion and violence of Morton.

In this diſaſtrous period the clergy augmented the general confuſion. Mr Andrew Melvil had lately returned from Geneva; and the diſcipline of its aſſembly being conſidered by him as the moſt perfect model of eccleſiaſtical policy, he was infinitely offended with the introduction of Epiſcopacy into Scotland. His learning was conſiderable, and his ſkill in languages was profound. He was fond of diſputation, hot, violent, and

781 Oppoſition to Epiſcopacy.

and pertinacious. The Scottish clergy were in a humour to attend to him; and his merit was sufficient to excite their admiration. Instigated by his practices, John Drury, one of the ministers of Edinburgh, called in question, in a general assembly, the lawfulness of the bishops, and the authority of chapters in electing them. Melvil, after commending his zeal and his motion, declaimed concerning the flourishing state of the establishment of Geneva; and having recited the opinions of Calvin and Beza upon ecclesiastical government, maintained, that there should be no office-bearers in the church whose titles were not seen in the book of God. He affirmed, that the term *bishop* was nowhere to be found in it in the sense in which it was commonly understood, as Christ allowed not any superiority among ministers. He contended that Christ was the only lord of his church; and that the ministers of the word were all equal in degree and power. He urged, that the estate of the bishops, beside being unlawful, had grown unseemly with corruptions; and that if they were not removed out of the church, it would fall into decay, and endanger the interests of religion. His sentiments were received with a flattering approbation; and tho' the archbishop of Glasgow, with the bishops of Dunkeld, Galloway, Brechin, Dumblain, and the Isles, were present in this assembly, they ventured not to defend their vocation. It was resolved, that the name of *bishop* conferred no distinction or rank; that the Episcopal estate were not more honourable than the other ministers; and that by the word of God their functions consisted in preaching, in administering the sacraments, and in exercising ecclesiastical discipline with the consent of the elders. The Episcopal estate, in the mean while, were watched with an anxious observation; and their faults and demerits of every kind were charged upon them with rudeness and asperity. In a new assembly this subject was again canvassed. It was moved, whether bishops, as constituted in Scotland, had any authority for their functions from the Scriptures? After long debates, it was thought prudent to avoid an explicit determination of this important question. But a confirmation was bestowed upon the resolution of the former assembly; and it was established as a rule, that every bishop should make choice of a particular church within his diocese, and should actually discharge the duties of a minister.

The regent, disturbed with these proceedings of the brethren, was disposed to amuse and to deceive them. He sent a messenger to advise them not to infringe and disfigure the established forms; and to admonish them, that if their aversion from Episcopacy was insurmountable, it would become them to think of some mode of ecclesiastical government to which they could adhere with constancy. The assembly taking the advantage of this message, made a formal intimation to him, that they would diligently frame a lasting platform of polity, and submit it to the privy-council. They appointed, accordingly, a committe of the brethren for this purpose. The business was too agreeable to be neglected; and in a short time Mr David Lindsay, Mr James Lawson, and Mr Robert Pont, were deputed to wait upon the regent with a new scheme of ecclesiastical government. After reminding him, that he had been a notable instrument in purging the realm of Popery, and begging that he would consult with them upon any of its articles which he thought improper or incomplete, they informed him, that they did not account it to be a perfect work to which nothing could be added, or from which nothing could be taken away; for that they would alter and improve it, as the Almighty God might farther reveal his will unto them. The regent, taking from them their schedule, replied, that he would appoint certain persons of the privy-council to confer with them. A conference was even begun upon the subject of their new establishment; but from his arts, or from the troubles of the times, no advances were made in it.

781 Death of Bothwel.

This year the earl of Bothwel died in Denmark; and in his last moments, being stung with remorse, he confessed that he had been guilty of the king's murder, revealed the names of the persons who were his accomplices, and with the most solemn protestations declared the honour and innocence of the queen. His confession was transmitted to Elizabeth by the king of Denmark; but was suppressed by her with a successful anxiety (A).

783 Morton is compelled to resign his office of regent.

The regent still continued his enormities, till having rendered himself obnoxious to the best part of the nobility, he was, in 1577, compelled to resign his office into the hands of James VI.; but as his majesty was then only twelve years of age, a general council of twelve peers was appointed to assist him in the administration. Next year, however, the earl of Morton having found means to gain the favour of the young king, procured the dissolution of this council; and by thus being left the sole adviser of the king, he hoped once more to be raised to his former greatness. This could not be done, however, without keeping the king in a kind of captivity, so that nobody could have access to him but himself. The king, sensible of his situation, sent a dispatch to the earls of Argyle and Athole, intreating them to relieve him. An army for this purpose was soon raised; and Morton's partisans were in danger of being defeated, had not the opposite party dreaded the vengeance of Elizabeth, who was resolved to support the earl of Morton. In consequence of this a negociation was entered into, by which it was agreed, that the earl of Argyle, with some others, should be admitted into the king's council; and that four noblemen should be chosen by each party to consider of some proper method of producing tranquillity in the nation.

784 He poisons the earl of Athole.

This pacification did not greatly diminish the power of Morton. He soon got rid of one of his principal antagonists, the earl of Athole, by poisoning him at an entertainment; after which he again gave a loose to his resentments against the house of Hamilton, whom he persecuted in the most cruel manner. By these means, however, he drew upon himself a general hatred; and he was supplanted in the king's favour by the lord d'Aubigney, who came from France in the year 1579, and was created earl of Lennox. The next year Morton

(A) Jebb. vol. II. p. 227. It has never been published. *the earl of Bothwel's declaration at his death*, and account it to be genuine. Their partiality for Mary induced them the more easily to fall into this mistake. The paper they give is demonstratively a forgery; and the want of the real confession of Bothwel is still a deficiency in our history. Keith and other historians have preserved what they call

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ton was suspected of an intention to deliver up the king to Elizabeth, and a guard was appointed to prevent any attempts of this kind. The queen of England endeavoured to support her zealous partisan; but without effect. He was tried, condemned, and executed, as being concerned in the murder of Darnley. At the place of execution, in it is said, that he confessed his guilt; but of this the evidence is not quite satisfactory.

785 Is condemned and executed for the murder of Darnley.

786 Monstrous cruelty of Elizabeth to Mary.

The elevation of king James, and the total overthrow of Morton, produced no beneficial consequences to the unfortunate Mary. In the year 1581, she addressed a letter to Castelnau the French ambassador, in which she complained that her body was so weak, and her limbs so feeble, that she was unable to walk. Castelnau therefore intreated Elizabeth to mitigate a little the rigours of Mary's confinement; which being refused, the latter had thoughts of resigning her claims to the crown both of England and Scotland into the hands of her son, and even of advising him to use every effort in his power to establish his claim to the English crown as preferable to that of Elizabeth. But being apprehensive of danger from this violent method, she again contented herself with sending to the court of England ineffectual memorials and remonstrances. Elizabeth, instead of taking compassion on her miserable situation, assiduously encouraged every kind of disorder in the kingdom, on purpose to have the queen more and more in her power. Thus the Scottish malcontents finding themselves always supported, a conspiracy was at last entered into, the design of which was to hold James in captivity, and to overthrow the authority of Arran and Lennox, who were now the principal persons in the kingdom. The chief actors in this conspiracy were the earls of Gowrie, Marre, and Glencairn, the lords Lindsay and Boyd, with the masters of Glammis and Oliphant. By reason of the youth and imbecillity of the king, they easily accomplished their purpose; and having got him in their power, they promised him his liberty, provided he would command Lennox to depart the kingdom. This was accordingly done, but the king found himself as much a prisoner as before. The more effectually to detain him in custody, the rebels constrained him to issue a proclamation, wherein he declared himself to be at perfect liberty. Lennox was preparing to advance to the king's relief with a considerable body of forces, when he was disconcerted by the king's peremptory command to leave Scotland; upon which he retired to Dumbarton, in order to wait for a more favourable opportunity. The earl of Arran, being more forward, was committed to close custody for some time, but afterwards confined only in his house of Kinneil. The rebels took upon them the title of "lords for the reformation of the state."

787 The king taken prisoner.

788 Which is approved of the clergy.

The clergy, who had all this time been exceedingly averse to Episcopacy, now gave open countenance to the lords of the reformation. On the 13th of October 1582, they made a solemn act, by which the *raid of Ruthven*, as the capture of the king was called, was deemed a service most acceptable to all who feared God, respected the true religion, and were anxious for the preservation of the king and state; and every minister was commanded to declaim from his pulpit upon the expediency of this measure, and to exhort the people to concur with the lords in prosecuting the full deliverance of the church, and the perfect reformation of the commonwealth. Not satisfied with this approbation of the clergy, the conspirators got their proceedings approved by the states of Scotland, as "a good, a thankful, and a necessary service to the king;" at the same time that it was enacted, that no suit civil or criminal of any kind should ever be instituted by the persons concerned in it. Soon after this, Lennox took his leave of Scotland, and sailed for France, where he died.

789 Mary writes to Elizabeth.

The unfortunate Mary was driven to despair when she heard that her son was taken prisoner by rebels who had been instigated by Elizabeth. In this distress, she addressed a most spirited letter to Elizabeth, in which she at once asserted her own innocence, and set forth the conduct of Elizabeth herself in such language as must have put the most impudent of her adversaries to the blush. Elizabeth could no reply, and therefore had recourse to her usual arts of treacherous negociation. New terms were proposed to Mary, who would gladly have submitted almost to any thing; provided she could procure her freedom. It was proposed, as had often been done before, to associate the queen of Scots with her son in the government; but as this was to be referred to the king, who was in the hands of Elizabeth's friends, and to the parliament, who were under the power of the same faction, it is easy to see that no such association ever could take place, or indeed was ever intended.

790 Who acts with her usual perfidy.

After the death of Lennox, the conspirators apprehended no further danger, little supposing that a prince so young and unexperienced could deliver himself from captivity. This, however, in the year 1583, he effected in the following manner. A convention of the estates had been summoned to meet at St Andrew's. James, whom the earl of Arran, notwithstanding his confinement at Kinneil, had found means to instruct and advise, pretended a desire of visiting his grand-uncle the earl of March, who resided at St Andrew's, and was for that purpose permitted to repair thither a few days before the convention. The better to deceive the earls of Gowrie, Angus, and Marre, who attended him, he took up his lodgings in an old inn, which was quite open and defenceless. But having expressed a desire to see the castle of St Andrews, he was admitted into it; and colonel Stewart, who commanded the castle, after admitting a few of his retinue, ordered the gates to be shut. The earls of Argyle, Marischal, Montrose, and Rothes, who were in concert with the king, hastened to make him an offer of their swords. The opposite faction, being unprepared for hostilities, were filled with consternation. Of all the conspirators, the earl of Gowrie alone was admitted into the king's presence, by the favour of Colonel Stuart, and received his pardon. The earls of March, Argyle, Gowrie, Marischal, and Rothes, were appointed to be a council for assisting the king in the management of his affairs; and soon after this, James set out for Edinburgh. The king no sooner found himself at liberty, than, by the advice of his privy-council, he issued a proclamation of mercy to the conspirators; but they, flattering themselves with the hopes of support from Elizabeth, obstinately refused to accept of his pardon. In consequence of this, they were

791 French ambassadors insulted in Scotland.

792 The king escapes from captivity.

Scotland. were denounced rebels. Elizabeth failed not to give them underhand all the encouragement ſhe could, and the clergy uttered the moſt ſeditious diſcourſes againſt the king and government; and while they railed againſt Popery, they themſelves maintained openly the very characteriſtic and diſtinguiſhing mark of Popery, namely, that the clerical was entirely independent of the civil power.

793 Earl of Gowrie condemned and executed.

At laſt the rebels broke forth into open hoſtilities; but by the vigilance of Arran, the earl of Gowrie, who had again begun his treaſonable practices, was committed to cuſtody; while the reſt, unable to oppoſe the king, who appeared againſt them with a formidable army, were obliged to fly into England, where Elizabeth, with her uſual treachery, protected them.

The earl of Gowrie ſuffered as a traitor; but the ſeverity exerciſed againſt him did not intimidate the clergy. They ſtill continued their rebellious practices, until the king being informed that they were engaged in a correſpondence with ſome of the fugitive lords, citations were given to their leaders to appear before the privy-council. The clergymen, not daring to appear, fled to England; and on the 20th of May 1584, the king ſummoned a convention of the eſtates, on purpoſe to humble the pride of the church in an effectual manner. In this aſſembly the raid of Ruthven was declared to be rebellion, according to a declaration which had formerly been made by the king. And, as it had grown into a cuſtom with the promoters of ſedition and the enemies of order, to decline the judgment of the king and the council, when called before them to anſwer for rebellious or contumelious ſpeeches, uttered from the pulpit or in public places, an ordination was made, aſſerting that they had complete powers to judge concerning perſons of every degree and function; and declaring, that every act of oppoſition to their juriſdiction ſhould be accounted to be treaſon. It was enacted, that the authority of the parliament, as conſtituted by the free votes of the three eſtates, was full and ſupreme; and that every attempt to diminiſh, alter, or infringe, its power, dignity, and juriſdiction, ſhould be held and puniſhed as treaſon. All juriſdictions and judgments, all aſſemblies and conventions, not approved of by the king and the three eſtates, were condemned as unlawful, and prohibited. It was ordained, that the king might appoint commiſſioners, with powers to examine into the delinquencies of clergymen, and, if proper, to deprive them of their benefices. It was commanded, that clergymen ſhould not for the future be admitted to the dignity of lords of the ſeſſion, or to the adminiſtration of any judicature civil or criminal. An ordination was made, which ſubjected to capital puniſhment all perſons who ſhould inquire into the affairs of ſtate with a malicious curioſity, or who ſhould utter falſe and ſlanderous ſpeeches in ſermons, declamations, or familiar diſcourſe, to the reproach and contempt of the king, his parents, and progenitors. It was ordered that a guard, conſiſting of 40 gentlemen, with a yearly allowance to each of 200 l. ſhould continually attend upon the king. This parliament, which was full of zeal for the crown, did not overlook the hiſtory of Buchannan, which about this time was exciting a very general attention. It commanded, that all

794 Proceedings againſt the clergy.

795 Attempts to ſuppreſs Buchanan's hiſtory.

perſons who were poſſeſſed of copies of his chronicle, and of his treatiſe on the Scottiſh government, ſhould ſurrender them within 40 days, under the penalty of 200 l. in order that they might be purged of the offenſive and extraordinary matters they contained. This ſtroke of tyranny was furious and ineffectual. Foreign nations, as well as his own countrymen, were filled with the higheſt admiration of the genius of Buchanan. It was not permitted that his writings ſhould ſuffer mutilation; they were multiplied in every quarter; and the ſeverity exerciſed againſt them only ſerved the more to excite curioſity, and to diffuſe his reputation.

796 The clergy endeavour to ſupport themſelves againſt the civil power.

While the parliamentary acts, which ſtruck againſt the importance of the church, were in agitation, the miniſters deputed Mr David Lindſay to ſolicit the king that no ſtatutes ſhould paſs which affected the eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment, without the conſultation of the general aſſembly. But the earl of Arran having intelligence of this commiſſion, defeated it, by committing Mr Lindſay to priſon as a ſpy for the diſcontented nobles. Upon the publication, however, of theſe acts by the heralds, Mr Robert Pont miniſter of St Cuthberts, and one of the ſenators of the court of ſeſſion, with Mr Walter Balcanqual, proteſted formally in the name of the church, that it diſſented from them, and that they were conſequently invalid. Having made this proteſtation, they inſtantly fled, and were proclaimed traitors. By letters and pamphlets, which were artfully ſpread among the people, their paſſions were rouzed againſt the king and his council. The miniſters of Edinburgh took the reſolution to forſake their flocks, and to retire to England; and in an apology circulated by their management, they anxiouſly endeavoured to awaken commiſeration and pity. They magnified the dangers which threatened them; and they held out, in vindication of their conduct, the example of the prophets, the apoſtles, the martyrs, and of Chriſt himſelf, who all concurred, they ſaid, in oppoſing the ordinations of men, when contradictory to the will of heaven, and in declining the rage of the enemies of God. The king appointed his own chaplains and the archbiſhop of St Andrew's to perform the miniſterial functions in his capital. The clergy over Scotland were commanded to ſubſcribe a declaration, which imported the ſupremacy of the king over the church, and their ſubmiſſion to the authority of the biſhops. The national ferments increaſed in their violence. Many miniſters refuſed to ſubſcribe this declaration, and were deprived of their livings. It was contended, that to make the king ſupreme over the church was no better than to ſet up a new pope, and to commit treaſon againſt Jeſus Chriſt. It was urged, that to overthrow aſſemblies and preſbyteries, and to give dominion to biſhops, was not only to overſet the eſtabliſhed polity of the church, but to deſtroy religion itſelf. For the biſhops were the ſlaves of the court, were ſchiſmatical in their opinions, and depraved in their lives. It was affirmed, that hereſy, atheiſm, and Popery, would ſtrike a deep root, and grow into ſtrength. And the people were taught to believe, that the biſhops would corrupt the nation into a reſemblance with themſelves; and that there every where prevailed diſſimulation and blaſphemy, perſecution and obſcenity, the profanation of the ſcriptures and

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and the breach of faith, covetousness, perjury, and sacrilege. It was sounded abroad, that the ministers alone were entrusted with ecclesiastical functions, and with the sword of the word; and that it was most wicked and profane to imagine, that Jesus Christ had ever committed the keys of the kingdom of heaven to civil magistrates and their servants or deputies.

While the clergy were thus impotently venting their wrath, Elizabeth, alarmed beyond measure at this sudden revolution, and terrified by a confession extorted by the rack from one Francis Throgmorton, concerning a combination of the Catholic princes to invade England, began to treat with Mary in a more sincere manner than usual; but, having gained over to her side the earl of Arran, the only man of activity in Scotland, she resolved to proceed to extremities with the queen of Scots. The Roman Catholics, both at home and abroad, were inflamed against her with a boundless and implacable rage. There prevailed many rumours of plots and conspiracies against her kingdom and her life. Books were published which detailed her cruelties and injustice to Mary in the most indignant language of reproach, and which recommended her assassination as a most meritorious act. The earl of Arran had explained to her the practices of the queen of Scots with her son, and had discovered the intrigues of the Catholic princes to gain him to their views. While her sensibilities and fears were severely excruciating to her, circumstances happened which confirmed them in their strength, and provoked her to give the fullest scope to the malignity of her passions. Crichton, a Scottish Jesuit, passing into his own country, was taken by Netherland pirates; and some papers which he had torn in pieces and thrown into the sea being recovered, were transmitted to England. Sir William Wade put them together with dexterity; and they demonstrated beyond a doubt, that the invasion of England was concerted by the Pope, the Spaniard, and the duke of Guise. About this time, too, a remarkable letter was intercepted from Mary to Sir Francis Englefield. She complained in it that she could have no reliance upon the integrity of Elizabeth, and that she expected no happy issue to any treaty which might be opened for her restoration and liberty. She urged the advancement of the "great plot;" the intimated, that the prince her son was favourable to the "designment," and disposed to be directed by her advice; she intreated, that every delicacy with regard to her own state and condition should be laid aside without scruple; and she assured him, that she would most willingly suffer perils and dangers, and even death itself, to give relief to the oppressed children of the church. These discoveries, so exasperating to the inquietudes and distresses of Elizabeth, were followed by a deep and general consternation. The terror of an invasion spread itself with rapidity over England; and the Protestants, while they trembled for the life of their champion, were still more alarmed with the dangers which threatened their religion.

797 Intended invasion of England discovered.

798 Remarkable letter from Mary intercepted by Elizabeth.

In this state of perplexity and distraction, the counsellors of Elizabeth did not forget that they had been the instruments of her persecution of the queen of Scots, and of the severities with which she had treated the Roman Catholics. They were fully sensible, that her greatness and safety were intimately connected with their own; and they concurred in indulging her fears, jealousies, and anger. It was resolved that Mary should perish. An association was formed, to which persons of every condition and degree were invited. The professed business of this association or society was the preservation of the life of Elizabeth, which it was affirmed was in danger, from a conspiracy to advance some pretended title to the crown; and its members vowed and protested, by the majesty of God, to employ their whole power, their bodies, lives, and goods, in her service, to withstand, as well by force of arms as by other methods of revenge, all persons, of whatsoever nation or rank, who should attempt in any form to invade and injure her security or her life, and never to desist from the forcible pursuit of them till they should be completely exterminated. They also vowed and protested, in the presence of the eternal God, to prosecute to destruction any pretended successor by whom, or for whom, the detestable deed of the assassination of Elizabeth should be attempted or committed. The earl of Leicester was in a particular manner the patron of this association; and the whole influence of Elizabeth and her ministers was exerted to multiply the subscriptions to a bond or league which was to prepare the way, and to be a foundation for accomplishing the full destruction and ruin of the Scottish queen.

799 Her death is resolved on.

A combination so resolute and so fierce, which pointed to the death of Mary, which threatened her titles to the crown of England, and which might defeat the succession of her son, could not fail to excite in her bosom the bitterest anxieties and perturbation. Weary of her sad and long captivity, broken down with calamities, dreading afflictions still more cruel, and willing to take away from Elizabeth every possible pretence of severity, she now framed a scheme of accommodation, to which no decent or reasonable objection could be made. By Naw, her secretary, she presented it to Elizabeth and her privy-council. She protested in it, that if her liberty should be granted to her, she would enter into the closest amity with Elizabeth, and pay an observance to her above every other prince of Christendom; that she would forget all the injuries with which she had been loaded, acknowledge Elizabeth to be the rightful queen of England, abstain from any claim to her crown during her life, renounce the title and arms of England, which she had usurped by the command of her husband the king of France, and reprobate the bull from Rome which had deposed the English queen. She likewise protested, that she would enter into the association which had been formed for the security of Elizabeth; and that she would conclude a defensive league with her, provided that it should not be prejudicial to the ancient alliance between Scotland and France, and that nothing should be done during the life of the English queen, or after her death, which should invalidate her titles to the crown of England, or those of her son. As a confirmation of these articles, she professed, that she would consent to stay in England for some time as an hostage; and that if she was permitted to retire from the dominions of Elizabeth, she would surrender proper and acceptable persons as sureties. She also protested, that she would make no alte-

800 She proposes a scheme of accommodation.

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801 Hypocrisy and treachery of Elizabeth.

In the mean time an act of attainder had passed against the fugitive nobles, and their estates and honours were forfeited to the king; who, not satisfied with this, sent Patrick master of Gray to demand a surrender of their persons from the queen of England. As this ambassador had resided some time in France, and been intimate with the duke of Guise, he was recommended to Mary: but being a man of no principles he easily suffered himself to be corrupted by Elizabeth; and while he pretended friendship to the unfortunate queen, he discovered all that he knew of the intentions of her and her son. The most scandalous falsehoods were forged against Mary; and the less she was apparently able to execute, the more she was said to design. That an unhappy woman, confined and guarded with the utmost vigilance, who had not for many years sufficient interest to procure a decent treatment for herself, should be able to carry on such close and powerful negociations with different princes as were imputed to her, is an absurdity which it must for ever be impossible to reconcile. That she had an amour with her keeper the earl of Shrewsbury, as was now reported, might be; though of this there is no proof. This, however, could scarce be treason against Elizabeth (A): yet, on account of this, Mary was committed to the charge of Sir Amias Paulet and Sir Drue Drury, zealous puritans, and who, it was hoped, would treat her with such severity as might drive her to despair, and induce her to commit some rash action. The earl of Leicester, said to be Elizabeth's paramour, even ventured to send assassins, on purpose, by the murder of Mary, at once to deliver his mistress from her fears. But the new keepers of the castle, though religious bigots, were men of strict probity, and rejected with scorn such an infamous transaction. In 1585, Mary began to feel all the rigours of a severe imprisonment. She had been removed from Sheffield to the castle of Tutbury; and under her new keepers she experienced a treatment which was in the highest degree unjust, disrespectful, and acrimonious. Two apartments or chambers only were allotted to her; and they were small and inconvenient, meanly furnished, and so full of apertures and chinks, that they could not protect her against the inclemencies of the weather. The liberty of going abroad for pleasure or exercise was denied to her. She was assailed by rheumatisms and other maladies; and her physician would not undertake to effect a cure, or even to procure her any ease, unless she should be removed to a more commodious dwelling. Applications for this purpose were frequently made, and uniformly rejected. Here, however, her own afflictions did not extinguish in her mind her sensibility for the misfortunes of others; and she often indulged herself in the satisfaction of employing a servant to go through the village of Tutbury in search of objects of distress, to whom she might deal out her charity. But her inhuman keepers, envying her this pleasure, commanded her to abstain from it. Imputing their rigour to a suspicious fidelity, she desired that her servant might, on these occasions, be accompanied by one of the soldiers of their guard, or by the constable of the village. But they would not alter their prohibition. They refused to her the exercise of the Christian duty of dispensing an alms; and they would not allow her the soft consolation of moistening her eye with sorrows not her own. To insult her the more, the castle of Tutbury was converted into a common jail. A young man, whose crime was the profession of the Romish religion, was committed to a chamber which was opposite to her window, in order that he might be persecuted in her sight with a pestilent cruelty. Notwithstanding his cries and resistance, he was dragged every morning to hear prayers, and to join in the Protestant worship; and after enduring several weeks this extraordinary violence to his conscience, he was unmercifully strangled without any form of law or justice. Mary remonstrated with warmth to Elizabeth against indignities so shocking and so horrible; but instead of obtaining consolation or relief, she was involved more deeply in wo, and exposed to still harder inventions of malice and of anger.

802 False reports raised against the queen of Scots.

803 Assassins sent to murder her.

804 She is confined, and cruelly treated.

In the midst of her misfortunes Mary had still solaced herself with hope; and from the exertions of her son she naturally expected a superlative advantage. He had hitherto behaved with a becoming cordiality; and in the negociation which she had opened with him for her association in the government, he had been studious to please and flatter her. He had informed her by a particular dispatch, that he found the greatest comfort in her maternal tenderness, and that he would accomplish her commands with humility and expedition; that he would not fail to ratify her union and association with him in the government; that it would be

805 Elizabeth sows dissension between Mary and her son.

(A) Amidst the infamous calumnies which this princess was solicitous to fix upon the queen of Scots, it must excite the highest indignation to consider her own contempt of chastity, and the unprincipled licentiousness of her private life. See Haynes's Collect. of State Papers, p. 99. &c.——Even when palsied with age, she was yet burning with unquenchable desires; and vain of her haggard and cadaverous form, sought to allure to her many lovers. See Murdin, p. 558, 560, 657, 718, 719. and the discoveries of a writer, whose pen, elegant, poignant, inquisitive, and polite, improves and embellishes every topic that it canvasses; Walpole, Catalogue of royal and noble Authors, vol. i. p. 126. [*Stuart*, vol. ii. p. 282, note.]

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be his moſt earneſt endeavour to reconcile their common ſubjects to that meaſure; and that ſhe might expect from him, during his life, every ſatisfaction and duty which a good mother could promiſe to herſelf from an affectionate and obedient ſon. But theſe fair bloſſoms of kindneſs and love were all blaſted by the treacherous arts of Elizabeth. By the maſter of Gray, who had obtained an aſcendant over James, ſhe turned from Mary his affections. He delayed to ratify her aſſociation in the government; and he even appeared to be unwilling to preſs Elizabeth on the ſubject of her liberty. The maſter of Gray had convinced him, that if any favour was ſhown to Mary by the queen of England, it would terminate in his humiliation. He aſſured him, that if his mother were again to mount the Scottiſh throne, her zeal for Popery would induce her to ſeek a huſband in the houſe of Auſtria; that ſhe would diſſolve his aſſociation with her in the government, on the pretence of his attachment to the reformed doctrines; and that he would not only loſe the glory of his preſent power, but endanger his proſpects of ſucceſſion. Mary expoſtulated with him by letter upon the timidity and coldneſs of his behaviour; and he returned her an anſwer full of diſreſpect, in which he intimated his reſolution to conſider her in no other character than as queen-mother. Her amazement, indignation, and grief, were infinite. She wrote to Caſtelnau the French ambaſſador, to inform him of her inquietudes and anguiſh. "My ſon," ſaid ſhe, "is ungrateful; and I deſire that the king your maſter ſhall conſider him no longer as a ſovereign. In your future diſpatches, abſtain from giving him the title of king. I am his queen and his ſovereign; and while I live, and continue at variance with him, he can at the beſt be but an uſurper. From him I derive no luſtre; and without me he could only have been lord Darnley or the earl of Lennox; for I raiſed his father from being my ſubject to be my huſband. I aſk from him nothing that is his; what I claim is my own; and if he perſiſts in his courſe of impiety and ingratitude, I will beſtow upon him my malediction, and deprive him not only of all right to Scotland, but of all the dignity and grandeur to which he may ſucceed thro' me. My enemies ſhall not enjoy the advantages they expect from him. For to the king of Spain I will convey, in the ampleſt form, my claims, titles, and greatneſs."

Elizabeth having thus found means to ſow diſſenſion between the queen of Scots and her ſon, did not fail to make the beſt uſe ſhe could of the quarrel for her own advantage. The Pope, the duke of Guiſe, and the king of Spain, had concluded an alliance, called the *holy league*, for the extirpation of the Proteſtant religion all over Europe. Elizabeth was thrown into the greateſt conſternation on this account; and the idea of a counter aſſociation among the Proteſtant princes of Europe immediately ſuggeſted itſelf. Sir Edward Wotton was deputed to Scotland; and ſo completely gained upon the imbecility of James, that he concluded a firm alliance with Elizabeth, without making any ſtipulation in favour of his mother. Nay, ſo far was he the dupe of this ambaſſador and his miſtreſs, that he allowed himſelf to be perſuaded to take into his favour Mr Archibald Douglas, one of the murderers of Lord Darnley; and, as if all this had not been ſufficient, he appointed this aſſaſſin to be his ambaſſador for England.

806 Alliance of the Popiſh powers againſt Elizabeth.

807 Mean and ſhameful behaviour of James.

Mary, thus abandoned by all the world, in the hands of her moſt inveterate and cruel enemy, fell a victim to her reſentment and treachery in the year 1587. The year before, a conſpiracy had been formed by ſome Popiſh zealots to aſſaſſinate Elizabeth; the principal contriver and intended actor in which was named Babington. This conſpiracy was known by Elizabeth and her miniſters the ſame year; ſo that the projectors of it would then have been taken into cuſtody, if it had not been with a view to involve the unfortunate Mary in the guilt of it. Gilbert Gifford, one of the conſpirators, who had diſcovered the whole to the Engliſh miniſter, was diſpatched to the caſtle of Chartley in Staffordſhire, where Mary was now confined, on purpoſe to commence a correſpondence with her. To facilitate this buſineſs, Walſingham the Engliſh ſecretary wrote a letter to Sir Amias Paulet, requeſting him to permit Gifford to bribe one of his ſervants. Paulet, however, refuſed to grant this requeſt; upon which Gifford corrupted a brewer in the neighbourhood, who put his letters to Mary in a hole in the caſtle-wall. By the ſame conveyance it was thought that Mary would anſwer the letters; but ſhe having had warning from France not to take a part in this conſpiracy, did not make any return to the letters. It was then contrived that anſwers, in the name of the queen of Scots to Gifford, ſhould be found in the hole of the wall. Walſingham, to whom theſe letters were carried, proceeded formally to decipher them by the help of one Thomas Phillips, a perſon ſkilled in theſe matters; and after exact copies were taken of them, it is ſaid that they were all artfully ſealed and ſent off to the perſons to whom they were directed. It appears, however, that only the letters directed to Babington were ſent to him; and the anſwers which he made to the queen's ſuppoſed letters were alſo carried to Walſingham. A foundation for criminating Mary being thus laid, the conſpirators were quickly diſcovered, as being already known, and ſuffered the death of traitors. The unhappy princeſs, eagerly watched by Paulet, and unacquainted with the late occurrences, received a viſit from Sir Thomas Gorges. This envoy, as inſtructed by Elizabeth, ſurpriſed her when ſhe had mounted her horſe to take the pleaſure of the chace. His ſalutation was abrupt and unceremonious; and after informing her of the diſcovery and circumſtances of the conſpiracy of Babington, he rudely charged her with a concern in it. Her aſtoniſhment was great, and ſhe deſired to return to her chamber: but this favour was refuſed to her; and after being carried from one houſe to another, in an anxious and perplexing uncertainty, ſhe was committed to Fotheringay caſtle in Northamptonſhire. Naw and Curl, her two ſecretaries, the former a Frenchman, the latter a native of Scotland, were taken into cuſtody. Paulet breaking open the doors of her private cloſet, poſſeſſed himſelf of her money, which amounted not to more than 7000 crowns. Her cabinets were carefully ſealed up; and being ſent to London, were examined in the preſence of Elizabeth. They contained many diſpatches from perſons beyond the ſea, copies of letters which had been dictated by her, and about 60 tables of ciphers and characters.

808 Account of Babington's conſpiracy againſt Elizabeth.

809 Art and treachery of Elizabeth and her miniſters.

810 Mary is charged with the conſpiracy.

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There were also discovered in them many dispatches to her from English noblemen, which were full of admiration and respect. These Elizabeth concealed; but their authors suspecting that they were known, sought to purchase her forgiveness by the most abject protestations of an attachment to her person, and by the exercise of the most inveterate enmity to the queen of Scots. Naw and Curl declared, that the copies of her letters were in their hand-writing. They had been dictated by her in the French language to Naw, translated into English by Curl, and then put into cipher. They contained not, however, any matters with which she could be reproached or criminated. It was upon the foundation of the letters which Gifford had communicated to Walsingham that her guilt was to be inferred; and with copies of these, and with an attested account of the conspiracy of Babington and his associates, Sir Edward Wotton was now dispatched into France to accuse her to Henry III. and to explain to him the dangers to which Elizabeth was exposed from the machinations and practices of the English exiles.

811 Deliberations on the method of proceeding against her.

The privy-counsellors of Elizabeth deliberated upon the most proper method of proceeding against Mary. To some it appeared, that as she was only accessory to the plot, and not the designer of it, the most eligible severity to be exercised against her was a closer and more rigorous confinement; and they endeavoured to fortify this opinion, by observing, that she was sickly, and could not live long. By others who were haunted by the terrors of Popery, it was urged, that she ought to be put instantly to death by the formalities of the law. The earl of Leicester recommended it as most prudent to dispatch her secretly by poison. But this counsel was rejected as mean, disgraceful, and violent. The lawyers were of opinion, that she might be tried upon the statute of Edward III.; by which it was enacted to be treason to imagine the destruction of the sovereign, to make war against his kingdom, or to adhere to his enemies. Elizabeth, however, and her ministers, had provided a more plausible foundation for her trial. This was a parliamentary statute approving the act of association. As it had been passed while Mary was in England, it was argued, that she was bound by it in a local allegiance to Elizabeth. The next point of debate was the designation under which it was most adviseable to arraign her. To employ a foreign name and title as directly descriptive of her, was not judged to be consistent with the law of England. It was therefore resolved to design her "Mary daughter and heir of James V. king of Scotland, and commonly called queen of Scots, and dowager of France."

812 Commissioners appointed to try her.

This resolution being once taken, Elizabeth next appointed above 40 peers or privy-counsellors, and five judges, bestowing upon them in a body, or upon the greater part of them, absolute power and authority to inquire into the matters compassed and imagined against her by the Scottish princess, and to pass sentence according to the spirit and tenor of the act which had been passed. Of these commissioners a great majority proceeded to the castle of Fotheringay; and the day after their arrival, they deputed to Mary, Sir Walter Mildmay, Sir Amias Paulet, and Edward Barker a public notary, to deliver to her a letter from Elizabeth. In this letter the English queen gratified her unhappy passions, and after reproaching Mary with her crimes, informed her that commissioners were appointed to take cognizance of them. The Scottish princess, though astonished with the project of being brought to a public trial, was able to preserve her dignity, and addressed them with a composed manner and air. "It is a matter," said she, "altogether uncommon and strange, that Elizabeth should command me to submit to a trial, as if I were her subject. I am an independent sovereign; and will not tarnish by any meanness my high birth, the princes my predecessors, and my son. Misfortunes and misery have not yet so involved me in dejection, as that I am to faint and sink under this new calamity and insult. I desire that you will remember what I formerly protested to Bromley, who is now lord chancellor, and to the lord La War. To speak to me of commissioners, is a vain mockery of my rank. Kings alone can be my peers. The laws of England are unknown to me; and I have no counsellors to whose wisdom I can apply for instruction. My papers and commentaries have been taken from me; and no person can have the perilous courage to appear as my advocate. I have indeed recommended myself and my condition to foreign princes; but I am clear of the guilt of having conspired the destruction of Elizabeth, or of having incited any person whatsoever to destroy her. It is only by my own words and writings that an imputation of this kind can be supported; and I am conscious beyond the possibility of a doubt, that these evidences cannot be employed against me." The day after she had, in this manner, refused to allow the jurisdiction of the commissioners, Paulet and Barker returned to her, and informed her that they had put her speech into writing, and desired to know if she would abide by it. She heard it read distinctly, acknowledged it to be rightly taken, and avowed her readiness to persist in the sentiments she had delivered. But she added, there was a circumstance to which she had omitted to speak. "Your queen," said she, "affects in her letter to observe, that I am subject to the laws of England, because I have lived under their protection. This sentiment and mode of thinking are very surprising to me. I came into England, to crave her assistance and aid; and, ever since, I have been confined to a prison. The miseries of captivity cannot be called a protection, and the treatment I have suffered is a violation of all law." Remonstrances, however, were in vain: and Mary was obliged to stand a trial before this unjust tribunal.

813 She objects to their jurisdiction.

814 The accusation is preferred against her.

After various formalities, the lord chancellor opened the case; and was followed by Serjeant Gawdry, who proceeded to explain the above statute, and endeavoured to demonstrate that she had offended against it. He then entered into a detail of Babington's conspiracy; and concluded with affirming, "that Mary knew it, had approved it, had promised her assistance, and had pointed out the means to effect it." Proofs of this charge were exhibited against her, and displayed with great art. The letters were read which Sir Francis Walsingham had forged, in concert with Gifford, &c. and her secretaries Naw and Curl. The three spies had afforded all the necessary intelligence about the conspiracy, upon which to frame a correspondence between Mary and Babington, and upon which dispatches

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patches might be fabricated in her name to her foreign friends; and the ciphers were furnished by her two secretaries. But beside these pretended letters, another species of evidence was held out against her. Babington, proud of the dispatch sent to him in her name by Walsingham and Gifford, returned an answer to it; and a reply from her by the same agency was transmitted to him. Deluded, and in toils, he communicated these marks of her attention to Savage and Ballard, the most confidential of his associates. His confession and theirs became thus of importance. Nor were her letters and the confessions of these conspirators deemed sufficient vouchers of her guilt. Her two secretaries, therefore, who had lately forsaken her, were engaged to subscribe a declaration, that the dispatches in her name were written by them at her command, and according to her instructions. These branches of evidence, put together with skill, and heightened with all the imposing colours of eloquence, were pressed upon Mary. Though she had been long accustomed to the perfidious inhumanity of her enemies, her amazement was infinite. She lost not, however, her courage; and her defence was alike expressive of her penetration and magnanimity.

815 Mary's defence.

"The accusation preferred to my prejudice is a most detestable calumny. I was not engaged with Babington in his conspiracy; and I am altogether innocent of having plotted the death of Elizabeth. The copies of Babington's letters which have been produced, may indeed be taken from originals which are genuine; but it is impossible to prove that I ever received them. Nor did he receive from me the dispatches addressed to him in my name. His confession, and those of his associates, which have been urged to establish the authority of my letters to him, are imperfect and vain. If these conspirators could have testified any circumstances to my hurt, they would not so soon have been deprived of their lives. Tortures, or the fear of the rack, extorted improper confessions from them; and then they were executed. Their mouths were opened to utter false criminations, and were immediately shut for ever that the truth might be buried in their graves. It was no difficult matter to obtain ciphers which I had employed; and my adversaries are known to be superior to scruples. I am informed, that Sir Francis Walsingham has been earnest to recommend himself to his sovereign, by practices both against my life and that of my son; and the fabrication of papers, by which to effectuate my ruin, is a business not unworthy of his ambition. An evidence, the most clear and incontestable, is necessary to overthrow my integrity; but proofs, the most feeble and suspicious, are held out against me. Let one letter be exhibited, written in my hand, or that bears my superscription, and I will instantly acknowledge that the charge against me is sufficiently supported. The declaration of my secretaries is the effect of rewards or of terror. They are strangers; and to overcome their virtue was an easy atchievement to a queen whose power is absolute, whose riches are immense, and whose ministers are profound and daring in intrigues and treachery. I have often had occasion to suspect the integrity of Naw; and Curl, whose capacity is more limited, was always most obsequious to him. They may have written many letters in my name, without my knowledge or participation; and it is not fit that I should bear the blame of their inconsiderate boldness. They may have put many things into dispatches which are prejudicial to Elizabeth; and they may even have subscribed their declaration to my prejudice, under the prepossession that the guilt which would utterly overwhelm them might be pardoned in me. I have never dictated any letter to them which can be made to correspond with their testimony; and what, let me ask, would become of the grandeur, the virtue, and the safety of princes, if they depended upon the writings and declarations of secretaries? Nor let it be forgotten, that by acting in hostility to the duty and allegiance which they solemnly swore to observe to me, they have utterly incapacitated themselves from obtaining any credit. The violation of their oath of fidelity is an open perjury; and of such men the protestations are nothing. But, if they are yet in life, let them be brought before me. The matters they declare are so important as to require that they should be examined in my presence. It argues not the fairness of the proceedings against me, that this formality is neglected. I am also without the assistance of an advocate; and, that I might be defenceless and weak in the greatest degree, I have been robbed of my papers and commentaries. As to the copies of the dispatches which are said to have been written, by my direction, to Mendoza, the lord Paget, Charles Paget, the archbishop of Glasgow, and Sir Francis Inglefield, they are most unprofitable forgeries. For they tend only to show that I was employed in encouraging my friends to invade England. Now, if I should allow that these dispatches were genuine, it could not be inferred from them that I had conspired the death of Elizabeth. I will even confess, that I have yielded to the strong impulses of nature; and that, like a human creature, encompassed with dangers and insulted with wrongs, I have exerted myself to recover my greatness and my liberty. The efforts I have made can excite no blushes in me; for the voice of mankind must applaud them. Religion, in her sternest moments of severity, cannot look to them with reproach; and to consider them as crimes, is to despise the sanctimonious reverence of humanity, and to give way to the suspicious wretchedness of despotism. I have fought by every art of concession and friendship to engage my sister to put a period to my sufferings. Invited by her smiles, I ventured into her kingdom, in the pride and gaiety of my youth; and, under her anger and the miseries of captivity, I have grown into age. During a calamitous confinement of 20 years, my youth, my health, my happiness, are for ever gone. To her tenderness and generosity I have been indebted as little as to her justice; and, oppressed and agonizing with unmerited afflictions and hardships, I scrupled not to beseech the princes my allies to employ their armies to relieve me. Nor will I deny, that I have endeavoured to promote the advantage and interest of the persecuted Catholics of England. My intreaties in their behalf have been even offered with earnestness to queen Elizabeth herself. But the attainment of my kingdom, the recovery of my liberty, and the advancement of that religion which I love, could not induce me to stain myself with the crimes that are objected to me. I would disdain to purchase a crown by the assassination of the

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the meaneſt of the human race. To accuſe me of ſcheming the death of the queen my ſiſter, is to brand me with the infamy which I abhor moſt. It is my nature to employ the devotions of Eſther, and not the ſword of Judith. Elizabeth herſelf will atteſt, that I have often admoniſhed her not to draw upon her head the reſentment of my friends by the enormity of her cruelties to me. My innocence cannot ſincerely be doubted; and it is known to the Almighty God, that I could not poſſibly think to forego his mercy, and to ruin my ſoul, in order to compaſs a tranſgreſſion ſo horrible as that of her murder. But amidſt the inclement and unprincipled pretences which my adverſaries are pleaſed to invent to overwhelm me with calamities and anguiſh, I can trace and diſcover with eaſe the real cauſes of their hoſtility and provocation. My crimes are my birth, the injuries I have been compelled to endure, and my religion. I am proud of the firſt; I can forgive the ſecond; and the third is a ſource to me of ſuch comfort and hope, that for its glory I will be contented that my blood ſhall flow upon the ſcaffold."

To the defence of Mary, no returns were made beſide ſtout and unſupported affirmations of the truth of the evidence produced to her prejudice. In the courſe of the trial, however, there occurred ſome incidents which deſerve to be related. My lord Burleigh, who was willing to diſcompoſe her, charged her with a fixed reſolution of conveying her claims and titles to England to the king of Spain. But though, in a diſcontented humour with her ſon, ſhe had threatened to diſinherit him, and had even correſponded on the ſubject with her ſelect friends, it appears that this project is to be conſidered as only a tranſient effect of reſentment and paſſion. She indeed acknowledged, that the Spaniard profeſſed to have pretenſions to the kingdom of England, and that a book in juſtification of them had been communicated to her. She declared, however, that ſhe had incurred the diſpleaſure of many by diſapproving of this book; and that no conveyance of her titles to the Spaniard had been ever executed.

The trial continued during the ſpace of two days; but the commiſſioners avoided to deliver their opinions. My lord Burleigh, in whoſe management Elizabeth chiefly confided, and whom the Scottiſh queen diſcompoſed in no common degree by her ability and vigour, being eager to conclude the buſineſs, demanded to know if ſhe had any thing to add to what ſhe had urged in her defence. She informed him, that ſhe would be infinitely pleaſed and gratified, if it ſhould be permitted to her to be heard in her juſtification before a full meeting of the parliament, or before the queen and her privy-council. This intimation was unexpected; and the requeſt implied in it was rejected. The court, in conſequence of previous inſtructions from Elizabeth, adjourned to a farther day, and appointed that the place of its convention ſhould be the ſtar-chamber at Weſtminſter. It accordingly aſſembled there; and Naw and Curl, who had not been produced at Fotheringay caſtle, were now called before the commiſſioners. An oath to declare the truth was put to them; and they definitely affirmed and proteſted that the declaration they had ſubſcribed was in every reſpect juſt and faithful. Nothing farther remained, but to pronounce ſentence againſt Mary. The commiſſioners unanimouſly concurred in delivering it as their verdict or judgment, that ſhe "was a party to the conſpiracy of Babington; and that ſhe had compaſſed and imagined matters within the realm of England tending to the hurt, death, and deſtruction of the royal perſon of Elizabeth, in oppoſition to the ſtatute framed for her protection." Upon the ſame day in which this extraordinary ſentence was given, the commiſſioners and the judges of England iſſued a declaration which imported, that it was not to derogate in any degree from the titles and honour of the king of Scots.

816 She deſires to be heard before the parliament, or before the queen.

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817 Judgment given againſt her.

The ſentence againſt Mary was very ſoon afterwards ratified by the Engliſh parliament. King James was ſtruck with horror at hearing of the execution of his mother; but that ſpiritleſs prince could ſhow his reſentment no farther than by unavailing embaſſies and remonſtrances. France interpoſed in the ſame ineffectual manner; and on the 6th of December 1586, Elizabeth cauſed the ſentence of the commiſſioners againſt her to be proclaimed. After this ſhe was made acquainted with her fate, and received the news with the greateſt compoſure, and even apparent ſatiſfaction. Her keepers now refuſed to treat her with any reverence or reſpect. They entered her apartment with their heads covered, and made no obeiſance to her. They took down her canopy of ſtate, and deprived her of all the badges of royalty. By theſe inſulting mortifications they meant to inform her, that ſhe had ſunk from the dignity of a princeſs to the abject ſtate of a criminal. She ſmiled, and ſaid, "In deſpite of your ſovereign and her ſubſervient judges, I will live and die a queen. My royal character is indelible; and I will ſurrender it with my ſpirit to the Almighty God, from whom I received it, and to whom my honour and my innocence are fully known." In this melancholy ſituation Mary addreſſed a magnanimous letter to Elizabeth, in which, without making the leaſt ſolicitation for her life, ſhe only requeſted that her body might be carried to France; that ſhe might be publicly executed; that her ſervants might be permitted to depart out of England unmoleſted, and enjoy the legacies which ſhe bequeathed them. But to this letter no anſwer was given.

818 The ſentence ratified by the Engliſh parliament.

In the mean time James, who had neither addreſs nor courage to attempt any thing in behalf of his mother, announced her ſituation to his bigotted ſubjects, and ordered prayers to be ſaid for her in all the churches. The form of the petition he preſcribed was framed with delicacy and caution, that the clergy might have no objection to it. He enjoined them to pray, "that it might pleaſe God to enlighten Mary with the light of his truth, and to protect her from the danger which was hanging over her." His own chaplains, and Mr David Lindſay miniſter of Leith, obſerved his command. But all the other clergy refuſed to proſtitute their pulpits by preferring any petitions to the Almighty for a Papiſt. James, ſhocked with their ſpirit of intolerance and ſedition, appointed a new day for prayers to be ſaid for Mary, and iſſued a ſtricter injunction to the clergy to obey him; and that he might be free himſelf from any inſult, he commanded the archbiſhop of St Andrews to preach before him. The eccleſiaſtics, diſguſted with his injunction,

819 Imbecility of James, and extreme inſolence and bigotry of his clergy.

Scotland. tion, persuaded Mr John Cowper, a probationer in divinity, to occupy the pulpit designed for the archbishop. When the king entered the church, he testified his surprise; but told Cowper, that if he would obey his injunction, he might proceed to officiate. Cowper replied, "that he would do as the spirit of God would direct him." The king commanded him to retire, and the captain of his guard advanced to compel him to obedience. The enraged probationer exclaimed, that this violence "would witness against the king in the great day of the Lord;" and denounced a curse against the spectators for not exerting themselves in his defence. The archbishop now ascending the pulpit, performed with propriety the function to which he had been called, and took the opportunity to recommend moderation and charity to the audience. In the afternoon Cowper was cited before the privy-council; and was accompanied there by Mr Walter Balcanqual and Mr William Watson, two ministers remarkable for their zeal. As a punishment for his audacious petulance, he was committed to the castle of Blackness; and his attendants having distinguished themselves by an impudent vindication of him, were prohibited from preaching during the pleasure of the king.

820 Elizabeth feels some remorse.

Elizabeth, in the mean while, felt the torment and disquiet of unhappy and miserable passions. At times she courted the sadness of solitude, and refused to be consoled or to speak. In other seasons her sighs were frequent, and she broke out into loud and wild exclamations expressive of the state of her mind. Her subjects waited the determinations of her will under a distracting agitation and uncertainty. He ministers, who knew that it is the nature of fear to exclude pity, were industrious in inventing terrifying intelligence, and in circulating it through the kingdom. There were rumours that the Spanish fleet had arrived at Milford haven; that a formidable army of Scottish combatants was advancing to the capital; that the duke of Guise had disembarked many troops of veteran soldiers in Suffex; that Mary had escaped out of prison, and was collecting the English Catholics; that the northern counties had thrown aside their allegiance; and that there was a new plot to kill Elizabeth, and to reduce London to ashes. An actual conspiracy was even maliciously charged upon L'Aubespine the French resident; and he was forced to withdraw from England in disgrace. From the panic terrors which the ministers of Elizabeth were so studious to excite, they scrupled not loudly and invariably to infer, that the peace and tranquillity of the kingdom could alone be re-established by the speedy execution of the Scottish queen.

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821 But signs the warrant for Mary's death.

While the nation was thus artfully prepared for the destruction of Mary, Elizabeth ordered secretary Davidson to bring to her the warrant for her death. Having perused it with deliberation, she observed that it was extended in proper terms, and gave it the authority of her subscription. She was in a humour somewhat gay, and demanded of him if he was not sorry for what she had done. He replied, that it was afflicting to him to think of the state of public affairs; but that he greatly preferred her life to that of the Scottish princess. She enjoined him to be secret, and desired, that before he should deliver the warrant to the chancellor, he should carry it to Walsingham. "I fear much, (said she, in a merry tone), that the grief of it will kill him."

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This levity was momentary; and fears and anxieties succeeded it. Though she earnestly desired the death of Mary, she was yet terrified to encounter its infamy. She was solicitous to accomplish this base transaction by some method which would conceal her consent to it. After intimating to Mr Davidson an anxious wish that its blame should be removed from her, she counselled him to join with Walsingham in addressing a letter to Sir Amias Paulet and Sir Drue Drury, recommending it to them to manifest their love to her by shedding privately the blood of her adversary. The unlawfulness of this deed affected Davidson, and he objected to it. She repeated resolutely her injunctions; and he departed to execute them. A letter under his name and that of Walsingham was dispatched to Mary's keepers, communicating to them her purpose. Corrupted by her passions, and lost to the sensibilities of virtue, Elizabeth had now reached the last extremity of human wickedness. Though a sovereign princess, and entrusted with the cares of a great nation, she blushed not to give it in charge to her ministers to enjoin a murder; and this murder was connected with every circumstance that could make it most frightful and horrid. The victim for whose blood she thirsted was a woman, a queen, a relation, who was splendid with beauty, eminent in abilities, magnanimous under misfortunes, and smiling with innocence. Sir Amias Paulet and Sir Drue Drury, though the slaves of religious prejudices, felt an elevation of mind which reflected the greatest disgrace upon the sovereign. They considered themselves as grossly insulted by the purpose proposed to them; and in the return they made to Walsingham, they assured him, that the queen might command their lives and their property, but that they would never consent to part with their honour, and to stain themselves and their posterity with the guilt of an assassination. When Davidson carried their dispatch to her, she broke out into anger. Their scrupulous delicacy, she said, was a dainty infringement of their oath of association; and they were nice, precise, and perjured traitors, who could give great promises in words, and atchieve nothing. She told him, that the business could be performed without them; and recommended one Wingfield to his notice, who would not hesitate to strike the blow. The astonished secretary exclaimed with warmth against a mode of proceeding so dangerous and unwarrantable. He protested, that if she should take upon herself the blame of this deed, it would pollute her with the blackest dishonour; and that, if she should disavow it, she would overthrow for ever the reputation, the estates, and the children, of the persons who should assist in it. She heard him with pain, and withdrew from him with precipitation.

822 Wishes to have her privately murdered.

823 Which her keepers refuse.

824 The warrant passes the great seal.

The warrant, after having been communicated to Walsingham, was carried to the chancellor, who put the great seal to it. This formality was hardly concluded, when a message from Elizabeth prohibited Davidson from waiting upon the chancellor till he should receive farther instructions. Within an hour after, he received a second message to the same purpose. He hastened to court; and Elizabeth asked eagerly,

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gerly if he had seen the chancellor. He answered in the affirmative; and she exclaimed with bitterness against his haste. He said, that he had acted exactly as she had directed him. She continued to express warmly her displeasure; but gave no command to stop the operation of the warrant. In a state of uneasiness and apprehension, he communicated her behaviour to the chancellor and the privy-council. These courtiers, however, who were well acquainted with the arts of their mistress, and who knew how to flatter her, paid no attention to him. They perceived, or were secretly informed, that she desired to have a pretence upon which to complain of the secretary, and to deny that he had obeyed her instructions. They observed to him, that by subscribing the warrant, she had performed whatever the law required of her; and that it was not proper to delay the execution any longer. While they were anxious to please Elizabeth, they were conscious of their own cruelty to Mary, and did not imagine they could be in perfect security while she lived. They dispatched the warrant to the earls of Shrewsbury and Kent, with instructions to them to fulfil its purpose.

845 Mary is acquainted with her fate.

When the two earls and their retinue reached Fotheringay castle, they found that Mary was sick, and reposing upon her bed. They insisted, notwithstanding, to be introduced to her. Being informed by her servants that the message they brought was important and pressing, she prepared to receive them. They were conducted into her presence by Sir Amias Paulet and Sir Drue Drury; and with little formality they told her, that Elizabeth had consented to her death, and that she was to suffer the next morning at 8 o'clock. Then Beale, one of the clerks of the privy-council, who accompanied them, read over the warrant. She crossed herself in the name of God, and with an unshaken courage, and an unaltered countenance, said to them, "The news you bring cannot but be most welcome, since they announce the termination of my miseries. Nor do I account that soul to be deserving of the felicities of immortality which can shrink under the sufferings of the body, or scruple the stroke that sets it free." They affected to justify their mistress by entering into details concerning the conspiracy of Babington. She put her hand upon the Scriptures, which lay upon a table near her, and swore in the most solemn manner, that she never devised, consented to, or pursued the death of Elizabeth in any shape whatsoever. The earl of Kent, unwisely zealous for the Protestant religion, excepted against her oath, as being made upon a Popish bible. She replied to him mildly, "It is for this very reason, my lord, to be relied upon with the greater security; for I esteem the Popish version of the Scriptures to be the most authentic." Indulging his puritanical fervour, he declaimed against Popery, counselled her to renounce its errors, and recommended to her attention Dr Fletcher dean of Peterborough. She heard him with some impatience; and discovered no anxiety to be converted by this ecclesiastic, whom he represented as a most learned divine. Rising into passion, he exclaimed, that "her life would be the death of their religion, and that her death would be its life." After informing him that she was unalterably fixed in her religious sentiments, she desired that her confessor might have the liberty to repair to her. The two earls concurred in observing, that their consciences did not allow them to grant this request. She intimated to them the favours for which she had applied by her letter to Elizabeth, and expressed a wish to know if her sister had attended to them. They answered, that these were points upon which they had received no instructions. She made inquiries concerning her secretaries Naw and Curl; and asked, whether it had ever been heard of, in the wickedest times of the most unprincipled nation, that the servants of a sovereign princess had been suborned for the purpose of destroying her. They looked to one another, and were silent. Bourgoin her physician, who with her other domestics was present at this interview, seeing the two earls ready to depart, besought them with an emphatic earnestness to reflect upon the short and inadequate portion of time that they had allotted to his mistress to prepare herself for death. He insisted, that a respect for her high rank, and the multiplicity and importance of her concerns, required at least a period of some days. They pretended, however, not to understand the propriety of his petition, and refused it.

847 She prepares for death.

Upon the departure of the two earls, her domestics gave a full vent to their afflictions; and while she experienced a melancholy pleasure in their tears, lamentations, and kindness, she endeavoured to console them. Their grief, she said, was altogether unavailing, and could neither better her condition nor their own. Her cause had every thing about it that was most honourable; and the miseries from which she was to be relieved were the most hopeless and the most afflicting. Instead of dejection and sadness, she therefore enjoined them to be contented and happy. That she might have the more leisure to settle her affairs, she supped early, and, according to her usual custom, she eat little. While at table, she remarked to Bourgoin her physician, that the force of truth was insurmountable; for that the earl of Kent, notwithstanding the pretence of her having conspired against Elizabeth, had plainly informed her, that her death would be the security of their religion. When supper was over, she ordered all her servants to appear before her, and drank to them. They pledged her upon their knees, mingling tears with the wine, and entreating her forgiveness for any offences they had ever committed against her. She condescended in her turn to beg their pardon for her omissions or neglects; and she recommended it to them to love charity, to avoid the unhappy passions of hatred and malice, and to preserve themselves stedfast in the faith of Christ. She now considered the inventory of her goods and jewels, and put down the names of the domestics to whom she destined them. To her confessor she sent a letter, intreating the favour of his benediction and prayers. With her own hand she wrote out her testament, settling her affairs with great prudence. To the king of France and the duke of Guise she addressed separate dispatches; in which she recalled to them her misfortunes, asserted her innocence, and pointed out her servants as proper objects of their generosity. Her son she also mentioned to them; recommending him to their anxious cares, if he should prove worthy of their esteem; but delicately intimating a fear, that the course of his conduct might displease them. Having finished

Scotland. finished these attentions, she entered her bed-chamber with her women; and, according to her uniform practice, employed herself in religious duties, and in reading in the Lives of the Saints. At her accustomed time she went to sleep; and after enjoying some hours of sound rest, she awaked. She then indulged in pious meditation, and partook of the sacrament by the means of a consecrated hostie, which a melancholy presentiment of her calamities had induced her to obtain from Pius V.

Stuart.

827 Account of the execution.

At the break of day she arrayed herself in rich, but becoming apparel; and calling together her servants, she ordered her will to be read, and apologized for the smallness of her legacies from her inability to be more generous. Following the arrangement she had previously made, she then dealt out to them her goods, wardrobe, and jewels. To Bourgoin her physician, she committed the care of her will, with a charge that he would deliver it to her principal executor the duke of Guise. She also entrusted him with tokens of her affection for the king of France, the queen-mother, and her relations of the house of Lorraine. Bidding now an adieu to all worldly concerns, she retired to her oratory, where she was seen sometimes kneeling at the altar, and sometimes standing motionless with her hands joined, and her eyes directed to the heavens. In these tender and agitated moments, she was dwelling upon the memory of her sufferings and her virtues, reposing her weakness in the bosom of her God, and lifting and solacing her spirit in the contemplation of his perfections and his mercy. While she was thus engaged, Thomas Andrews, the high sheriff of the county, announced to her, that the hour for her execution was arrived. She came forth dressed in a gown of black silk; her petticoat was bordered with crimson-velvet; a veil of lawn bowed out with wire, and edged with bone-lace, was fastened to her cawle, and hung down to the ground; an Agnus Dei was suspended from her neck by a pomander chain; her beads were fixed to her girdle; and she bore in her hand a crucifix of ivory. Amidst the screams and lamentations of her women she descended the stairs; and in the porch she was received by the earls of Kent and Shrewsbury with their attendants. Here, too, she met Sir Andrew Melvil the master of her household, whom her keepers had debarred from her presence during many days. Throwing himself at her feet, and weeping aloud, he deplored his sad destiny, and the sorrowful tidings he was to carry into Scotland.

After she had spoken to Melvil, she besought the two earls that her servants might be treated with civility, that they might enjoy the presents she had bestowed upon them, and that they might receive a safe-conduct to depart out of the dominions of Elizabeth. These slight favours were readily granted to her. She then begged that they might be permitted to attend her to the scaffold, in order that they might be witnesses of her behaviour at her death. To this request the earl of Kent discovered a strong reluctance. He said that they would behave with an intemperate passion; and that they would practise superstitious formalities, and dip their handkerchiefs in her blood. She replied, that she was sure that none of their actions would be blameable; and that it was but decent that some of her women should be about her. The earl still hesitating, she was affected with the insolent and stupid indignity of his malice; and exclaimed, "I am cousin to your mistress, and descended from Henry VII. I am a dowager of France, and the anointed queen of Scotland." The earl of Shrewsbury interposing, it was agreed, that she should select two of her women, who might assist her in her last moments, and a few of her men-servants, who might behold her demeanour, and report it.

She entered the hall where she was to suffer, and advanced with an air of grace and majesty to the scaffold, which was built at its farthest extremity. The spectators were numerous. Her magnanimous carriage, her beauty, of which the lustre was yet dazzling, and her matchless misfortunes, affected them. They gave way to contending emotions of awe, admiration, and pity. She ascended the scaffold with a firm step and a serene aspect, and turned her eye to the block, the axe, and the executioners. The spectators were dissolved in tears. A chair was placed for her, in which she seated herself. Silence was commanded; and Beale read aloud the warrant for her death. She heard it attentively, yet with a manner from which it might be gathered, that her thoughts were employed upon a subject more important. Dr Fletcher dean of Peterborough taking his station opposite to her without the rails of the scaffold, began a discourse upon her life, past, present, and to come. He affected to enumerate her trespasses against Elizabeth, and to describe the love and tenderness which that princess had shown to her. He counselled her to repent of her crimes; and while he inveighed against her attachment to Popery, he threatened her with everlasting fire if she should delay to renounce its errors. His behaviour was indecent and coarse in the greatest degree; and while he meant to insult her, he insulted still more the religion which he professed and the sovereign whom he flattered. Twice she interrupted him with great gentleness. But he pertinaciously continued his exhortations. Raising her voice, she commanded him with a resolute tone to with-hold his indignities and menaces, and not to trouble her any more about her faith. "I was born (said she) in the Roman Catholic religion; I have experienced its comforts during my life, in the trying seasons of sickness, calamity, and sorrow; and I am resolved to die in it." The two earls, ashamed of the savage obstinacy of his deportment, admonished him to desist from his speeches, and to content himself with praying for her conversion. He entered upon a long prayer; and Mary falling upon her knees, and disregarding him altogether, employed herself in devotions from the office of the Virgin.

After having performed all her devotions, her women assisted her to disrobe; and the executioners offering their aid, she repressed their forwardness by observing, that she was not accustomed to be attended by such servants, nor to be undressed before so large an assembly. Her upper garments being laid aside, she drew upon her arms a pair of silk gloves. Her women and men servants burst out into loud lamentations. She put her finger to her mouth to admonish them to be silent, and then bade them a final adieu with a smile that seemed to console, but that plunged them into deeper wo. She kneeled resolutely before the block,

Scotland. block, and said, "In thee, O Lord! do I truſt, let me never be confounded." She covered her eyes with a linen handkerchief in which the euchariſt had been incloſed; and ſtretching forth her body with great tranquillity, and fitting her neck for the fatal ſtroke, ſhe called out, "Into thy hands, O God! I commit my ſpirit." The executioner, from deſign, from unſkilfulneſs, or from inquietude, ſtruck three blows before he ſeparated her head from her body. He held it up mangled with wounds, and ſtreaming with blood; and her hair being diſcompoſed, was diſcovered to be already grey with afflictions and anxieties. The dean of Peterborough alone cried out, "So let the enemies of Elizabeth periſh." The earl of Kent alone, in a low voice, anſwered, "Amen." All the other ſpectators were melted down with the tendereſt ſympathy and ſorrow.

Her women haſtened to protect her dead body from the curioſity of the ſpectators; and ſolaced themſelves with the thoughts of mourning over it undiſturbed when they ſhould retire, and of laying it out in its funeral garb. But the two earls prohibited them from diſcharging theſe melancholy yet pleaſing offices to their departed miſtreſs, and chaſed them from the hall with indignity. Bourgoin her phyſician applied to them that he might be permitted to take out her heart for the purpoſe of preſerving it, and of carrying it with him to France. But they refuſed his intreaty with diſdain and anger. Her remains were touched by the rude hands of the executioners, who carried them into an adjoining apartment; and who, tearing a cloth from an old billiard-table, covered that form, once ſo beautiful. The block, the cuſhion, the ſcaffold, and the garments, which were ſtained with her blood, were conſumed with fire. Her body, after being embalmed and committed to a leaden coffin, was buried with a royal ſplendour and pomp in the cathedral of Peterborough. Elizabeth, who had treated her like a criminal while ſhe lived, ſeemed diſpoſed to acknowledge her for a queen when ſhe was dead.

827 Infamous diſſimulation in Elizabeth, and indifference in James.

On the death of his mother, the full government of the kingdom devolved on James her ſon. Elizabeth, apprehenſive of his reſentment for her treatment of his mother, wrote him a letter, in which ſhe diſclaimed all knowledge of the fact. James had received intelligence of the murder before the arrival of this letter, which was ſent by one Cary. The meſſenger was ſtopped at Berwick by an order from the king, telling him, that, if Mary had been executed, he ſhould proceed at his peril. James ſhut himſelf up in Dalkeith caſtle, in order to indulge himſelf in grief; but the natural levity and imbecillity of his mind prevented him from acting in any degree as became him. Inſtead of reſolutely adhering to his firſt determination of not allowing Cary to ſet foot in Scotland, he in a few days gave his conſent that he ſhould be admitted to an audience of certain members of his privy-council, who took a journey to the borders on purpoſe to wait upon him. In this conference, Cary demanded that the league of amity between the two kingdoms ſhould be inviolably obſerved. He ſaid, that his miſtreſs was grieved at the death of Mary, which had happened without her conſent; and, in Elizabeth's name, offered any ſatisfaction that James could demand. The Scots commiſſioners treated Cary's ſpeech and propoſal with becoming diſdain. They obſerved, that they amounted to no more than to know whether James was diſpoſed to ſell his mother's blood; adding, that the Scottiſh nobility and people were determined to revenge it, and to intereſt in their quarrel the other princes of Europe. Upon this Cary delivered to them the letter from Elizabeth, together with a declaration of his own concerning the murder of the queen; and it does not appear that he proceeded farther.

This reception of her ambaſſador threw Elizabeth into the utmoſt conſternation. She was apprehenſive that James would join his force to that of Spain, and entirely overwhelm her; and had the reſentment or the ſpirit of the king been equal to that of the nation, it is probable, that the haughty Engliſh princeſs would have been made ſeverely to repent her perfidy and cruelty. It doth not, however, appear, that James had any ſerious intention of calling Elizabeth to an account for the murder of his mother; for which, perhaps, his natural imbecillity may be urged as an excuſe, though it is more probable that his own neceſſity for money had ſwallowed up every other conſideration. By the league formerly concluded with England, it had been agreed that Elizabeth ſhould pay an annual penſion to the king of Scotland. James had neither œconomy to make his own revenue anſwer his purpoſes, nor addreſs to get it increaſed. He was therefore always in want; and as Elizabeth had plenty to ſpare, her friendſhip became a valuable acquiſition. To this conſideration, joined to his view of aſcending the Engliſh throne, muſt chiefly be aſcribed the little reſentment ſhown by him to the atrocious conduct of Elizabeth.

828 Secretary Davidſon and lord Burleigh punished.

Elizabeth was not wanting in the arts of diſſimulation and treachery now more than formerly. She proſecuted and fined ſecretary Davidſon and lord Burleigh for the active part they had taken in Mary's death. Their puniſhment was indeed much leſs than they deſerved, but they certainly did not merit any ſuch thing at her hands. Walſingham, though equally guilty, yet eſcaped by pretending indiſpoſition, or perhaps eſcaped becauſe the queen had now occaſion for his ſervices. By her command he drew up a long letter addreſſed to lord Thirlſton, king James's prime miniſter; in which he ſhowed the neceſſity of putting Mary to death, and the folly of attempting to revenge it. He boaſted of the ſuperior force of England to that of Scotland; ſhewed James that he would for ever ruin his pretenſions to the Engliſh crown, by involving the two nations in a war; that he ought not to truſt to foreign alliances; that the Roman-Catholic party were ſo divided among themſelves, that he could receive little or no aſſiſtance from them, even ſuppoſing him ſo ill adviſed as to change his own religion for Popery, and that they would not truſt his ſincerity. Laſtly, he attempted to ſhow, that James had already diſcharged all the duty towards his mother and his own reputation that could be expected from an affectionate ſon and a wife king: that his interceding for her with a concern ſo becoming nature, had endeared him to the kingdom of England; but that it would be madneſs to puſh his reſentment farther.

This letter had all the effect that could be deſired. James gave an audience to the Engliſh ambaſſador; and being aſſured that his blood was *not tainted* by the execution of his mother for treaſon againſt Elizabeth, but

Scotland.

but that he was still capable of succeeding to the crown of England, he consented to make up matters, and to address the murderer of his mother by the title of loving and affectionate sister.

The reign of James, till his accession to the crown of England by Elizabeth's death in 1603, affords little matter of moment. His scandalous concessions to Elizabeth, and his constant applications to her for money, filled up the measure of Scottish meanness. Ever since the expulsion of Mary, the country had in fact been reduced to the condition of an English province. The sovereign had been tried by the queen of England, and executed for treason; a crime in the very nature of the thing impossible, had not Scotland been in subjection to England; and to complete all, the contemptible successor of Mary thought himself well off that he was not a traitor too, to his sovereign the queen of England we must suppose, for the case will admit of no other supposition.

830 Disturbances during the reign of James.

During the reign of James, the religious disturbances which began at the reformation, and that violent struggle of the clergy for power which never ceased till the revolution in 1688, went on with great violence. Continual clamours were raised against Popery, at the same time that the very fundamental principles of Popery were held, nay urged in the most insolent manner, as the effects of immediate inspiration. These were the total independence of the clergy on every earthly power, at the same time that all earthly powers were to be subject to them. Their fantastic decrees were supposed to be binding in heaven; and they took care that they should be binding on earth, for whoever had offended so far as to fall under a sentence of excommunication was declared an outlaw.

It is easy to see that this circumstance must have contributed to disturb the public tranquillity in a great degree. But besides this, the weakness of James's government was such, that, under the name of peace, the whole kingdom was involved in the miseries of civil war; the feudal animosities revived, and slaughter and murder prevailed all over the country. James, fitted only for pedantry, disputed, argued, modelled, and re-modelled the constitution to no purpose. The clergy continued their insolence, and the laity their violences upon one another; at the same time that the king, by his unhappy credulity in the operation of demons and witches, declared a most inhuman and bloody war against the poor old women, many of whom were burnt for the imaginary crime of conversing with the devil.

831 His superstition and cruelty.

In autumn 1600, happened a remarkable conspiracy, if indeed that can be called a conspiracy, which, from various circumstances, we might be rather induced to consider as merely the sally of a madman, magnified by the fears of James. As this transaction, known in history by the name of *Gowrie's conspiracy*, appears, in any view, of a nature extremely problematical; we have been contented with giving, in a note (a), a simple account of it, from the particulars that were drawn up

832 Gowrie's conspiracy.

(a) By the above-mentioned account it appears, that, on the 5th of August 1600, as James was taking horse in the morning to go a-hunting in the neighbourhood of Falkland, he was accosted in a manner more respectful than usual by Alexander Ruthven brother to the earl of Gowrie, and son to that earl who had been beheaded in this reign. It may be here proper to inform the reader, that the two brothers had received their education abroad; that they were looked upon as being more learned than noblemen generally are; and that they had not only been restored by James to their family-honours and estate, but distinguished by him with particular marks of his bounty. Having finished the course of their education and travels, they returned through England to Scotland, where they resided at their family-seat near Perth; but it is pretty certain, that Elizabeth had found means to fix the earl in her interest, and that she intended to make him her principal agent in Scotland. Be that as it will, this Alexander, who, it seems, was very handsome, and whom James suspected to have an intrigue with his wife, informed his majesty, that, the evening before, he had seized a suspicious fellow, muffled up in a cloak, which concealed a large pot full of gold coin: that he had secured the fellow and his pot in a sequestered house, till he should know his majesty's pleasure; for which purpose he had come to Falkland. Ruthven added, that none, not even the earl his brother, knew of this adventure: but pressed James to give some orders about the gold and the prisoner. James at first declined having any thing to do with either; but, upon farther examination, he began to suspect that the fellow might be an agent from the pope or the king of Spain, and might be entrusted with the gold to make disturbances in his kingdom. He offered to send back one of his servants with Ruthven, and a warrant directed to the magistrates of Perth, to receive the fellow and the money into their custody, and to detain both till his pleasure should be farther known. Ruthven strongly opposed this expedient. He observed, that if either the magistrates or his brother should hear of the prisoner and the money, James would get but a poor account of the latter; in which case he (Ruthven) must lose the reward of his zeal and loyalty; and therefore he intreated James to examine the fellow in person, entirely referring his own recompence to his majesty's generosity. The sport of the field being at a stand during this long conference, James joined his attendants; but told Ruthven, that he would consider further of the matter. Ruthven endeavoured still to prevail upon James to examine the prisoner, who, he said, in case of delay, might make a noise, which would defeat the whole discovery. Though it does not appear by the narrative drawn up by James himself, that he agreed to this proposal; yet Ruthven dispatched Henderson, one of the two servants who attended him, to ride post-haste back to acquaint the earl of Gowrie, that in about three hours James would be at his house, and desiring him to prepare dinner. James, during the chace, was startled with what he heard from Ruthven; and riding again up to him, told him, that when the sport was over he would attend him. Upon the death of the stag, James called for a fresh horse, and, unarmed and defenceless as he was, left word with the duke of Lennox, the earl of Marre, and his other attendants, that he was gone to Perth upon business with the earl of Gowrie, but that he would be back at night. Most of the company got fresh horses; and imagining that James was gone to apprehend the master of Oliphant, who was then skulking as an outlaw about the country, they gallopped after him, apprehending danger to his person.

Ruthven endeavoured to prevail on James to countermand their attendance upon his person, and to be satisfied with that of three or four servants. James says, that this discourse began to give him suspicions of Ruthven's intentions; but thinking that his brother's severe usage of him might have disturbed his brain, (a conjecture which was confirmed by the uncommon wildness of his looks, his pensive air and incoherent discourse), he was contented with ordering the noblemen his followers to attend him; and, after informing the duke of Lennox of Ruthven's discovery;

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833 The Western Islanders civilized.

up by the king himself, and published by authority.

The most memorable transaction of James's reign, and that most to his honour, is the civilizing of the western islanders. For this purpose, he instituted a company of gentlemen adventurers, to whom he gave large privileges for reforming them. The method he proposed was to transport numbers of them to his low countries in Scotland, and to give their islands, which were very improveable, in fee to his lowland subjects who should choose to reside in the islands. The experiment was to be made upon the Lewes, a long range of the Ebudæ; from whence the adventurers expelled Murdoch Macleod, the tyrant of the inhabitants. Macleod, however, kept the sea; and intercepting a ship which carried one of the chief adventurers, he sent him prisoner to Orkney, after putting the crew to the sword. Macleod was soon after betrayed by his own brother, and hanged at St Andrew's. The history of this new undertaking is rather dark; and the settlers themselves seem to have been defective in the arts of civilization.

Scotland.

40 E 2 The

very, and his own suspicions of his insanity, he ordered him not to leave him, especially when he entered the house where the fellow and the treasure was confined. Their discourse was interrupted by Ruthven, who again peremptorily insisted, that none of the royal attendants should be present at the fellow's examination: but James told him with a smile, "That being himself but a poor accountant, it was necessary he should have some assistance in telling the money." Ruthven insisting with his usual earnestness that none should be present, James grew at last apprehensive of some treasonable design; but, by his own account, he was ashamed to own his suspicions, and rode forward. When they came within two miles of Perth, Ruthven dispatched another servant to advertise his brother of the king's approach; and after riding a mile farther, he left James for the same purpose.

Gowrie was at dinner when he understood by his brother that the king was at hand; and was so far from having made any preparation for his majesty's reception †, that having received him at the head of three or four score of his attendants, (those of James not exceeding 15, and armed only with swords), it was a full hour before his dinner could be got ready. During this interval, James pressed Ruthven to introduce him to the prisoner; but he pretended that there was no hurry till his majesty's dinner was over. James describes the earl of Gowrie as being extremely restless, unquiet, and uneasy, while his majesty was dining. When James was ready to rise from the table, Ruthven whispered him that it was now time to visit the prisoner; but he wished that his majesty would get rid of the earl his brother, by desiring him to entertain the other guests. When James left the room, he desired to be attended by Sir Thomas Erskine; but Ruthven desired him to go forward with him, "and persisting that he should make any one or two follow him that he pleased to call for; desiring his majesty to command publicly that none should follow him." It does not appear that the king gave any such order; but that, passing through the end of the hall where his attendants were at dinner, he mounted a winding stair, (called in Scotland a *turnpike*), and after passing thro' several rooms, the doors of which were all carefully locked by Ruthven, at last he entered a small closet, where he saw a man with a dejected countenance, standing at liberty with a dagger at his girdle. Ruthven locking the door, and clapping his hat on his head, drew the dagger from the man's girdle, and pointing it to the king's breast, he swore bitterly, that it should go to his heart if he offered to cry out or open a window; affirming, that he was sure the king's conscience was burdened for murdering his father.

James does not inform us why Ruthven did not immediately plunge the dagger into his bosom, (which he naturally would have done, had he been determined to murder him); but displays his own eloquence, in recounting the arguments he made use of to divert Ruthven from his barbarous purpose, while the third person stood by, trembling and quaking, rather like one condemned than an executioner of such an enterprise. If we believe James, his rhetoric made such an impression upon Ruthven, that it saved his life. "At his majesty's persuasive language (says James in his narrative) he appeared to be somewhat amazed, and, uncovering his head again, swore and protested that his majesty's life should be safe, if he would behave himself quietly, without making noise or crying, and that he would only bring in the earl his brother to speak with his majesty. Whereupon his majesty inquiring what the earl would do with him, since (if his majesty's life were safe, according to promise) they could gain little in keeping such a prisoner, his answer only was, that he could tell his majesty no more; but that his life should be safe, in case he behaved himself quietly; the rest the earl his brother, whom he was going for, would tell his majesty at his coming. With that, as he was going for the earl his brother, as he affirmed, he turned him about to the other man, saying these words unto him, "I make you here the king's keeper till I come back again, and see that you keep him upon your peril: and therewithal said to his majesty, "You must content yourself to have this man now your keeper until my coming back."

After this sudden transition from murder to mildness, Ruthven left the room, but took the key with him. His majesty asked the fellow who was left with him, "Whether he was appointed to be his murderer?" which he denied with marks of fear and horror; and said, that he had been locked in there a very little while before his majesty's arrival. The king then ordered him to open the window, which he readily did. Mean time, while Gowrie was entertaining the king's servants, one of them told him that the king had taken horse; upon which the company rushed out to follow him. They understood from the porter that the king was not gone; but Gowrie running back to the house, immediately returned, and told them the king had set out by a back-gate. As they were hastening to take horse, young Ruthven returned, and told James that he must die, offering to bind his majesty's hands at the same time with a garter. James and he instantly collared each other; and before Ruthven could draw his sword, James drew him by force to the window, from whence he called out that they were murdering him in that place, at the very instant his servants were running past it to take their horses. The king's voice was instantly known by the earl of Marre and the duke of Lennox. They attempted to run up the turnpike by which the king entered; but the earl of Gowrie mounted by another stair-case, which was left open. By this time James had the better in the struggle between him and Ruthven, and he had drawn the latter to the door of the study, his head being under his majesty's arms, and himself on his knees.

Such was the situation of the combatants, when Sir John Ramsay luckily found his way to the accessible turnpike, and mounting it, wounded Ruthven two or three times with his dagger; upon which James threw his antagonist down from the top of the stairs to the bottom, where his life was finished by Sir Thomas Erskine and Sir Hugh Herries. His last words were, "I am not to blame for this." Before Erskine performed this feat, he had collared the earl of Gowrie, who was delivered by his servants. Erskine and Herries having dispatched Ruthven, ran up the turn-

† This is not surprising when we consider how ill prepared he was for his royal visitant; for it appears, from the king's own relation, that neither of his brothers servants had delivered their message: besides, if Ruthven was (as there is too much reason to believe he was) insane, the earl's concern must have been increased at such an adventure.

Scotland. The arrangements they made were considered by the inhabitants as being oppressive; and one Norman, of the Macleod family, attacked and subdued them so effectually, that they not only consented to yield the property of the islands to him, but engaged to obtain the king's pardon for what he had done.

834 James succeeds to the crown of England.

In 1603 James was called to the throne of England by the death of Elizabeth, and the same year took a final leave of Scotland (A). From this period the history of Scotland being blended with that of England, is included in the article BRITAIN; to which therefore we refer the reader, and shall proceed to give a general account of the country.

835 General description of Scotland.

The first and great division of Scotland is into the Highlands and Lowlands. The former engross more than one half of Scotland; extending from Dumbartonshire to the most northern part of the island, a space of 200 miles in length, and in breadth from 50 to 100. This tract, however, includes several extensive districts of low, fruitful ground, inhabited by people who are in all respects different from the mountaineers. Nothing can be more savage and tremendous to the eye of a stranger, than the appearance of the Highlands, composed of blue rocks and dusky mountains heaped upon one another even above the clouds, their interstices rendered impassable by bogs, their sides embrowned with heath, and their summits covered with snow, which lies all the year unthawed, pouring from their jagged sides a thousand torrents and roaring cataracts that fall into gloomy vales or glens below, some of them so narrow, deep, and dismal, as to be altogether impenetrable by the rays of the sun; yet even these mountains are in some places sloped into agreeable green hills fit for pasture, and skirted or intersperced with pleasant straths or valleys capable of cultivation. It may be unnecessary to observe, that the Lowlanders of Scotland speak an ancient dialect of the English language, interlarded with many terms and idioms which they borrowed immediately from France, in a long course of correspondence with that kingdom: they likewise copy their southern neighbours in their houses, equipage, habit, industry, and application to commerce. As to the inhabitants of the mountains, see the article HIGHLANDERS. They are all, however, comprehended under the name of *Scots*, governed by the same laws, and tried by the same judges; and, whatever may be their dissensions at home, they always, when abroad, acknowledge and assist one another as friends and countrymen. Some authors have divided Scotland into that part which lies to the southward of the Frith, and that which lies to the northward; but the true division is, like that of England, into shires, counties, stewartries, or bailiwicks, of which there are above 40 within the kingdom of Scotland. Scotland.

836 Principal mountains, &c.

The face of this country exhibits a very mountainous appearance, especially to the west and northward; but, at the same time, it displays many large and long tracts of plain ground fit for all the purposes of agriculture. It is divided from east to west by a chain of huge mountains, known by the name of *Grant's-bain* or the *Grampian hills*. There is another chain called the *Pentland hills*, which run through Lothian, and join the mountains of Tweedale; a third, called *Lammer muir*, rising near the eastern coast, runs westward through the Merse: but besides these, there is a vast number of detached hills and mountains, remarkable for their stupendous height and declivity. There is no country in the world better supplied than Scotland with rivers, lakes, rivulets, and fountains. Over and above the principal rivers of Tweed, Forth, Clyde, Tay, and Spey, there is an infinity of smaller streams that contribute to the beauty, convenience, and advantage of the kingdom. Tweed takes its rise from the borders of Annandale; serves as a boundary between Scotland and England; and, after a long serpentine course, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick. Forth rises in Monteith near Callendar, passes by Stirling, and after a course of 25 leagues, runs into the arm of the sea called the *Frith of Forth*, which divides the coast of Lothian from Fife. Clyde takes its rise from Errick hill, in the shire of Lanerk; traverses the shire of Clydesdale, to which it gives name; washes the city of Glasgow, widens in its passage to the castle of Dumbarton, and forms the frith of Clyde adjoining to the Irish sea. Tay, the largest river in Scotland, derives its source from Loch-Tay in Braidalbin; and, after a south-east course, discharges itself into the sea below Dundee. Spay, or Spey, issues from a lake of the same name in Badenoch; and, running a north-easterly course, falls into the German ocean, near Aberdour. Some of the fresh-water lakes are beautiful pieces of water, incredibly deep, and surprisingly

turnpike; and were followed by the earl of Gowrie, who had on his head a steel helmet, and a sword in each hand, and seven of his servants, each with a sword; all the force of James (whom his subjects had shut into the closet) amounting only to the three knights abovementioned, and one Wilson. A conflict ensued in the adjoining room, in which the king's attendants were wounded; but Sir John Ramsay ran his sword through Gowrie's heart; and he expiring without speaking a work, his servants were driven down stairs. The duke of Lennox and the earl of Marre had now forced their way into the turnpike by which James had mounted, and found him upon his knees, thanking God for his deliverance. The townsmen of Perth had by this time taken the alarm; and, upon hearing that their provost the earl of Gowrie was killed, surrounded the house. James ordered them to be admitted, shewed them the dead bodies of the earl and his brother, and informed them both of his danger and deliverance. To them he committed the custody of the bodies; but before he left the town, he "caused to search the earl of Gowrie's pockets, in case any letters that might further the discovery of that conspiracy might be found therein. But nothing was found in them but a little close parchment-bag, full of magical characters and words of inchantment, wherein it seemed that he put his confidence, thinking himself never safe without them, and therefore ever carried them about with him; being also observed, that, while they were upon him, his wound, whereof he died, bled not; but, incontinent after taking them away, the blood gushed out in great abundance, to the great admiration of all the beholders: an infamy which hath followed and spotted the race of this house for many descents, as is notoriously known in the whole country."

(B) In 1589 James was married to Anne princess of Denmark, for whom he made a voyage on purpose to that country. This princess seems to have intermeddled very little with state-affairs, since we find her scarce ever mentioned either by Scots or English historians. In her private conduct she is said to have been unprincipled, vindictive, and unfaithful to her husband.

Scotland. prisingly extended. There are several large forests of fir in Scotland, and a great number of woods; which, however, produce very little timber of any consequence: but the country, in general, is rather bare of trees; and in many places neither tree, shrub, nor any kind of plantation, is to be seen. The case has been otherwise of old; for huge trunks of trees are often dug from under ground in almost every part of the kingdom.

837 Climate and soil. In the north of Scotland, the day at midsummer is lengthened out to 18 hours and 5 minutes; so that the shortest night does not exceed 5 hours and 45 minutes: the night and day, in winter, are in the same proportion. The air of this kingdom is generally moist and temperate, except upon the tops of high mountains covered with eternal snow, where it is cold, keen, and piercing. In other parts it is tempered by warm vapours from the sea, which environs it on three sides, and runs far up into the land by friths, inlets, and indentations. This neighbourhood of the sea, and the frequency of hills and mountains, produce a constant undulation in the air, and many hard gales, that purify the climate, which is for the most part agreeable and healthy. Scotland affords a great variety of soil in different parts of the country, which, being hilly, is in general best adapted to pasturage: not but that the Lowlands are as fertile, and, when properly inclosed and manured, yield as good crops of wheat, as any grounds in the island of Great Britain. The water in Scotland is remarkably pure, light, and agreeable to the stomach: but, over and above that which is used for the ordinary purposes of life, here are many medicinal springs of great note.

Scotland abounds with quarries of free-stone easily worked, which enable the people to build elegant houses, both in town and country, at a small expence, especially as they have plenty of lime-stone, and labour very cheap. The east, west, and northern parts of the country produce excellent coal; and where this is wanting, the natives burn turf and peat for fuel. Crystals, variegated pebbles, and precious stones, are found in many parts of Scotland; talc, flint, and sea-shells, fuller's earth, potter's clay, and metals in great plenty. The country produces iron and copper ore, a prodigious quantity of lead, mixed with a large proportion of silver; and in some places little bits of solid gold are gathered in brooks immediately after torrents.

The Lowlands of Scotland, as has been observed, when duly cultivated, yield rich harvests of wheat; and indeed it must be owned that many parts of this kingdom rival the best spots of England in agriculture: but these improvements have not yet advanced into the western and northern extremities of the island, where we see nothing but scanty harvests of oats, rye, and barley. The Highlands are so defective even in these, that they are fain to import supplies of oatmeal from Ireland and Liverpool. This scarcity, however, we must not impute to the barrenness of the soil, so much as to the sloth and poverty of the tenants, oppressed by rapacious landlords, who refuse to grant such leases as would encourage the husbandman to improve his farm, and make himself better acquainted with the science of agriculture. This is perfectly well understood in the Lothians, where we see substantial inclosures, plantations, meadows for hay and pasture, wide-extended fields of wheat, the fruits of skill and industry, and meet with farmers who rent lands to the amount of 400 l. or 500 l. a-year. Of plants this country produces an immense variety, growing wild, exclusive of those that are raised by the hands of the husbandman and gardener. Their farm-grounds are well stocked with wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, and flax; their gardens produce great plenty of kitchen-roots, salads, and greens; among which last we reckon the colewort, known by the name of *Scotch kail:* their orchards bear a variety of apples, pears, cherries, plumbs, strawberries, gooseberries, raspberries, and currants: here also apricots, nectarines, peaches, and sometimes grapes, are brought to maturity. In a word, there is nothing, whether shrub, fruit, or flower, that grows in any part of South Britain, which may not, with a little pains, be brought to the same perfection in the middle of Scotland. Among the trees and shrubs which are the national growth of this country, we may reckon the oak, the fir, the birch, the poplar, the alder, willow, elder, hazle, mountain-ash, crab-tree, and juniper; which last abounds to such a degree in some parts of the Highlands, that in the space of a few miles many tons of the berries might be yearly gathered: besides these, we find the hawthorn, the sloe, the dog-rose, furze, broom, fern, and whole tracts of land and mountains covered with strong heath. This affords shelter for the myrtillis, the fruit of which, called *bilberries*, is here found in great abundance, as well as the brambleberry, cranberry, and wild strawberry. The ash, the elm, the sycamore, lime and walnut-tree, are chiefly planted about the houses of gentlemen; but even the inclosures of quick-set appear naked for want of such hedge-rows as adorn the country of England. Indeed, great part of this kingdom lies naked and exposed like a common; and other parts have no other inclosure than a paltry wall huddled up of loose stones, which yields a bleak and mean prospect, and serves no other purpose than that of keeping out the cattle. All the sea-coast is covered with alga marina, dulse, and other marine plants.

The Highlands are well stocked with red deer, and the smaller species called the *roe-buck*, as well as with hares, rabbits, foxes, wild cats and badgers; and they abound with all sorts of game. The rivers and lakes pour forth a profusion of salmon, trout, jack, and eels; the sea-coast swarms with all the productions of the ocean. The hills and mountains are covered with sheep and black cattle for exportation, as well as domestic use. These are of small size, as are also the horses bred in the Highlands; but the Lowlanders use the large breed, which came originally from England.

New SCOTLAND, or *Nova Scotia*, one of the British settlements in North America, situated between 62° and 72° W. Long. and between 43° and 51° N. Lat. It is bounded on the north and north-west by the river St Laurence, on the east by the bay of St Laurence and the Atlantic ocean, on the south by New England and part of the Atlantic ocean, and on the west by Canada.

This country received its name from the first proprietor Sir William Alexander, afterwards created earl of Stirling; but the French, when they obtruded themselves into this country, called it *Acadia*. The greatest part

Scotomia || Screw.

part of it lies on the continent; the remainder, which may be about one-third, is a peninsula, separated from the main by an arm of the sea called the *Bay of Fundy*, and joined to it at the north end by a narrow isthmus. The climate is cold, and the country much infested by fogs; which are, however, not unwholesome, though unpleasant. The soil, where it is cleared, if we may credit both English and French authorities, is very fertile; yielding corn, grass, and vegetables of every kind. The continent especially is mountainous; and the far greatest part of it remains still a forest. There are many lakes, several beautiful rivers abounding with a variety of fish, and nothing wanting to encourage the industry, and of course to increase the number, of its inhabitants. The principal places therein are Annapolis, which the French called *Port Royal*, seated on one of the finest havens in the world, capable of receiving any number of the largest ships; and, which is very remarkable, the tide rising there 28 or 30 feet. On the opposite side of the peninsula stands Halifax, the seat of government, where a noble establishment hath been made at the expence of Great Britain, and all the dispositions requisite for the service of his majesty's ships when a squadron is sent into these seas. The present exports of this country, are peltry, lumber, fish, oil; and in process of time, masts, pitch, tar, hemp, and all other naval stores, may be supplied from hence.

SCOTOMIA, in medicine, a vertigo accompanied with dimness of sight, frequently the forerunner of an apoplexy.

SCOTT (John), an eminent English divine, was born in 1638, and became minister of St Thomas's in Southwark. In 1684 he was collated to a prebend in the cathedral of St Paul's. Dr Hickes tells us, that, after the revolution, "he first refused the bishopric of Chester, because he would not take the oath of homage; and afterwards another bishopric, the deanery of Worcester, and a prebend of the church of Windsor, because they were all places of deprived men." He published several excellent works, particularly The Christian Life, &c. and died in 1695. He was eminent for his humanity, affability, sincerity, and readiness to do good; and his talent for preaching was extraordinary.

SCOTUS (Duns). See Duns.

Scotus (John). See Erigena.

SCOUTS, in a military sense, are generally horsemen sent out before, and on the wings of an army, at the distance of a mile or two, to discover the enemy, and give the general an account of what they see.

SCRATCH-PANS, in the English salt-works, a name given to certain leaden pans, which are usually made about a foot and an half long, a foot broad, and three inches deep, with a bow or circular handle of iron, by which they may be drawn out with a hook when the liquor in the pan is boiling. Their use is to receive a selenitic matter, known by the name of *soft scratch*, which falls during the evaporation of the salt-water. See the article *Sea*-Salt.

SCRATCHES, in farriery. See there, § xxxvi.

SCREW, one of the six mechanical powers. A screw is a cylinder cut into several concave surfaces, or rather a channel or groove made in a cylinder, by carrying on two spiral planes the whole length of the screw, in such a manner that they may be always equally inclined to the axis of the cylinder in their whole progress, and also inclined to the base of it in the same angle. See Mechanics, n° 54, &c.

Screw || Scribonius.

Nº 1. *To construct a common, or one-threaded Screw.*—Make a parallelogram of paper equal in length to the cylinder which is to be screwed, and equal in breadth to the circumference of that cylinder. Divide the side of the parallelogram, which is equal to the circumference of the cylinder, into two equal parts. Divide the other side of the parallelogram, which is equal in length to the cylinder, into as many parts as the thickness or breadth of the intended thread will run over. Then join the second point on the circumference side, to the second point on the length-side of the parallelogram, and so join all the succeeding points, as you see in the figure.

Plate CCLXII. fig. 1.

Nº 3. *To make a four-threaded* Screw, *or that which is commonly used for the letter-press.*—Make a parallelogram, as described before; divide that side which is equal to the circumference of the cylinder into eight equal parts, or twice the number of threads. Divide the other side into as many parts as the distance between two threads will run over, then join the points as in n° 1. (fig. 1.)

Corollary. *To make a left-handed screw.*—Make the parallels to the right instead of the left, as expressed by the figures.

This is the true and only practicable way of making all kinds of screws that are cut on a cylinder.

Archimedes's Screw. See Hydrostatics, n° 34.

Endless or *Perpetual screw*, one so fitted in a compound machine as to turn a dented wheel; so called, because it may be turned for ever without coming to an end.

If in the endless or perpetual screw, AB, (n° 4.) whose threads take the teeth of the wheel CD, you take the distance of two threads, according to the length of the axis AB; or the distance of two teeth in the wheel CD, in the direction of the circumference; and if a weight W act at the circumference of the wheel: then, if the power D be to the weight W, as that distance of the teeth or threads, to the length described by the power P in one revolution, the power and weight will be in equilibrio; because in one revolution of P, the wheel DC, with the weight W, has moved only the distance of one tooth.

SCRIBE, an officer among the Jews, whose business was to write; of which there were three kinds. The first and principal were the scribes of the law, whose office it was to write and interpret scripture: those were in great credit and esteem among the Jews, and had even the precedency of the priests and sacrificers; and their decisions were received with almost the same respect as the law of God itself. The second kind, properly called *scribes of the people*, were a sort of magistrates. The third were public notaries, or secretaries of the council; which were the least considerable.

The *scribes*, among the Romans, wrote out decrees or acts, and made out authentic copies of them.

SCRIBONIUS (Largus), an ancient physician in the reign of Augustus or Tiberius, was the author of several works; the best edition of which is that of John Rhodius.

SCRIP-

Fig. 1.
SCREW.

Fig. 2.
SEPIA
or. Cuttle Fish.

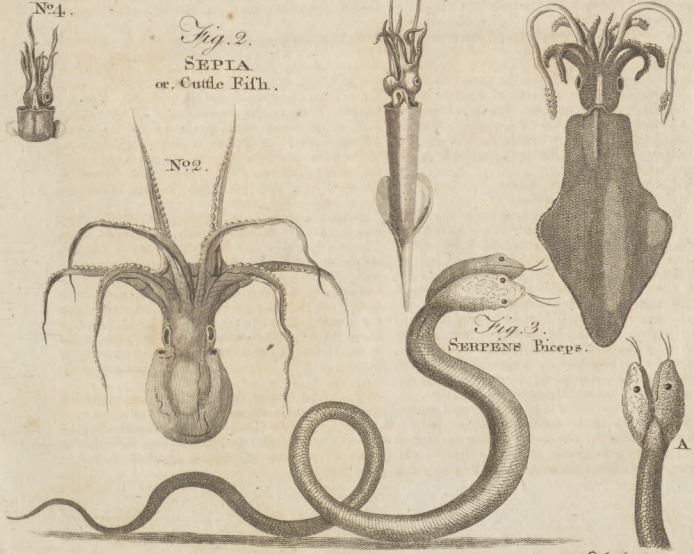

Fig. 3.
SERPENS Biceps.

A. Bell Sculpt.

SCRIPTURE, an appellation by way of eminence given to the sacred and inspired writings of the Bible. See BIBLE.

SCRIVENER, one who draws contracts, or whose business it is to place money at interest. If a scrivener is entrusted with a bond, he may receive the interest; and if he fails, the obligee shall bear the loss: and so it is if he receive the principal and deliver up the bond; for being entrusted with the security itself, it shall be presumed that he is trusted with power to receive interest or principal; and the giving up the bond on payment of the money shall be a discharge thereof. But if a scrivener shall be entrusted with a mortgage-deed, he hath only authority to receive the interest, not the principal; the giving up the deed in this case not being sufficient to restore the estate, but there must be a reconveyance, &c. It is held, where a scrivener puts out his client's money on a bad security, which upon inquiry might have been easily found so, yet he cannot in equity be charged to answer for the money; for it is here said, no one would venture to put out money of another upon a security, if he were obliged to warrant and make it good in case a loss should happen, without any fraud in him.

SCROPHULA, the KING'S EVIL, in medicine. See there, n° 446, and p. 4870.

SCROPHULARIA, FIGWORT; a genus of the angiospermia order, belonging to the didynamia class of plants. There are 17 species; the most remarkable of which is the aquatica, or greater water-figwort, which grows naturally by the sides of ditches in many parts of Britain. It has a fibrous root, sending out strong four-cornered stalks, which grow near four feet high; garnished with heart-shaped leaves, rounded at their points, and crenated on their edges, somewhat like those of betony; from whence it has got the name of *water-betony*. The flowers are produced in clusters, forming a kind of loose spike, and are of a reddish colour. The leaves are used in medicine as a corrector of sena, and in powder to promote sneezing.

SCROTUM, in anatomy. See there, n° 371, g.

SCRUPI, in natural history, fossils formed into large detached masses without crusts, and composed of a variously debased crystalline matter.

SCRUPLE, a weight equal to the third part of a dram, or 20 grains.

SCRUTINY, a strict examination of any thing.

SCUDDING, the movement by which a ship is carried precipitately before a tempest. As a ship flies with amazing rapidity through the water whenever this expedient is put in practice, it is never attempted in a contrary wind, unless when her condition renders her incapable of sustaining the mutual effort of the wind and waves any longer on her side, without being exposed to the most imminent danger. See the article TRYING.

A ship either scuds with a sail extended on her foremast, or, if the storm is excessive, without any sail; which, in the sea-phrase, is called *scudding under bare poles*. In sloops and schooners, and other small vessels, the sail employed for this purpose is called the *square-sail*. In large ships, it is either the foresail at large, reefed, or with its goose-wings extended, according to the degree of the tempest; or it is the fore-top-sail close reefed, and lowered on the cap; which last is particularly used when the sea runs so high as to becalm the foresail occasionally, a circumstance which exposes the ship to the danger of broaching-to. The principal hazards incident to scudding are generally, a pooping sea; the difficulty of steering, which exposes the vessel perpetually to the risk of broaching-to; and the want of sufficient sea-room. A sea striking the ship violently on the stern may daft it inwards, by which she must inevitably founder. In broaching-to, (that is, inclining suddenly to windward), she is threatened with being immediately overturned; and, for want of sea-room, she is endangered by shipwreck on a lee-shore, a circumstance too dreadful to require explanation.

SCUDERY (George de), a French writer of eminence in his day, descended from an ancient family of Apt in Provence, was born at Havre-de-Grace in 1603. The greatest part of his life was spent in writing; and his works consist of prose, dramatic pieces, and poetry of all kinds; but which are now little read. He died in 1667.

SCUDERY (Magdalene de), sister of George de Scudery, was born in 1607, and became very eminent for her wit and writings. Necessity first stimulated her genius; and as the taste of the age was for romances, she turned her pen that way, and succeeded wonderfully in gratifying the public humour. This lady held a correspondence with all the learned as well as with all the wits; and her house at Paris was a kind of little court, where numbers of both kinds used constantly to assemble. She died in 1701, at 94 years old. Her principal works are, 1. Artamanes, or the Grand Cyrus. 2. Clelia. 3. *La Promenade de Vraseilles*. 4. Ibrahim, or the Illustrious Bassa. 5. Almahide, or the Royal Slave. 6. Celinda. 7. Matilda of Aguilar. 8. Conversations, 10 volumes, &c. All of them are written in French.

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